

# **Confronting Vulnerability - State-Induced Social Innovation and the Making of South Korea's Social Enterprises**

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Dissertation submitted to the Hertie School in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in the Doctoral Programme in Governance.

Berlin, 2020



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## Summary

This dissertation delineates the state-induced emergence and mainstreaming of South Korea's (hereinafter, 'Korea') social enterprise sector following the enactment of a social enterprise promotion act in 2007. In particular, this dissertation contextualizes the public sector-led popularization and mobilization of social enterprises and studies the outcomes of this intervention. This dissertation includes analyses of networks, discourse, and geographic agglomerations, and it highlights the pressures, mechanisms, institutions, and organizations that have been integral to this process of state-induced innovation. It contributes to the literature on interactions between the state and social economy organizations, such as social enterprises. The relationship between the state and social economy organizations has been subject to much academic scrutiny, and the Korean case contributes to this literature by illustrating how the state has induced the emergence and scaling of social enterprises as a private organizational form and also by showing where social enterprises have flourished. The Korean case contrasts with the North American and European cases in that in Korea the state purposively popularized social enterprise, as opposed to the North American and European traditions where the origins of social enterprise are more closely linked to civil society. This has implications for how states can induce the founding of private organizational forms that serve their interests. Korea is an especially intriguing case study given that 'social enterprise' as an organizational form was almost entirely absent from Korean society prior to 2007, yet has now become embedded into society in the sense that social enterprises are found in nearly every industry and municipal district. There are now thousands of social enterprises in Korea a little more than a decade after the enactment of social enterprise promotion legislation. Civil society has, evidently, accepted social enterprises as a valid organizational form. This dissertation seeks to establish an empirical platform and a theoretical framework which can be utilized for a more theoretical analysis of social enterprise and other social economy organizations in Korea in future studies. Nevertheless, this dissertation does reveal how actors can manipulate the path dependencies imposed by history, and the capabilities bequeathed by it, to forge new possibilities in novel and strategic ways. The Korean state's ability to induce social innovation is a tangible illustration of such.



Vir my moeder



## Acknowledgments

When I embarked on the intellectual journey encapsulated by this dissertation, I harbored mostly moderate expectations of what I could achieve. My expectations were “realistic” so to speak. No doubt, without the encouragement and support I received from so many wonderful individuals, this dissertation would have been far inferior to what was ultimately produced. There is a litany of people to whom I owe a debt of gratitude.

First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge and express my appreciation to my main academic advisor, Prof. Johanna Mair. My conversations with her were always intellectually stimulating and revealed avenues of research that I was blind to. She also afforded me opportunities that were beyond anything I ever dreamed. The utter and unmitigated faith she expressed in me when she arranged a research stay for me at Stanford University’s Center on Philanthropy and Civil Society during the first semester of my doctorate was deeply moving. I could truly not have hoped for a better advisor and mentor. I am deeply grateful for her guidance, patience, and continuous support and her numerous substantive intellectual contributions that improved my dissertation considerably.

I would furthermore also like to express my sincere gratitude to Prof. Kim Junki. Owing to his kindness, I was made to feel at home during my long research stay at Seoul National University’s Graduate School of Public Administration. He treated me no different from his own students, and ensured that I could reap the benefits of the university’s intellectual milieu. I also benefited significantly from his immense knowledge, derived from careers in both academia and the public sector. I fondly remember our fortnightly lunches.

My sincere thanks also goes to Prof. Christopher Marquis, who has been very willing to aid me in completing this dissertation. Without his support, it would not have been possible to make such rapid progress.

I would furthermore also like to thank the academics who volunteered to read my dissertation, or parts of it, and shared invaluable feedback with me, despite not being on my committee. Prof. Graham Room has shown me the virtues of academic inquisitiveness and camaraderie by perusing my entire dissertation and furnishing me with comments that significantly impacted how I interpreted my research. Likewise, Prof. Han Do Hyun’s comments compelled me to reevaluate, refine, and improve the

arguments I put forward. I would also like to thank Profs. Brayden King and Andrew Spicer and Dr. Matthew Grimes for their feedback.

I would also like to thank the peers who have made substantial contributions. Hanchan Hwang assisted me greatly in conducting a sentiment analysis by helping me with the collection and analysis of materials. Diego Salazar Morales, my friend and peer, often broached questions and delivered input that improved my research. In this vein, I also thank other peers who have either contributed to my research or dispensed advice. I thank Kim Byeongsu, Alexandra Ioan, Ashley Metz, Sebastian Seidel, Sinaida Hackmack, Till Hartmann, Stefan Hasenclever, Cristina Samper Mejia, Luis Mejia, Panayiotis Nicolaidis, Felix Lill, Jessica Breugh, Nikolas Rathert, Vladimir Bogoeski, and Keith Scott.

I furthermore owe a debt of gratitude to the Hertie School, and especially the PhD Team. Verena Neumann has provided me with immense support throughout my PhD and I have a million reasons to feel thankful. Likewise, Prof. Michaela Kreyenfeld, erstwhile director of the PhD program, made PhD life at Hertie special. I also thank Sabine Höft and the new PhD director, Dr. Annika Zorn for their incredible support. I would furthermore like to thank the PhD Team for their tremendous financial support, which gave me the opportunity to pursue research at both Stanford University and Seoul National University by means of the German Academic Exchange Service's IPID4all program. The PhD Team also ensured that I had the funding to attend international conferences hosted by the Harvard Kennedy School's Social Innovation and Change Initiative and the Society for the Advancement of Socio-Economics. I finally thank Hertie for awarding me a PhD stipend. None of this would have been possible without generous financial support.

Likewise, I would like to thank Prof. Johanna Mair for funding my attendance of a conference and paper development workshop co-hosted by the Administrative Science Quarterly and the Sonoco International Business Department of the University of South Carolina's Darla Moore School of Business. I would, similarly, like to extend my thanks to Prof. Kim Junki for helping to fund my attendance of a conference organized by the International Society for Third-Sector Research. I also thank Prof. Han Do Hyun for inviting and funding me to participate in a conference on the social economy hosted by the Academy of Korean Studies.

I would furthermore like to express my gratitude to the Korea Foundation for awarding me the 2019 Field Research Fellowship, which allowed me to conduct

research in-country for a substantial period. It goes without saying that this contributed to the quality of my research immensely. I would in particular like to thank Kim Inhyuk and Mr. Choi Hyun-soo.

I am also grateful to Stanford University's Center on Philanthropy and Civil Society and Seoul National University's Graduate School of Public Administration for hosting me on separate occasions. I still feel privileged when I think back to the research stays I enjoyed at both of these venerable institutions. I am thankful that I was welcomed without reservation and with great hospitality on both occasions. Likewise, I thank the Academy of Korean Studies for hosting me as a recipient of its Fellowship for Korean Studies during the final phase of the writing process. I thank Lim Kyung Min in particular. I furthermore thanks the Global Social Economy Forum, and in particular Laurence Kwark and Jung Yuen Park.

I would like to thank the Hertie School as a whole for making all of this possible. Although I spent much of my time abroad, I never felt that Hertie was distant. Hertie provided me with all of the resources to succeed in this amazing intellectual journey.

It would also be very remiss of me not to thank the people who have helped proofread my dissertation. I heartily thank Elizabeth Claassen, Simon Robinson, Keith Scott, and Andrew Shakespeare.

My sincere thanks also go to others who have helped me considerably in one way or another. I thank Daan and Hanneljie Coetzee, Sanet Jabobsz, Isabel and Hennie Jacobs, Andrew Shakespeare, Duncan DeAeth, An Song-Hi, Lee Hyein, Doranie Sergeant, Marj Sanchez San Pedro, Fergal O'Shea, Prof. Hussein Solomon, La Duy Tân, Yahya Mowiena, Rahman Anisur, Shao Wei, Lu Zheng, Michel Marion, Soomi Jeong, Ahyeon Lee, Mok Heeijin, and Yao Qi. It would not be possible to explicitly mention everyone who has helped me in different ways, and I thus also extend my gratitude to anyone who has contributed but not been explicitly mentioned.

It finally behooves me to thank both my mother and sister, Elizabeth and Hannelie. Both provided me with unbelievable support during this endeavor. I thank my sister for always being willing to lend a helping hand, especially during critical times. In closing, I also extend my thanks to my mother, who instilled within me a passion for traveling and a deep intellectual curiosity for the world in which we live. I will forever be grateful.



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## **List of Abbreviations**

KOSEA = Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency

MOEL = Ministry of Employment and Labor

SEPA = Social Enterprise Promotion Act



## Introduction

Since its founding, the Republic of Korea (hereinafter ‘Korea’) has been confronted by poverty, inequality, and income vulnerability in variegated forms. One of the most salient drivers in the development of the Korean state, from the pre-democratic to democratic era, has been how successive administrations have sought to address these issues. Both the successes and failures of the state to address both absolute and relative poverty as well as inequality have been sources of progress and stability and, conversely, dissatisfaction and change. Since 2007, there has been a rapid scaling of social enterprise<sup>1</sup> by the public sector at a scale and scope that is nearly unprecedented for a public sector intervention that aims to incubate social economy organizations<sup>2</sup>. This intervention is one of the Korean state’s most innovative means of confronting these persistent social issues.

In the pre-democratic era, the state sought to address poverty by means of the presumed trickle-down effect of relentless modernization. Direct welfare delivery programs aimed to serve productivist ends by ensuring the relative welfare of workers. The Korean developmental state also instituted self-sufficiency promotion programs that were aimed at transforming alleged pre-modern, ‘dependent’ mindsets into independent, self-enriching, capitalist, ‘modern’ mindsets that would not be dependent on state-provided welfare. This ethos has remained, and is the palimpsest upon which post-democratization state-led efforts to promote private welfare-oriented organizations have been based. This legacy has impacted Korea’s welfare state, its understanding of ‘welfare,’ and conceptualization of how social service delivery shortfalls ought to be addressed. The Korean state’s promotion of ‘new’ types of social economy organizations, including social enterprises, social cooperatives, community businesses, and self-help enterprises, is illustrative of this logic.

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<sup>1</sup> Mair (2020: 333) defines ‘social entrepreneurship’ as “The practice of addressing social problems by means of market” and notes that ‘social enterprise’ is “broadly understood as organizing tools to address a wide range of social problems (including homelessness, integration of refugees, elderly care, cyberbullying, and mental health) by relying on market-based activities.” In this dissertation ‘social enterprise’ is thus understood to refer to organizations which are driven by a social motive, or motives, and possess commercial capabilities that can be leveraged to achieve their social mission(s).

<sup>2</sup> Social economy organizations are defined here as organizations that aim to create economic and social welfare and which are guided by the principles of reciprocity, sharing, solidarity, cooperation, and equality; the organizational mission of these organizations has a social element as opposed to the pure pursuit of profit and the distribution of profit to owners (see Lee and Kim 2013; López-Arceiz et al, 2017; Moulaert and Nussbaumer, 2005).

Nevertheless, although the Korean state has traditionally sought to promote state-sanctioned welfare-oriented organizations, it is important to highlight that, in the face of relentless modernization, Koreans have often taken it upon themselves to create private welfare organizations. Korean unions, for instance, created labor welfare community centers (Choi, 2009). Other privately-run welfare promotion organizations also became popular organizational forms and manifestations of private sector welfare organizations, including credit, medical, and consumer cooperatives along with a miscellany of other cooperative types. Similarly, social economy organizations and practices have a long history in Korea and have existed in Korea from the pre-modern period until the present, although their logics and manifestations have differed substantially.

Public and private sector as well as civil society-led organizational responses to the challenges of poverty and inequality in Korea have influenced the development of Korea's welfare state. This, in turn, has shaped the current organizational responses to the issues of precarious work, underemployment, unemployment, social service delivery deficits, and relative poverty in Korea. While the Korean state's promotion of social enterprise does represent the promotion of a novel form of social economy organization, it is occurring within a favorable social, economic and institutional context. The Korean state benchmarked foreign conceptions of social enterprise, yet Korea's history of cooperative organization likely presented social enterprise as an attractive and feasible option.. It is worth noting that many of Korea's state-affiliated social enterprises refer to themselves as "cooperatives". Nevertheless, although factors conducive to success may exist, this by no means guarantees success. The Korean case has largely seen the successful scaling of social enterprise, which warrants analysis. While context is important (i.e. enabling conditions and favorable factors with reference to Korea's particular social, economic, and institutional context), scientific analysis of state-induced scaling of social enterprise can extract ideas and principles that maintain external validity.

The purpose of this research is to determine how the Korean state has achieved the scaling of social enterprise as well as the outcomes of scaling. The most important outcome to be assessed is whether state-backed social enterprises have attained legitimacy in their novel environment(s). Proponents perceive the intervention as

state-induced social innovation<sup>3</sup> or even systems change<sup>4</sup>. Conversely, critics propound that it represents either a state or neoliberal co-optation of the social economy sector, a shirking of welfare obligations by the state, state-induced dependency and disempowerment of private welfare organizations, or a top-down isomorphic pressure that threatens to diminish social enterprise diversity and innovativeness and mold social enterprises into state-sanctioned organizational forms. Given this debate, this research analyzes the networks, discourse(s), and geographic agglomerations that have emerged.

An understanding of the networks, discourse, and geographic agglomerations that characterize Korea's social enterprise sector can contribute to this debate and also contribute to understanding how the welfare state can legitimize and empower social enterprises. Therefore, the core research goals of this dissertation are: to understand the characteristics of the geographic communities in which social enterprises are prominent; to understand what the public is saying about social enterprises, and to understand the features of the interorganizational networks that have emerged.

Integral to this dissertation is determining the receptivity of civil society; that is, this dissertation seeks to gauge the propensity of civil society to embrace social enterprise that is independent from government intervention although induced by it. If social enterprise promotion is merely top-down, state-led and imposed upon a largely apathetic public that remains disinterested, then, by default, the intervention should be considered a failure. In such a case, it is probable that the intervention would result in the creation of a negligible number of social enterprises, the founding of ghost enterprises, the emergence of predominantly rent-seeking organizations that subsist off of subsidies, or the spawning of pseudo-social enterprises that game the system - the common denominators of these organizations would be a lack of autonomy and legitimacy. Conversely, if the public, or at least key civil society actors, is shown to have embraced social enterprise as an organizational form, it would suggest that the intervention has thus far been successful in incubating a social enterprise sector. This can shed light on the capacity of the state to serve as an active social innovator.

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<sup>3</sup> As defined by Shier and Handy (2019: 1), 'social innovation' refers to the "actions taken by organizations and individuals that respond to emerging and persistent social issues in new ways... The intention of social innovation is to create new opportunities and pathways for vulnerable social groups that help reduce incidences of vulnerability, social exclusion and inequality."

<sup>4</sup> Gopal and Kania (2015) define 'systems change' as "a fundamental change in policies, processes, relationships, and power structures, as well as deeply held values and norms."

## *Research Questions and Research Design*

This dissertation adopts a multilevel, mixed methods approach that incorporates computational social science methods to analyze social enterprise diffusion and legitimacy both at the national and local levels. This research is underpinned by a primarily inductive analytical approach. A qualitative as well as quantitative analysis of Korea as a case study can provide novel theoretical insights. First, it can provide an intriguing example of the ‘birthing’ of novel organizational forms by the public sector,<sup>5</sup> which plays an active role in inducing the founding and legitimation of new organizational forms for the public’s benefit. This goes beyond notions of ‘third-party governance’ by highlighting the potentialities of the institutional legacies bequeathed by an erstwhile developmental state. This can contribute to how institution-actor interfaces are understood, especially with reference to path dependencies and disruptive events. Secondly, an analysis of the Korean case can illustrate how civil society and the private sector have responded to the state’s initiative to promote social enterprise by showing, *inter alia*, the state-civil society-private sector partnerships that have emerged since the intervention and their impact on the institutions that define ‘welfare’ in Korea. This could, in part, determine whether social enterprises, as actors who operate at the interstice(s) of civil society and the private sector and also the public sector in Korea, have been empowered by means of this public sector intervention and thereby evaluate the sustainability of these organizations. Examining how civil society and the private sector have responded to the public sector’s efforts to facilitate the emergence of new types of social economy organizations is a pertinent question because it can contribute to the literatures on the welfare state, welfare delivery, and the enabling functions of third-party governance especially as they relate to the precariat and vulnerable groups in general. The main research questions that guide this dissertation are therefore:

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<sup>5</sup> Although, as noted by Jeong (2015), a number of social enterprises did exist before the state’s intervention, yet it is the state that has scaled social enterprise and popularized social enterprise as a new form of organization.

*Research Question 1:* What are the historical institutionalist foundations and context of the state's incubation and promotion of social enterprises?

*Research Question 2:* Why is the state promoting social enterprises?

*Research Question 3:* What mechanisms has the state employed to promote social enterprises?

*Research Question 4:* What has been the impact of state support of social enterprises?

*Research Question 5:* How receptive has civil society and the private sector been to the state's social enterprise promotion initiative?

*Research Question 6:* Has 'social enterprise' become a legitimate organizational form, and if so, why?

A mixed methods approach at multiple levels of analysis, from the local to national, is used to answer these intertwined questions. First, a historical institutionalist approach is adopted to contextualize the drivers and mechanisms associated with the Korean state's social enterprise promotion initiative; the context of the initiative is elucidated as well as the primary mechanisms of social enterprise promotion. A historical institutionalist analysis of the emergence of social enterprise in Korea has been conducted by Jeong (2015), who referenced Kerlin (2012). Kerlin's (2012) seminal analysis of how context influences the development of social enterprise within a specific country is founded on a historical institutionalist approach, in which Kerlin (2012) affords special prominence to the role of the state in influencing the development of social enterprise. According to Kerlin (2012: 94), "institutions largely responsible for shaping different models of social enterprise initially arose from a rich mix of culture; local (including social classes), regional and global hierarchies; and political-economic histories. These elements structured the development of the present day state, which then helped shape the current economic situation and civil society, which in turn both influence social enterprise development."

Similarly, Sepulveda (2015) employs historical institutionalism as a theoretical analytical tool to contextualize and trace the emergence, institutionalization, and ascension of social enterprise as a mainstream organizational form in the public policy arena in England in the 1980s to 1990s. Kieser (1994: 609) writes that "Structures of and behavior in present organizations reflect culture-specific historical developments. Differences between organizations in different cultures can,

therefore, only be explained completely if the historical dimension is included in the comparison.”

The first three research questions expand on the findings of Jeong (2015) by providing new insights and perspectives that account for the emergence of social enterprise. This analysis supplemented by a discussion and itemization of the mechanisms instituted to empower social enterprises. These questions segue into the fourth overarching research question, which further contextualizes the institutionalization of social enterprise and also describes and analyzes the related processes and outcomes.

The fourth research question facilitates the transition to the local level by measuring both the impact at the national and local levels through different means. In measuring the impact of the state’s intervention, ‘impact’ is conceptualized as the outcomes and effects that have resulted from the collective processes associated with the state’s intervention. Emphasis is particularly placed on the legitimacy of social enterprises in the civil sphere<sup>6</sup>. Drawing on institutional theory, ‘impact’ is measured in terms of change induced by the state’s social enterprise promotion initiative in the regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive pillars that comprise institutions, as per Scott’s (2001) typology (see Kiitsak-Prikk, 2017). For the purposes of this dissertation, ‘impact’ is furthermore measured with specific reference to the three elements’ rationales that underpin legitimation and systems change. Therefore, the impact of the national government’s decision to promote social enterprise as an organizational form through regulatory mechanisms, as encapsulated by a social enterprise promotion law, is measured in terms of how different institutional actors, and the organizations that define them, have responded to this law. Civil society and public sector actors, including local government, as well as geographic communities are integral parts of measuring impact, given their respective roles as institutional actors.

Changes in the normative and cultural-cognitive features of the national to local institutions that define organizational environments are thus especially emphasized in measuring impact, specifically as it pertains to changes in perceptions of social obligation (i.e. norms) and shared identities and values. ‘Institutions’ here refer to the formal and informal rules, norms, and codes of behavior that are the result

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<sup>6</sup> This does not discount their need to be successful in the corporate sphere.

of historical and cultural forces (i.e. a particular context) and which structure and give meaning to the social, political and economic relations between actors and ascribe meaning(s) and structures to actors, or organizations, themselves by constructing an intersubjective environment, or social reality, within which actors relate and also which actors engage and continuously interpret.<sup>7</sup> ‘Impact’ is thus conceptually understood as changes in collectives with particular reference to the normative and cultural-cognitive dimensions of institutional theory, as elaborated on by Scott (2001). ‘Impact’ is, in sum, a measurement of transformation or change in shared conceptions of norms, social reality and logics of action, or institutional logics, of communities at different levels, from local to national, that has occurred as a result of the state’s social enterprise promotion initiative. Receptivity of the state’s social enterprise promotion initiative is measured by measuring impact, with ‘success’ being defined as state-affiliated social enterprises attaining legitimacy.

‘Collective’ is defined at different levels, and can be taken to refer to a local geographic community or the wider national community. For the purposes of this dissertation, ‘collective’ is synonymous with ‘community,’ which is defined as a “a collection of both people and institutions occupying a spatially defined area influenced by ecological, cultural, and sometimes political forces (Park, 1916: 147-154, in Sampson et al, 2002). However, in terms of local level-specific analyses, ‘community’ and ‘municipal district’ are treated synonymously.

In order to empirically measure impact and thereby address the fourth, fifth, and sixth research questions, this dissertation utilizes various empirical approaches, including a social network analysis, topic modeling, spatial analyses, and econometric analyses. Social network analysis and topic modeling approaches are utilized to measure the impact of the state’s social enterprise promotion effort at the national level and thereby contextualize subsequent spatial and econometric analyses which seek to address these research questions at both the national and local levels, although with more emphasis on the local level. By investigating and grasping the dynamics and connections that characterize the interplay between social enterprises and their environments at the local level, while concurrently contextualizing their interactions in terms of national, regional, and local networks as well as public discourse (i.e.

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<sup>7</sup> The concept of ‘institution’ has been defined in various ways and this definition derives from these various approaches (see Beckert, 2010; Fuhse, 2015; North, 1990; Powell and DiMaggio, 1991; Scott, 1987, 2001). The variants of institutional approaches that appear in the sociology, organizational studies, economics, and political science literatures are too diverse to be considered in this dissertation.

perceptions of social enterprises), a comprehensive understanding can be gained of the degree to which social enterprise, as new organizational forms, have integrated into society and become legitimate organizations. This research approach relates to the impact institutional environments have on interorganizational network formation, organizational form and features, and organization performance.

To wit, Chandra (2016), utilizing Hong Kong as a case study, adopts a corpus linguistics approach, which draws on discourse as its main epistemology, based on institutional theory in an analysis of the links between language used by social entrepreneurs and changes in the structure of society and institutions. Furthermore, Bergenholtz and Waldstrøm (2011) emphasize the academic value of adopting a social network analysis approach in analyzing inter-organizational networks. In particular, an analysis of interorganizational networks and their formation can provide insights into the institutional environment of social enterprises, which may affect performance and legitimation. Finally, an analysis of local geographic communities is justified as per Choo and Roh (2018), who suggest, with reference to Korea, that understanding the spatial context of social enterprises merits investigation. Choo and Roh (2018: 173) emphasize the: “spatial characteristics inspiring social entrepreneurship, place-based context of decision-making by social economy organizations, and spaces formulated by interactions between the demand for solving social problems and the supply of economic resources.”

Analyzing all levels of society, from the national to the local, is thus critical as this serves to negate possible geographic biases that may significantly distort the validity of findings regarding the impact of social enterprise. In terms of discourse, it may be that newspapers, for instance, exert a geographic bias (e.g. discourse on social enterprise may be especially prominent in certain Korean provinces or cities). An analysis of discourse at the national level alone would not be able to detect this bias. Conversely, studying local geographic communities exclusively may come at the cost of a rich contextual understanding of the national, transboundary institutions that characterize the national and regional networks that are buttressing the social entrepreneurship movement in Korea.

## *Goals and Structure*

This dissertation is motivated by several, intertwined goals. First, this dissertation aims to illustrate by means of a mixed methods approach to a case study how the public sector can induce novel forms of social innovation - by enabling novel social economy organizations to rapidly permeate all sectors of society - by means of engagement with other institutional actors such as businesses<sup>8</sup> and nonprofits. By investigating the Korean case, this dissertation can contribute to theoretical understandings of the role an institutional actor as powerful as the state can play in facilitating institutional change. This can be achieved by analyzing the processes, dynamics, and mechanisms concomitant with social innovation within the context of state-civil society-private sector interactions as well as partnerships. By studying how the state can induce social innovation, in reference to Hicks' theory of induced innovation (1932) which has been applied to other fields (e.g. Ruttan et al, 1980), in order to address pertinent social issues it is possible to extract principles on how the state can induce the formation of welfare-oriented sectors that civil society by itself may not have been able to scale. This is especially relevant given the significant pressures and discontent faced by the welfare state in the face of globalization and post-industrialization (Esping-Andersen, 2000; Iversen and Cusack, 2000; Shinar, 2013). This facet of this dissertation furthermore talks about the state's role in inducing welfare paradigm shifts and empowering civil society. Korea's civil society has traditionally been seen as weak (Jang, 2017), and such an intervention may produce opportunities for the ascension of civil society as the state and its different levels of government cooperate on, and negotiate over, the delivery of welfare. Moreover, this has implications for paths of welfare state change and adaptation as well as notions of 'social investment' (see van Kersbergen and Hemerijck, 2012) and contestations of the definitions, modes, scope, and scale of welfare and its delivery. To wit, this intervention provides a platform for different institutional actors to collectively confront the issues of income security, employment instability, labor market polarization, and the absence of care through innovations in the modalities of both employment and social welfare services. This dissertation therefore seeks to illustrate how welfare can be maintained in changing contexts, with specific reference

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<sup>8</sup> For the purposes of this paper, a 'business' is generically defined as a for-profit organization.

to the disruptive forces of technological change and progress (Iversen and Cusack, 2000) (e.g. the Fourth Industrial Revolution and its purported upheavals both in the present and future).

Secondly, this dissertation aims to contribute to the literature on how new organizational forms, specifically social economy organizations, are legitimated via institutional change. To this end, this dissertation draws from and synthesizes institutional theory perspectives and also the literatures on organizational ecology, urban studies, the political economy, and notions of supply and demand. Social network analysis and topic modeling approaches are furthermore also incorporated. This second goal is achieved by examining the legitimacy of social enterprises as new social economy organizations at both the national and local levels. Legitimacy is measured at the national level by examining public discourse about social enterprises and the interorganizational networks that have emerged. Legitimation is assessed at the local level by identifying local administrative communities where agglomeration (i.e. legitimation by prevalence) can be observed contra to those characterized by the relative absence of these organizations. Both measures of legitimacy are utilized in order to guard against possible tautological reasoning (e.g. claiming legitimacy by the very fact that social enterprises exist). This second research objective contributes to various literatures by measuring the influence of environmental factors and the organizational agency of various actors in the legitimation process.

Thirdly, this dissertation aims to contribute to both the aforementioned fields as well as the field of Korean studies by exploring social entrepreneurship as a state-led welfare intervention in Korea. An analysis of Korea's state-backed social enterprises and how Korea has utilized them in confronting vulnerability can provide theoretical contributions to international comparative studies on welfare delivery and responses to income vulnerability, both of which are globally relevant issues, as well as conceptualizations of 'social enterprise'.

This dissertation consists of four analytical chapters. Appendices also form an integral part of this dissertation.

In Chapter 1, a historical institutionalist approach is utilized as part of a broader historical analysis to contextualize the enactment of legislation by the state aimed at promoting social enterprises. This chapter provides a fine-grained exploration of various mechanisms aimed at the empowerment, popularization, and scaling of social enterprises. An overview is given of the key institutional actors involved in social

enterprise promotion, major promotion mechanisms, the performance of social enterprises, and criticisms of state-backed social enterprise promotion. Spatial mapping techniques are used to show how demand for jobs has been an important factor in the proliferation of social enterprises. This chapter furthermore surveys the general characteristics of social enterprises in Korea, which reveals that social enterprises in the country tend to be employment creation or work integration-oriented and are responding to job creation demands. This finding is consistent with how welfare has traditionally been conceived of by the Korean state, which has traditionally harbored a productivist understanding of welfare which has only recently been mediated by ideas of welfarism. This chapter serves as a contextual prelude that frames the empirical chapters that follow, namely Chapters 2, 3, and 4.

Chapter 2 surveys the impact of the state's social enterprise promotion initiative at the national level by investigating the networks of support organizations that have emerged as well as discourse on social enterprise. Computational social science techniques are combined with a social network analysis, as well as topic modeling approaches, to show that civil society and the private sector have not only been receptive to the state's initiative to promote social enterprises, but have also been actively participating in this promotion. This suggests that social enterprise has been legitimated, despite being a relatively novel form of organization in the Korean context.

In Chapter 3 a spatial analysis is conducted and econometric models are applied in order to identify geographic communities where social enterprises are thriving, as measured by the total number of social enterprises in a given administrative district. An analysis of the local level is important so as to negate possible geographic or ideological biases (e.g. newspaper political orientations) that may undermine the findings shown in Chapter 2. This chapter identifies demand- and supply-side determinants in the for-profit entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship literatures, as well as important institutional actors, institutional legacies, and environmental factors that may explain agglomeration. Communities with a proactive civil society, as defined by the relative presence of civil society organizations, and local government, as defined by efforts to promote social enterprises, see the highest levels of agglomeration, while communities with only a proactive civil society see some degree of agglomeration and communities with only a proactive local government see no significant agglomeration. Finally, communities where neither civil society nor

local government are proactive also typically see no significant agglomeration. These findings suggest that social enterprise promotion in Korea is not only top-down and imposed, but rather relies on a collaborative partnership between local government and civil society, although local government is dispensable. Importantly, these findings suggest social enterprise foundings are not random. This lends legitimacy to the findings in Chapter 2 that the state has succeeded in establishing a social enterprise sector.

In Chapter 4 the findings of Chapter 3, which were correlative, are tested through more rigorous means. Causal econometric models are applied and informed by institutional theory, organizational ecology, and political economy perspectives. Based on this analysis, the findings of Chapter 3 are found to be credible. The theoretical approach adopted in Chapter 4 suggests that the Korean state's effort to promote social enterprise has had an impact and has led to institutional change, especially in local geographic communities where there are significant social enterprise agglomerations. These findings also illustrate the potential of an institutional actor as powerful as the state to induce social innovation by essentially establishing a new sector within a decade by scaling a previously tiny, obscure sector.

The conclusion provides an overview of the dissertation, specifically by answering the overarching research questions of this dissertation. The implications for public policy are also discussed. In closing, the limitations of the research are discussed, as well as potential future research directions.



# Chapter 1

## South Korea's State-backed Social Enterprises - Towards an Inclusive Developmental State?

### 1. Introduction

In *Voluntas'* 2017 special issue on social enterprise vis-à-vis the welfare state, Baglioni (2017: 2325) broaches the question, is social enterprise “A remedy for all sins?” Thus posed, can social enterprise, as an instrument of social policy, address the multifaceted and intertwined socio-economic hazards that have been emerging as a result of the pressures faced by modern welfare regimes?

Traditionally, the social economy has often been imagined as manifesting as alternative, non-mainstream institutions (Amin et al, 2002; Desa, 2010; Kim, 2016; Light, 2008; Uluorta, 2009), organizations or orders (Schneiberg, 2007). Yet, the gradual breakdown of the Fordist ‘job for life’ welfare model has evoked energized discourse within social policy circles on whether social economy organizations can be integrated into the market system to address welfare concerns in a financially sustainable way (Mazzei and Roy, 2017). Policymakers in several countries have sought to instrumentalize social economy organizations to either complement or substitute government-provided welfare services; including the local governments of Manchester and Tyne and Wear in England (Mazzei, 2017) and the governments of France (Chabanet, 2017), Germany (Zimmer & Obuch, 2017), Hong Kong (Dai et al, 2017), Italy (Testi et al, 2017), Scotland (Mazzei and Roy, 2017), Serbia (Rakić et al, 2017), South Korea (Jang, 2017) (hereinafter, ‘Korea’), et cetera. Thus, ‘social enterprise’ as a buzzword has steadily become mainstreamed (Chabanet, 2017). However, Mazzei and Roy (2017), citing the gap between rhetoric and practice in Scotland, caution against harboring unrealistic expectations, warning that social entrepreneurship is not necessarily a panacea for addressing welfare issues and facilitating community regeneration. Chabanet (2017) argues that social enterprises cannot address the structural causes of social welfare problems and, in this sense, are merely palliative and, being subject to the market, are vulnerable to mission drift. Chabanet (2017) goes even further and argues that state instrumentalization of social enterprise may be a means for the state to disengage itself from social service delivery and render it the responsibility of the precariat instead. However, Rakić et al (2017)

found that in Serbia, the emergence of social enterprises has not led to the de facto replacement of state welfare services, but has rather led to a plurality of complementary social service providers from which the public can benefit.

In Korea, the instrumentalization of social enterprise by the state can arguably be seen as having led to the empowerment of social enterprises through the creation of an enabling ecosystem by allowing social enterprises to overcome various barriers, ranging from institutional barriers to amateurism and other organizational deficiencies to paternalism (Jung et al, 2016). Government guidance and resources (e.g. consultation, education and training (see Appendix 1)), best practice case sharing (e.g. Korea's social enterprise magazine[1]), extension services, subsidies, preferential procurement, social enterprise-specific e-business platforms (see Appendix 2) can potentially play an instrumental supporting role in the operation and success of social enterprises, which aligns with Salamon's (1987) third-party government perspective and non-profit failure theory in its justification of government intervention (Jung et al, 2016). The view that government and social enterprises can have a complementary relationship in welfare service delivery suggests that government has a critical role to play in supporting and promoting social enterprise to achieve greater social impact, which potentially has far-reaching implications for welfare service delivery.

In Korea, the socio-economic pressures that have been confronting society ever since the 1997 Asian financial crisis (colloquially referred to as the "IMF Crisis") brought an end to prospects of permanent, lifelong employment at a single firm and beckoned a new era of irregular, precarious employment whilst also entrenching *chaebol* (i.e. conglomerate(s)) domination of the national economy, often at the expense of small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) (Hundt, 2009). Measured by the revenue contributed to the country's gross domestic product (GDP) by *chaebol* (Lee, 2006; Lim, 2001) the top five *chaebol* accounted for approximately 60 percent of Korea's GDP in 2016 (Suzuki, 2017), yet *chaebol* contribute relatively few jobs - in 1997 it was estimated that the top 30 *chaebol* employed a mere 4.15 percent of the total workforce (Connell, 2014; Shin and Chang, 2003). Korea's traditional reliance, and the associated institutional configurations, on its *chaebol* as a source of economic growth has thus been placing significant stress on Korean society, particularly following the IMF Crisis.

The IMF Crisis thus broached debate among Korean policymakers over the ability of social economy organizations to address the socio-economic issues that

have confronted Koreans following the crisis (Chung, 2010), in particular as a result of the difficulty in attaining long-term job opportunities - Korea saw a rapid growth in the irregular workforce following the IMF Crisis. Seoul would later host the International Forum on Social Enterprise Development in 2000 as a means to both evaluate the viability of social enterprise as a means to address the socio-economic issues that arose in the aftermath of the crisis and also to analyze the prerequisite institutional conditions for social entrepreneurship to succeed in Korea (Bidet, 2002). With this, Korea signaled its intent to seek ways to cooperate with the traditionally neglected third sector (Jang, 2017; Jeong, 2015, 2017; Jung et al, 2016; Lee, 2015a). In terms of organizational configuration, the Korean government eventually opted for the European model of social enterprise (Park and Wilding, 2013)<sup>9</sup>, drawing primarily from both the British and Italian forms of social enterprise (Bidet and Eum, 2011; Jang, 2017). The Korean government later enacted the Social Enterprise Promotion Act (SEPA) - passed in 2006 and coming into force in 2007 - which assigned the Ministry of Employment and Labor (MOEL) with the mandate to enforce SEPA. It was subsequently amended in 2010 to include more comprehensive support mechanisms for pre-certified and certified social enterprises, including the establishment of the MOEL-affiliated Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency (KOSEA).

The Korean government's intervention in and regulation of the social economy appears to have many parallels with the *dirigiste* state-*chaebol* mutualist logic of the institutions and mechanisms that underpinned the country's economic miracle, and it also echoes the Korean state's developmentalist, statist intervention in the market economy up until the IMF Crisis. However, it is important to note that the government's intervention in, and instrumentalization of, the social economy has occurred within a context of welfare state expansion and increased social expenditure that is founded upon the socio-political watershed of democratization. Furthermore, it occurred in the context of the subsequent emergence of neoliberal Keynesian-style welfare policies in 1998 following the turmoil of the 1997 IMF Crisis. Both of these factors have led to a shift away from the 'competitive' relationship between civil society and government during the pre-democratic era towards more participatory, cooperative governance (Jang, 2017). The proactive, comprehensive role that the

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<sup>9</sup> Park (2008) argues, however, that although the government opted for the European model of social enterprise, in practice the adopted model morphed into the American model of social entrepreneurship.

Korean government has been playing in promoting social entrepreneurship (Choi and Kim, 2014), along with other types of social economy organizations<sup>10</sup> makes the Korean case very interesting, especially in terms of understanding the interlinkages between the public sector and social enterprises, as well as other social economy organizations, and the associated potentialities.

This chapter contextualizes the Korean government's promotion of social entrepreneurship as a means to address intractable socio-economic issues as being the product of the combination of *dirigisme*, welfarism, and the empowerment of civil society following Korea's democratization. This research thus aligns with a historical institutionalist approach to the government-led promotion of social entrepreneurship in Korea (e.g. Jeong, 2015). It examines the popularization of social entrepreneurship in Korea by tracing and analyzing the historical institutions that underpin the government's intervention in the social economy, and also by giving a contextual overview of the environmental and demand and supply-side forces that have inspired and shaped social entrepreneurship in Korea.

This chapter furthermore contributes to the debate regarding the implications of social entrepreneurship promotion and the relationship between social entrepreneurship and the public sector. In the Korean case, there has been a strong intervention by the government in promoting, regulating, and stimulating social entrepreneurship, and an analysis of this case promises to contribute to the debate on the public sector's relationship vis-à-vis social entrepreneurship. Ganz, Kay, and Spicer (2018) in an article titled "Social Enterprise Is Not Social Change"<sup>11</sup>, for instance, question the possibility of a synergistic relationship between government and social entrepreneurship, claiming that those who seek to promote social entrepreneurship seek to minimize the public sector. Moreover, they express skepticism about the ability of social entrepreneurship to address major systemic social problems. They further claim that the promotion of social entrepreneurship is

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10 For example, credit unions by the Ministry of Strategy and Finance with the enactment of the Credit Unions Act in 1972, livelihood and consumer cooperatives by the Ministry of Strategy and Finance with the enactment of the Consumer Cooperatives Act in 1999, self-reliance enterprises (also referred to as 'self-help enterprises') by the Ministry of Health and Welfare with the enactment of the National Basic Livelihood Security Act in 1999, village enterprises (also referred to as 'community businesses') by the Ministry of the Interior and Safety with the creation of the Ministerial Implementation Guidelines to promote Village Enterprises in 2010, and social cooperatives by the Ministry of Strategy and Finance with the enactment of the Framework Act on Cooperatives in 2012. (see United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018)

11 An article that elaborates on their claims was later published in the *Socio-Economic Review* in 2019, and is presented in the bibliography (Spicer et al, 2019).

antithetical to the democratic functioning of government and the “deployment of public resources to solve social problems” (Ganz, Kay, and Spicer, 2018: 60). Examining the emergence and development of state-backed social entrepreneurship in Korea thus provides one means to examine such claims.

Finally, this chapter serves to contextualize this dissertation. Organizational foundings and transformations as well as social change occur within historical, cultural, and geographical contexts and are molded by the institutions embedded into these contexts (see Aldrich and Ruef, 2006; Greve and Rao, 2012; Schneiberg and Clemens, 2006). This chapter examines how the supporting institutional configurations<sup>12</sup> have emerged in Korea that have made social entrepreneurship amenable to institutionalization and have afforded social enterprises the opportunity to emerge, survive and diffuse over time (see Armstrong and Crage, 2006). A historical dimension therefore needs to be included in order to (1) explain differences between organizations in different cultures, (2) be able to interpret organizational structures as not determined by laws but as the consequence of decisions made between existing choice opportunities, and (3) subject an analysis to a more radical test rather than data on short-run changes (Kieser, 1994). A description and analysis of the contextual and environmental factors that pertain to the founding and maturation of social enterprises and the support organizations that constitute their ecosystem, and how and why they diverge from elsewhere, is thus imperative. ‘Maturation’ here is defined as the “realization of the potential inherent in organizations when they were founded” (Aldrich and Ruef, 2006: 160). Nevertheless, it is noted that although context forges actors, these institutional foundations can also facilitate the emergence of inter-actor dynamics at the micro level that can lead to institutional change (e.g. Delmestri and Greenwood, 2016; Erikson and Bearman, 2006; Rao et al, 2003). Johnson and Powell (2017) stress that “poisedness,” an enabling social and historical context rich with potential, can be coupled with innovation that may have cascading effects and also reconfigure institutions themselves. Likewise, historical events can disrupt institutions and introduce discontinuities that serve as a catalyst for institutional change (e.g. Sewell, 1996), although institutional logics that may appear dead can re-emerge through the process

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12 The notion of “institutional void” is particularly relevant here. This notion should not be taken to imply the absence of institutions (e.g. the absence of formal, market-based institutions), but rather a situation defined by institutional plurality and tensions (see Mair et al, 2012).

of ‘institutional regeneration’ and be repurposed and reused (see Kroezen and Heugens, 2019). This historical analysis serves to enrich the analysis of the emergence and maturation of social enterprises in Korea.

## **2. The Paradoxes of Development-oriented Teleocratic Governance<sup>13</sup>**

### *2.1 Historical Institutional Legacy*

In uncovering the historical institutionalist palimpsest of Korea’s welfare paradigm and the associated triumphs and perils of *chaebol*-led industrialization, it is imperative to understand the logics of the institutions that drove its rapid development and the manner in which welfare was conceptualized in the pre-democratic era.

Prior to its economic transformation, Korea was described as a mendicant nation that “slurped at the trough of the American taxpayer” (Cumings, 1997: 354) and one of the United States’ “great failures despite billions in pump priming” (Komer, 1964: 19). One congressional report (House of Representatives, 1978: 165) even noted that “the pattern of psychological and economic dependence was ingrained, as was the lack of confidence in Korea’s economic future without U.S. assistance.” However, successive presidential administrations from the 1960’s onwards pursued a single-minded prioritization of industrialization through the provision of institutional support, often in the form of import-substitution policies, to nascent enterprises in select export-oriented infant industries. This led to a decades-long period of rapid economic growth that transformed Korea from a largely agrarian society into an industrial society within a generation and propelled the country to global economic eminence. All of this was driven by single-industry enterprises that had morphed into multiple-industry *chaebol* due, in part, to preferential treatment from the government and the concentration of domestic financial resources into the *chaebol* (Amsden, 1992; Eichengreen et al, 2012; Hundt, 2009; Kuk, 1988; Lee and McNulty, 2003; Lim, 2001).

Accordingly, self-sufficiency through employment as a means to poverty eradication has been the basic ‘welfare’ mantra of Korea from the 1960’s to the present. During the pre-democratic period, the state’s approach to welfare was largely corporatist-organizational, employer-employee contribution, social insurance-based

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<sup>13</sup> See Oakeshott (2006).

with minimal government involvement, given the state's near-total mobilization of resources to bolster *chaebol*-led development and general aversion to 'dependence-inducing' welfare spending (Hong et al, 2013; Suh and Kwon, 2014). Following democratization and the empowerment of labor unions, the government has sought to improve enterprise-based welfare (Woo, 2004). The twin foci of economic growth and modernization, ostensibly for the purposes of poverty eradication and securing the state from the purported existential threat posed by North Korea, coupled with significant budgetary pressures, led to the instrumentalization of the welfare system as a multi-modal tool to supplement and support state-guided industrialization and enhance the legitimacy of successive military regimes (Hong et al, 2013; Suh and Kwon, 2014). The few welfare interventions that were undertaken served largely to mitigate the social issues spawned by the industrialization and state-building processes, with notable examples being the Basic Law of Social Security Scheme (1963), the New Medical Protection Law (1977), and the Livelihood Protection Law (1977), and the incremental expansion of health care coverage until the eventual achievement of market-based universal health care in 1989 (Chung, 2010; Hong et al, 2013, Peabody et al, 1995).

Rural self-help, infrastructure and income improvement movements such as the highly successful, yet contentious, Ministry of Home Affairs-administered *Saemaul Undong* ("New Community Movement") of the 1970's and the relatively unsuccessful Ministry of Reconstruction-run Community Development programs introduced in 1958 that preceded it are both emblematic of the pre-democratic period's 'self-help' approach to social welfare (Chung, 2010; Hong et al, 2013; Jeong 2015; Lim and Endo, 2017). The former, by way of illustration of the pre-democratic period approach to welfare, operated according to the twin principles of conditional cash transfers and inter-village competition so as to facilitate household income increase through merit-based reinvestment projects awarded by the government (Han and Claassen, 2017). Although, it needs to be mentioned that these 'self-help,' 'self-sufficiency' initiatives were backed by huge investments, mainly in the rural sector in the case of *Saemaul Undong*, which served to create favorable preconditions for the 'self-help' movements (Reed, 2010). Investments in agricultural research and extension services, irrigation systems, marketing facilities, mechanization, rural electrification, and expanding transportation networks, et cetera, as well as the increase of the government purchase price of rice (i.e. a form of subsidization) all

enabled *Saemaul Undong* to succeed (Reed, 2010). In terms of the state's current promotion and fostering of social enterprises, it is possible to observe parallels - state support of certified social enterprises alongside the creation of an ecosystem conducive to development as well as the enactment of policies, such as preferential procurement, to support social enterprises which are deemed worthy of state support.

This logic could be observed in the developmental state's support of select enterprises, which would morph into *chaebol*, in select industries. The "Miracle on the Han River" was later coined to describe Korea's stunning government-guided capitalist ascent up the economic ladder as defined by the sharp rise of Korea's GDP per capita. Yet the *dirigiste* government-*chaebol* mutualist logic of the institutions and mechanisms, including domestic financial resources such as banks, that drove the country's near-miraculous leap out of the geo-economic periphery and ended absolute poverty within a generation would eventually entrench the government-*chaebol* coalition economic superstructure as the country's economic dependence on *chaebol* grew (Kuk, 1988; Lew, 2013; Lucas, 1993).

The hazards of *chaebol*-oriented growth were made apparent when the country was collectively confronted by the disruptive, tumultuous moment of the IMF Crisis of 1997, when the Asian Financial Crisis exposed the long-term major structural vulnerabilities of the system, namely, the harsh country-wide repercussions of poor foreign investment decisions by externally indebted *chaebol*, plagued by increasing inefficiency of operations, stemming from the easy availability of cheap credit and protected domestic markets (Hundt, 2009; Lee, 2006). *Chaebol*-centered industrial policy led to a "too big to fail" business culture and by 1997 the debt of the top 30 *chaebol* represented 47.94 percent of all debt in the economy (Shin and Chang, 2003).

The financial turmoil that followed and the collapse of several *chaebol* as a result of the Asian Financial Crisis compelled the Korean government to accept an emergency bailout package from the IMF that stipulated neoliberal reforms, including labor market reforms, stringent fiscal policy stipulations to control government debt, and the opening of the market to foreign investment and ownership (Chang, 2003; Shin and Chang, 2003). The imposed paradigm shift towards neoliberalism exacerbated the now-embedded consequences of government-guided, *chaebol*-monopolized economic growth as the compound adverse effects of restructuring reforms led to less job security, marked by large-scale layoffs, unemployment, underemployment, and the proliferation of temporary, irregular (i.e.

precarious) employment, which, in turn, led to the subsequent rise of a class-conscious precariat (Eichengreen et al, 2012; Shin, 2003). The IMF Crisis hence fundamentally altered employer-employee relations at the detriment of the labor force and is seen as a “never-ending crisis” (Borowiec, 2017) that has deepened inequality and relative poverty (Shin, 2003) - Korea’s post-tax Gini stood at 0.293 in 1997 (Kang, 2001) and by 2016 the Gini coefficient stood at 0.355 (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, n.d.). Korea arguably underwent a structural transformation following the 1997 IMF Crisis, transitioning from an industrial to post-industrial society and in the process obviating the state-driven, *chaebol*-dominated approach to development as a mechanism to achieve societal welfare (Jang, 2017). In short, the IMF Crisis brought about an end to the Korean developmental state and further entrenched *chaebol* at the economic core of Korean society at the expense of the traditional conception of social insurance, and indeed the state as an agent of state-directed development.

Although social welfare was placed high on the national agenda as a major, explicit policy objective under the “New Korea Creation” slogan following democratization, in reality the biases associated with Korea’s long-standing statist model (see Salamon and Anheier, 1998) that prioritized interactions with the corporate sector remained (Hong et al, 2013). In response to the 1997 IMF Crisis and upon the OECD’s (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) recommendation, the progressive Kim Dae Jung Administration expanded the welfare state’s social safety net, institutionalizing a comprehensive, universal welfare system labeled ‘productivist welfare’ – a liberal welfare model which sought to reconcile welfare and economic growth as tandem, complementary responses to the pressures of globalization (Bidet, 2002; Chung, 2010; Kwon and Holliday, 2007). To wit, the National Basic Livelihood Security Act of 1999 is illustrative in that it stipulated that security allowances would be provided to those whose income fell below the minimum income level, yet that recipients who were capable of working were obliged to engage in social economy organization-run self-sufficiency programs (Lim and Endo, 2016), emphasizing the self-help logic of Korea’s productivist welfare. The succeeding progressive Roh Moo Hyun Administration instituted a ‘social investment state’ approach that promoted a human capital/resource development welfare model, which was essentially a ‘third way’ in between the Keynesian social democratic model and the liberal workfare-oriented model that sought to reconcile Korea’s social

welfare paradigm with the reality that the era of single-firm lifelong employment was no longer realistic (Suh and Kwon, 2014). The conservative Lee Myung Bak Administration, however, brought an end to the efforts of the preceding progressive administrations to establish a redistribution-based welfare model, opting instead for Korea's traditional, politically conservative market-friendly model that sought to reconcile welfare and economic growth through strategic incentives. The 2007-2008 global financial crisis brought an end to such aspirations, with Lee's pro-business policies leading to even greater polarization and the contraction of both welfare services and SMEs, and further entrenching the relative position of *chaebol* (Hong et al, 2013).

Under the succeeding Park Geun Hye and Moon Jae In administrations welfare policy-making evolved to be more inclusive, consensus-based, and with greater societal participation, aiming to reduce economic and social disparities and limit the powers of *chaebol*. Yet, even though Korea's social welfare system has expanded significantly since democratization, administrations from across the political spectrum have stuck with the traditional *dirigiste* interventionist approach to welfare by maintaining workfare-oriented measures and high levels of commodification. The government thus fundamentally retained its stance of utilizing welfare policies to supplement and support economic growth, interpreting social development and equity as being concomitant with economic growth (Chung, 2010; Suh and Kwon, 2014). Korea has today morphed into a European-style conservative-corporatist, social insurance-based Bismarckian welfare state, which, as a consequence of its fixation on economic growth, emphasizes the protection of its workers (Suh and Kwon, 2014). The Korean state, however, even following democratization has not played a major role in welfare if conceived of in a Keynesian-Fordist manner, with Korea's welfare spending still lagging behind its OECD peers (Suh and Kwon, 2014). Unsurprisingly, Jang (2017) argues that Korea's third sector model is still primarily statist, as per Salamon and Anheier's (1998) categorization, and characterized by low government spending and a weak third sector and civil society, which translates into low levels of nonprofit activity.

The post-IMF Crisis period, marked by labor market liberalization in the context of the adverse conditions of post-industrial society (Jang, 2017; Yang, 2013), has seen changing social dynamics, the political empowerment of civilians, the decline of the family as a source of welfare, greater employment precarity, and general societal

frustration (Gray, 2008; Lee, 2011; Seo, 2011; Shin, 2011). All of this has instigated a debate and paradigm shift in policy circles as to how welfare delivery should be conceptualized, and it has underscored the importance of shifting towards a true welfare state model (Chung, 2010). Yet, although the Korean welfare system underwent radical institutional expansion as a consequence of the IMF Crisis - which ruptured the country's full-time work, contributory model - public social expenditure, even up until the present, has remained low in comparison to other OECD countries, and both the social insurance system and social welfare service sectors have remained relatively underdeveloped (Hong, 2014; Park, 2008). The country's welfare state remains small and can most accurately be described as a residual model akin to a liberal welfare state, with limited state intervention and where welfare is delegated to the private market economy and family. This model is essentially a legacy of Korea's "growth-first" ideology, which prioritized corporate welfare. Thus, despite democratization and an awareness of the adverse consequences of neoliberal restructuring, state-sponsored welfare service delivery continues to take a backseat to the interwoven priorities of economic growth and global economic competitiveness in the face of pressures from globalization driven by the high export-dependence of Korea's economy (Hong et al, 2013). As a consequence, even though Korea continues to enjoy economic growth fueled by its world-renowned *chaebol*, the social insurance schemes that were traditionally the backbone of Korea's welfare and social security systems have not been able to meet the new social needs of the country's ever-increasing number of unemployed and non-regular workers generated by structural changes in the economy (Yang, 2013). The subjective wellbeing and life satisfaction of Koreans falling below the OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2017) average is a testament to this.

The logic that had facilitated the country's rapid industrialization and brought substantial wealth to many Koreans had thus bequeathed a spectrum of multifaceted, seemingly intractable socio-economic issues and frustrations that derive from the perceived ossified socio-economic bifurcation of society, as reflected by Korea's shrinking middle class (Koo, 2017). The neologism '*n-po sedae*' (N 포 세 대 ; "N giving-up generation") and the phrase '*Hell Joseon*' (헬조선) - a reference to Korea's former neo-Confucian dynasty which was characterized by low social mobility - are both denotative expressions of the hopelessness and indifference that pervade the

view of the future of a group of Koreans in their 20's and early 30's who have 'given up' to varying degrees on: courtship, marriage, childbirth, employment, home ownership, interpersonal relationships, hope, health, physical appearance, and life (Cho and Stark, 2017). In a similar vein, it is estimated that approximately half of Korea's elderly live in poverty (Jones and Urasawa, 2014). The Korean developmental state's near-total mobilization of resources to hasten its industrialization drive spearheaded by government-selected firms, who were often financed by government-backed loans, led to the concentration of capital into the hands of *chaebol* at the expense of the fortunes of SMEs and the 'losers' of Korea's 'winner-take-all' market and hypercompetitive societal zero-sum game, exacerbated by the relatively low job creation ratios of *chaebol* (Connell, 2014; Shin and Chang, 2003). Although public sector positions are also considered desirable, a 'chaebol or nothing' culture has thus emerged among the country's predominantly highly-educated young job-seekers as a result of the concentration of wealth and resources of Korean society into its *chaebol*, with the result being festering inequality and a general aversion to seeking employment at SMEs or startups due to the general perception that employees of the latter entities are prone to exploitation and have to suffer low-paying, low-quality jobs with poor social protection and job security (Connell, 2014; Steger, 2016). The precariousness that afflicts SMEs and startups given their relative subaltern position prompted the creation of a Small and Medium Business Administration in 1996, which would later be converted into a dedicated Ministry of SMEs and Startups in 2017.

## 2.2 Turn towards Social Enterprise

Although historical antecedents of Korea's social economy can be found in pre-modern Korea's informal institutions, traditions, and practices of cooperation, reciprocity, and mutual aid, such as *pumasi* (품앗이; "labor exchange"), *dure* (두레; "collective farming"), *gondong jagobban* (공동 작업반; "cooperative work team"), and *gye* (계; "rotating credit union") as organizational forms of 'cooperative' mutual aid and work [2] (Jung and Rösner, 2012; Reed, 1981), the present government intervention in the social economy is based on the benchmarking of British and Italian social enterprises. The developmental-universalist, social insurance-type welfare

structure of post-colonial, pre-democratic Korea largely relegated the third sector to a liminal, latent status of unmanifested and unformalized pre-modern potentiality. Indeed, during the period preceding the 1997 IMF Crisis, the ‘social economy’ was populated, although not exclusively (e.g. private cooperatives did exist), by large, top-down, ‘repressive’, government-run cooperatives such as the National Agricultural Cooperative Federation and the Korean Federation of Community Credit Cooperatives. The 1975 Act on the Establishment and Operation of Public Interest Corporations, which regulated social welfare provision, entirely disregarded non-government-directed welfare organizations, which effectively left third sector organizations along with non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with little to no legal or policy support (Jang, 2017; Lee and Kim, 2013). This lack of support is consistent with the idea that the social economy has often been imagined to manifest as alternative, non-mainstream institutions, organizations or orders, and have, as a result, often been overlooked. Nevertheless, it has also been argued that the lack of state support is not the only dynamic that explains the traditional relative lack of importance of civil society-spawned social economy organizations; Korea’s neo-Confucian heritage (Jang, 2017), which affords the state the opportunity to delegate and consign welfare to the family, has been attributed as another factor that accounts for this relative absence. Indeed, the legacy of the disregard for the sector is reflected in the general difficulty found among Koreans to mentally reconcile the economic and social motives of a social enterprise’s ontological organizational constitution, as shown by the results of the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor dataset (Kibler et al, 2018).

Following the IMF Crisis, however, and within the context of democratization, successive presidential administrations, metropolitan governments, and local governments have made significant efforts to spearhead the promotion of the social economy, and implemented favorable socio-economic policies to facilitate the development of, *inter alia*, social enterprises, cooperatives and social cooperatives, and community businesses in an effort to not only build a foundation for the social economy, but also to incubate and support social economy organizations. Seoul hosting the International Forum on Social Enterprise Development in 2000 (Bidet, 2002) served as a watershed moment and inflection point in terms of the public sector’s relationship with the previously disregarded third sector. Several other city and local governments also took the initiative to promote social entrepreneurship. By

way of example of the important role played by city and local governments, the Seoul Metropolitan Government, in its efforts to promote its social economy, outlined its “10 Policy Goals for Seoul Social Economy” (2013-2014), seeking to increase access to public procurement and social finance, to foster social entrepreneurship and human resources, to create social incubating/accelerator spaces, to build regional infrastructure, and to promote regional and industry networks. These actions signaled a move from a ‘competitive’ relationship between civil society and government to one defined by collaboration, with local government being an important agent in this relationship (Mazzei, 2017; Mazzei and Roy, 2017; Jang, 2017). Notably, Seoul’s efforts to facilitate the development of its social economy organizations – which are defined as not only social enterprises and cooperatives, but also non-profit organizations (NPOs) – can also be observed elsewhere in Korea, as local governments across the country seek to mobilize social enterprises as mechanisms for the overall localization of economic development (Lee and Kim, 2013).

Crucially, the welfare programs implemented during the pre-democratic era served to establish the institutional bases for the enlargement of the welfare system during the democratic era, the national healthcare system being a case in point. In that case, Korea’s statist tradition, which dates back to the pre-modern era, allowed for the strategic mobilization and formal institutionalization of Korea’s social economy as a response to the pressing issues of unemployment and social service deficits (Chung, 2010).

The Korean government’s promotion of social enterprise is notably not the first and only such intervention: the Self-Reliance Community Support Center project initiated in 1996, cooperation between the People’s Movement Committee for Overcoming Unemployment and the government to establish Self-Reliance Centers that would fund enterprises with a social purpose and agreeable business proposals, and the National Basic Livelihood Security Act of 2000, which entrusted the Ministry of Health and Welfare with the promotion of self-reliance enterprises serve as cases in point (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018). Furthermore, NPOs and NGOs [3] have essentially become social service providers for the government (Jang, 2017), as accords with a third-party governance model (e.g. Guttman and Willner, 1976; Salamon, 1989). Under successive civilian governments the formerly ‘repressive’ relationship had morphed into one defined by cooperative, institutional pluralism, which facilitated the notion that social welfare and

employment needs should be addressed through the collaboration of the government and civil society organizations within the confines of limited government budgets (Jang, 2017).

The well-known proponent of the social and sharing economies, now mayor of Seoul, Park Won-Soon exclaimed in 2013 that every person should be a social entrepreneur or belong to at least one cooperative<sup>14</sup> (Lee, 2017a). Park Won-Soon wrote: “I have made a point of soliciting greater citizen input and getting citizens more directly involved in decision-making, and expanding collaboration between government, the market, and civil society”, emphasizing the transformation of city government and the creation of cross-cutting ‘super-sectoral innovation’ through partnerships between government, business, and citizens, and their ideas (Park, 2013). Park (2013), who founded both ‘The Beautiful Store’ and ‘The Hope Institute’, further stressed, “No matter how good a job government does to involve the ideas of its citizens, we cannot expect to solve all of the complex problems we face using the perspective of just one expert or the skills of just one sector.” The Seoul Social Enterprise Network (SSEN), the Social Entrepreneur Academy (SEA), the Social Enterprise Information System (SEIS) the Social Enterprise Promotion Programme/Ordinance (SEPP), the Seoul Social Economy Portal (SEHUB), the Seoul Council of Social Enterprise (SCSE), the Korean Social Investment Fund (KSIF) – which provides matching funds – and the Seoul Social Economy Centre play key supporting roles (Jang, 2017; Kim et al, 2016a). The establishment of the Seoul Innovation Park cluster, where the Seoul Social Economy Centre, Youth Hub, and Creative Lab all share the same geographic space, further underlines the strong institutional backing being received by social enterprises in Seoul (Lee, 2017b).

Although some social economy organizations and promotion initiatives have failed, the movement has continued to gain in popularity and strength. A re-envisioning of what constitutes the ‘social economy’ has been central to this movement, with the new, private social economy being noticeably unlike the arguably ‘repressive’ traditional, government-directed forms of social economy marked by

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14 Cooperatives emerged as one of the earliest and most integral constituents of the Korean social economy and many Korean social enterprises share significant commonalities with them, which implies a synergistic developmental path. In fact, Korea’s first formal cooperative was established in 1907 to provide financial aid to farmers (Kim, 2013). Furthermore, it has been argued that (social) cooperatives are more sustainable and more suitable than state-backed social enterprises for satisfying society’s social and economic demands (Han et al, 2013). Yet, it was reported in 2018 that that roughly half of the approximately 10,000 cooperatives in Korea that receive support funding from the government are ‘zombie cooperatives’ that do no business (Im, 2018).

large government-run cooperatives such as the National Agricultural Cooperative Federation and the Korean Federation of Community Credit Cooperatives. Notably, not all cooperatives acquired membership to these federations. Similarly, the regulation of social welfare provision in general via the 1975 Act on the Establishment and Operation of Public Interest Corporations, which left NPOs with no legal or policy support (Jang, 2017; Lee and Kim, 2013), is markedly different from the current approach. Nevertheless, this paradigm shift is still in flux, and the fact that the debate over how the social economy should be conceptualized has not been settled in policy circles (e.g. Kerlin, 2012) convincingly illustrates the situatedness of social entrepreneurship and the difficulty defining it. And while, for pragmatic and administrative reasons, the definition of what constitutes a ‘social enterprise’ may be *ad hoc*; nevertheless the formal institutionalization of the social enterprise has led to its *de jure* acceptance, which has led to the burgeoning of state-backed social enterprise and supporting organizations.

### 2.3 Korea’s Social Enterprise Promotion Agency

The enactment of the 2006 SEPA and the subsequent establishment of KOSEA in 2010 as an affiliate organization of the MOEL represents an inflection point that ushered in a new era of social economy-oriented networked, participatory social welfare governance in Korea. Following SEPA, Korea’s new social economy was defined by social enterprises in addition to new types of cooperatives<sup>15</sup>, and NPOs (Lee and Kim, 2013). And while the 2000 Act of Assistance of Non-Profit Civil Organizations (AANPCO) and the Consumer Cooperative Act (1999) presaged a social economy turn, and the 2012 Framework Act on Cooperatives (FAC)<sup>16</sup> consolidated this turn, nevertheless, 2007 represents an inflection point between the two.

KOSEA, as an intermediary public agency, has been tasked with overseeing Korea’s state-backed social enterprises by performing the following key functions: (1) vetting and certification/accreditation (which ultimately has to be authorized by the Ministry of Employment and Labor); (2) monitoring and oversight; (3) support and

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<sup>15</sup> See Kim (2013) for discussion on ‘new’ and ‘old’ types of cooperatives.

<sup>16</sup> The Framework Act on Cooperatives (FAC) of 2012 allows citizens to establish social cooperatives - the number of which has also burgeoned, from 102 in November 2013 to 362 by November 2015 (Jang, 2017).

supplementary functions, such as delivering financial subsidies (e.g. initial capital and salary support), education and training, and managerial support through customized readily-available consultation services; and, (4) social insurance support. These core services are aimed at empowering social enterprises through a strong focus on outcomes via adaptive implementation in cooperation with local government and other corporate actors.

More specifically, in performing these functions, KOSEA provides: (a) open data-based best practice examples (i.e. a shared experience information repository), for knowledge-sharing purposes, of successful social enterprises in order to prevent enterprise failure; (b) promotes and fosters both social enterprises and supporting organizations through both inter-social enterprise and inter-supporting organization competitions (see Appendix 3); (c) offers specialized education and training courses for start-up pre-certified and certified social enterprises that aim to foster entrepreneurial leaders through business capacity building; spreads awareness of social enterprises through a ‘Social Enterprise Week’ and ‘Social Enterprise Day Celebration’; (d) actively seeks to enhance social enterprise networks and regional ecosystems (which has encouraged and facilitated, *inter alia*, cooperation with *chaebol* as part of their corporate social responsibility campaigns (Kim et al, 2015)); (e) actively seeks to substantively enhance the managerial competencies of social entrepreneurs from the initial start-up stage through the growth stage to maturation and independence; implements projects for the preferential purchase of social enterprise products by public institutes; and, (f) supports social enterprises in finding markets.

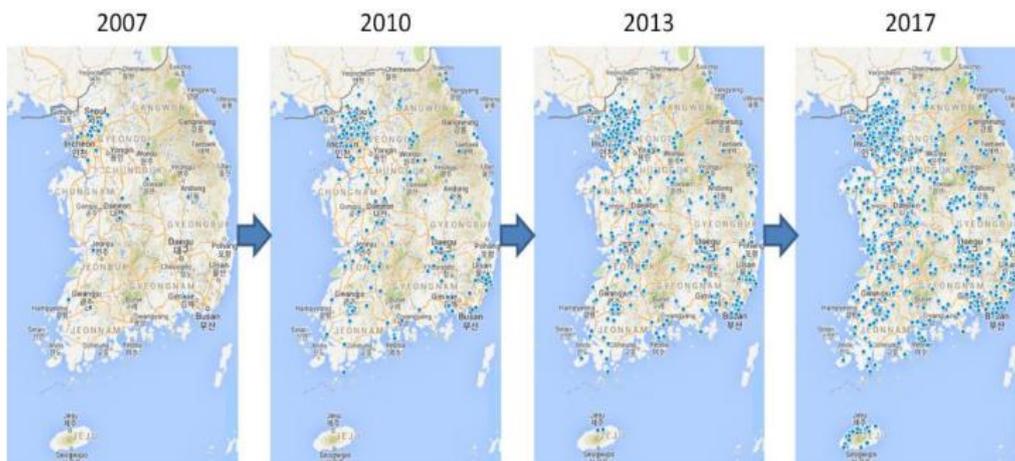
### **3. The Rapid Scaling of Social Entrepreneurship - State-certified Social Enterprise as an Organizational Form**

#### *3.1 Features of Social Enterprise in Korea*

While its specific role is to grant certification to social enterprises that fulfil various quality assurance criteria, SEPA has been one of the major policy interventions aimed at addressing the unemployment and precarious employment crises, in addition to social service deficiencies, that have emerged following the IMF Crisis. Since 2007, Korea has seen the rapid proliferation of certified social enterprises throughout the country; the purposefulness of the Korean state’s instrumentalization of social

enterprise as a major social welfare policy initiative is evinced by the rapid scaling up of certified social enterprise throughout Korea, from 55 certified social enterprises in 2007 to 1,862 by the end of 2017 (Joo, 2019: 67; Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019a, 2019b). By the end of 2017, 37 of the original 55 certified social enterprises still retained their certification, and the average certification survival rate stood at 83.31 percent, which underlines the earnestness of social enterprise promotion as a policy initiative. It is important to note that there has been a concomitant burgeoning of support and intermediary organizations, often organized by social entrepreneurs themselves. Figure 1.1, Table 1.1, and Figure 1.2 illustrate the aforementioned.

**Figure 1.1: Spread of Certified Social Enterprise, 2007-2017 -  
A Decade of State-backed Social Enterprise**



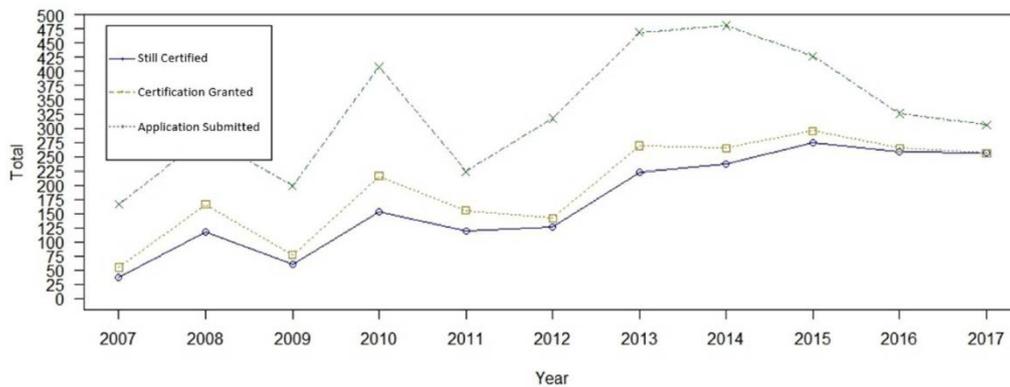
(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

**Table 1.1: Certification over Time (1)**

Year	Applications	Granted	Still Certified	Application Success Rate	Survival Rate
2007	166	55	37	33.13%	67.27%
2008	285	166	118	58.25%	71.08%
2009	199	77	61	38.69%	79.22%
2010	408	216	153	52.94%	70.83%
2011	224	155	119	69.20%	76.77%
2012	317	142	126	44.79%	88.73%
2013	469	269	222	57.36%	82.53%
2014	481	265	237	55.09%	89.43%
2015	427	295	275	69.09%	93.22%
2016	326	265	258	81.29%	97.36%
2017	306	256	256	83.66%	100.00%
<b>Total/Average</b>	3608	2161	1862	58.50%	83.31%

(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

Figure 1.2: Certification over Time (2)



(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

The rapid scaling of state-backed social entrepreneurship makes the case of Korea interesting given the magnitude of the intervention and the comprehensive support mechanisms introduced by the state, which, it could be speculated, amounts to a welfare paradigm shift. Kibler et al (2018), using the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor dataset, found that the perceived legitimacy of social entrepreneurship in Korea was relatively low, yet within the span of a decade, social enterprises have permeated the country. The implications of this rapid expansion, following a decade of promotion, vis-à-vis the general perception of the validity of the organizational form of social enterprises, raise important analytical questions. The notion of ‘social enterprise’ was not previously absent from public discourse in Korea prior to the fallout of the 1997 IMF Crisis. It was proposed as an alternative to *chaebol* in a 1969 article in the *Kyunghyang Shinmun*, a major daily newspaper (“68yeondo”, 1969). Yet, in the case of Korea, government-driven social entrepreneurship promotion serves as a definite key inflection point that accounts for the explosion in the number of social enterprises.

In terms of Shockley and Frank’s (2011) (see Table 1.2) typology of the functions of government in social entrepreneurship, the Korean case represents a blend of top-down and bottom-up social entrepreneurship within the context of higher state capacity, where the government serves as both the originator and implementer of social entrepreneurship, as well as an adapter and promoter. With that being said, it is important to note that a large number of state-backed social enterprises in Korea do proactively engage with the private sector and display many of the characteristics associated with social entrepreneurship in a predominantly private sphere setting.

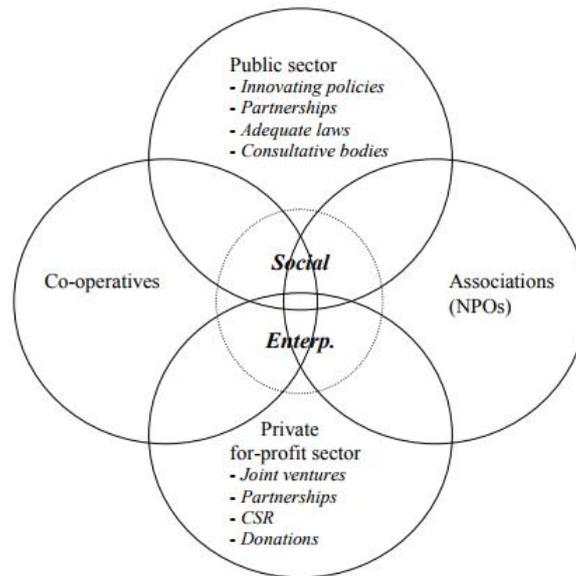
Table 1.2: The Functions of Government in Social Entrepreneurship

	<b>Higher State Capacity</b>	<b>Lower State Capacity</b>
<b>Top-down social entrepreneurship</b>	Government function: Originator and implementer	Government function: <i>Bungler</i>
<b>Bottom-up social entrepreneurship</b>	Government function: Adapter and promoter	Government function: <i>Limitator</i> and adopter

(Source: Shockley and Frank, 2011)

Following the enactment of SEPA, the proactive role that Korea’s public sector has played, drawing from the country’s statist *dirigiste* tradition, in promoting an ecosystem that supports the growth of social enterprises makes the Korean case unique. Defourny (2014) (see Figure 1.3) notes that social entrepreneurship in Korea is characterized by ‘innovating policies,’ ‘public sector partnerships,’ ‘adequate laws,’ and ‘consultative bodies’; this as opposed to in the United States, where social entrepreneurship mostly falls within the domain of the private sector and is predominantly driven by ‘joint ventures,’ ‘private sector partnerships,’ ‘corporate social responsibility,’ and ‘donations’, and in Europe, where social entrepreneurship generally occurs within the preserve between these two ideal types. Nevertheless, it is important to note that a large number of state-backed social enterprises in Korea do proactively engage with the private sector and display many of the characteristics associated with social enterprise in a predominantly private sphere setting. Furthermore, the corporate sector giant SK Group, a *chaebol*, has been very proactively financing and promoting social entrepreneurship in Korea in partnership with the public sector, and in this sense it has, arguably, surpassed notions of traditional corporate social responsibility in terms of its awareness of its greater responsibility to society and not only those affected by its core business.

Figure 1.3: The Intersectionality of Social Enterprise



(Source: Defourny (2014) citing Hulgård (2007))

Furthermore, with regard to the development of the social economy in Korea as a whole, Lim and Endo (2016) propose the following model (see Table 1.3). Lim and Endo (2016), referencing the above typology, argue that until the late 1980's and early 1990's the relationship between the state and the social economy was defined as a quasi-governmental social economy type, which implied the oppression of social economy organizations and voluntary self-help movements. However, since the late 1990's, there has been a move towards government-NPO partnership with regard to job creation programs and the establishment of self-sufficiency centers. In 2007, Lim and Endo (2016) argue, there was a shift towards a marketized social economy that included for-profit enterprises; and, from 2012, a movement towards an autonomous social economy defined by the institutionalization of cooperatives (including social cooperatives). Their analysis, however, neglects the varying roles of local government. Similarly, Choi et al (2020) invoke Bozeman's publicness theory to craft a market-to-publicness continuum - based on the dimensions of (1) ownership, (2) funding, and (3) control - along which they place the social enterprise policies of the American, British, and South Korean governments, arguing that the American market-oriented approach represents one polar end and the Korean government-dominated another; the British approach is positioned in-between these two ends of the continuum.

Table 1.3: Ideal Types of the Social Economy

		State's Involvement in the Social Economy	
		Strong	Weak
Social Economy Organizations' Political Power	Weak	Quasi-governmental Social Economy	Marketized Social Economy
	Strong	Government-Social Economy Organization Partnership	Autonomous Social Economy

(Source: Lim and Endo, 2016: 489)

Thus, understanding the roles of both the national and local governments in social enterprise promotion can contribute to the literature on the linkages between government and social entrepreneurship (Jang, 2017); furthermore, government-sponsored social enterprises could have implications for the literature on organizational forms with regard to the implications of certification.

### 3.2 Model Selection and Certification

As discussed previously, the Korean government opted for a European model for its social enterprises<sup>17</sup>, drawing from a mixture of Italian and British examples (Bidet and Eum, 2011; Jang, 2017) and opting for five social enterprise categories, namely: 'job-creation type' (at least 50 percent of employees must be economically vulnerable), 'social service provision type' (at least 50 percent of employees must be economically vulnerable), 'mixed type' (a combination of the job-creation and service provision types), 'local community contribution type' (an enterprise that aims to improve the quality of life in the local community), and 'miscellaneous' (Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, n.d.). Work integration social enterprises (WISE;

17 Park and Wilding (2013) describe Korea's state-backed social enterprises as conforming more to their American counterparts (such as described by MacMillan and Thompson, 2013) than European ones, however. Similarly, McCabe and Hahn (2006) contend that the Korean model is closely allied to American 'welfare to work' strategies'. However, Hwang et al (2017) conversely describe Korea's social enterprises as sharing many common characteristics with European social enterprises, with Defourny and Nyssens (2012) concurring. The fact that the Social Entrepreneur Academy primarily incorporates Italian and British case studies lends credence to the interpretations of the latter authors (2009 Social Entrepreneur Academy, 2009). Nevertheless, there are a plethora of social enterprise types that are not officially recognized as constituting a 'social enterprise'.

i.e. ‘job-creation type’) account for the vast majority of certified social enterprises due to the Korean government’s effort to reduce unemployment<sup>18</sup> (Jang, 2017). Rural social enterprises accounted for 23.1 percent of the total number of certified social enterprises as of 2014, even though Korea’s rural population accounted for roughly 17 percent of the total population in 2016. This over-representation in the rural areas is due to the social and economic pressures rural communities face and the difficulties the state faces in meeting the needs of the rural population (Kim et al, 2016a).

The criteria for certification (see Appendix 4) as a social enterprise reflect the desire to create jobs through social enterprise promotion. The necessary conditions for certification, among other requirements, include: a democratic decision-making structure, the employment of paid workers, successful engagement with the market, and the allocation of two-thirds of profits into social objectives (Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, n.d.). The emphasis on engagement with the market is in line with Dacanay’s (2009) findings on the general trends of social entrepreneurship in Asia. The majority of certified social enterprises tend to be previously for-profit organizations with an adopted social mission, as opposed to organizations that were previously NPOs. This organizational isomorphism is perhaps not surprising given the requirement of being able to demonstrate a successful business model in order to gain certification. In the case of Seoul, the hub of social entrepreneurship in Korea, for-profit organizations accounted for approximately 60 percent of now-certified social enterprises, with NPOs being the next highest category (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018).

### *3.3 Response to the National (Precarious) Employment Crisis*

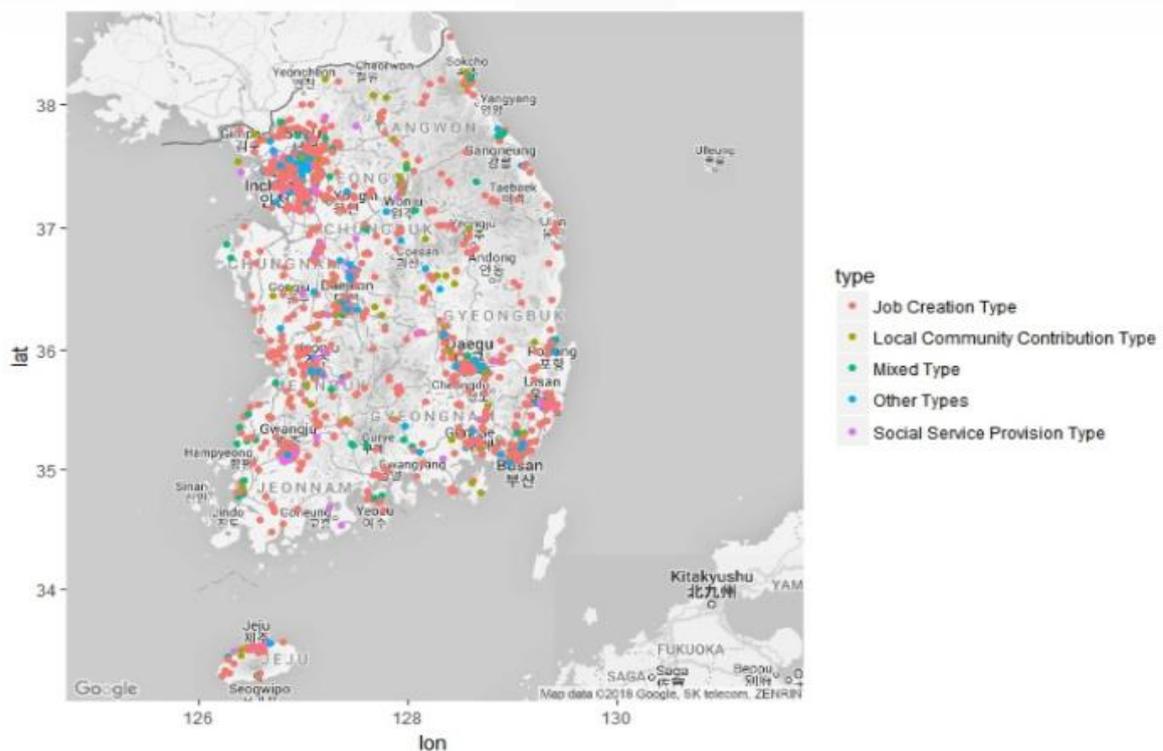
In displaying the proportion and distribution of social enterprises in Korea according to the government’s official classification, we see that the ‘job creation’ type predominate and account for the vast majority of state-backed social enterprises throughout Korea. This appears to conform to the mandate given to social enterprises to create jobs, and it also appears to be a response to the Korean government’s prioritization of job creation in the face of the employment crisis that Korea is

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18 The government earlier introduced the ‘Social Workplace Programme’ (SWP) as part of its job stabilization policy, yet it was deemed a failure given that the majority of jobs created were unstable and temporary (Park and Wilding, 2013). Aside from government efforts, Korean civil society has also established private worker cooperatives to deal with unemployment (Jang, 2017).

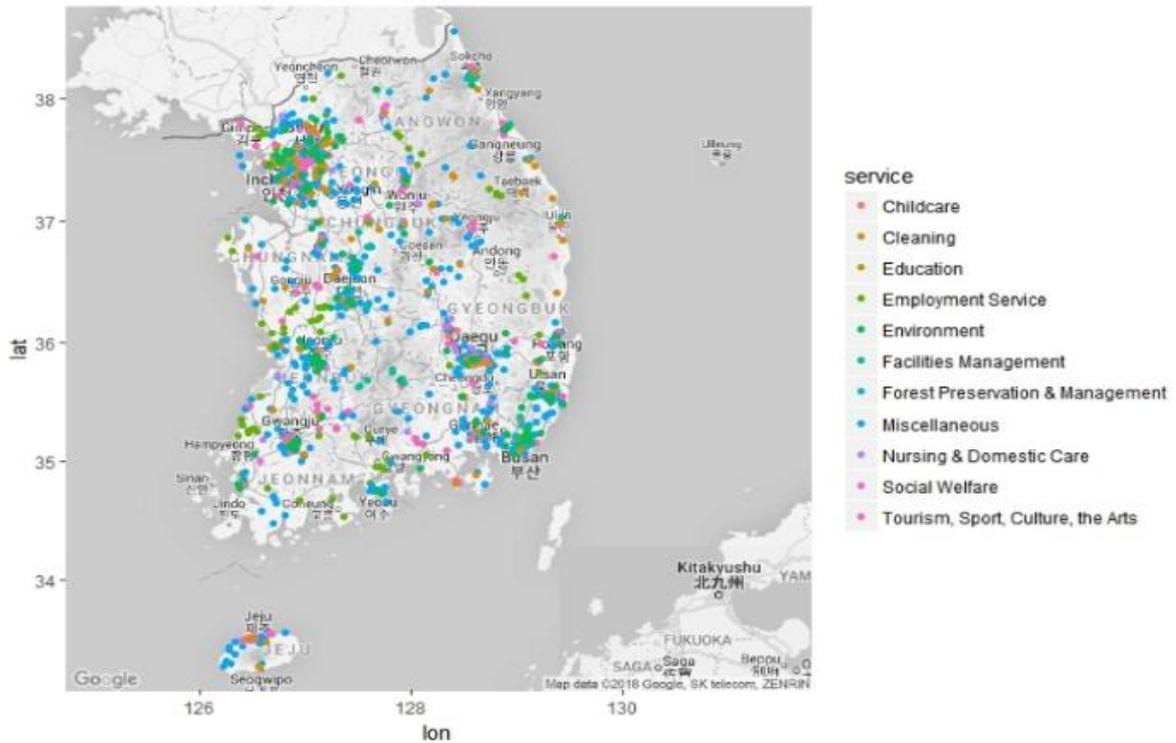
confronting. However, in terms of the services delivered by social enterprises, the government’s ‘service’ delivered category does not offer any analytical value in determining the demand and supply-side factors driving social entrepreneurship in Korea, given that the vast majority of social enterprises are listed as delivering a “miscellaneous” service. A more fine-grained delineation of the services delivered by certified social enterprises would be very helpful in terms of determining what demand- and supply-side factors are driving social entrepreneurship in Korea, given that “employment service” is one such category and other categories such as “social welfare”, “education”, “cleaning”, et cetera, could be illustrative in terms of revealing the demographic characteristics of those individuals employed by social enterprises. Figures 1.4, 1.5, and 1.6 illustrate the aforementioned.

Figure 1.4: Social Enterprise Distribution by Type



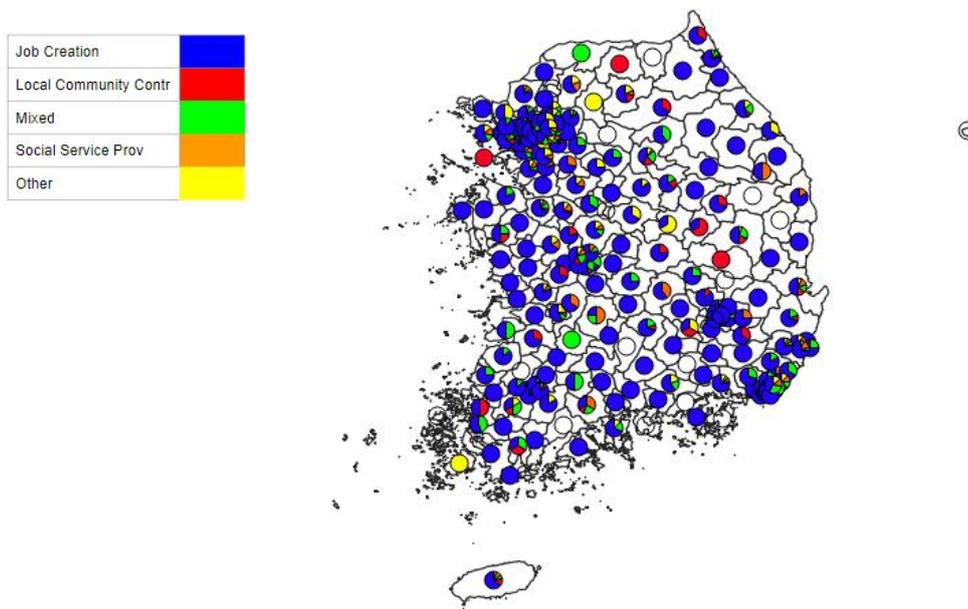
(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

Figure 1.5: Social Enterprise Distribution by Service



(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

Figure 1.6: Social Enterprise Type Distribution by Administrative Area



(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

### *3.4 Success or Failure? Preliminary Evidence*

As a result of these support measures and a greater contemporary appreciation for the salience of social enterprise, there has been an almost exponential explosion in the number of social enterprises in Korea across all sectors, offering a wide, diversified range of products and services. This implies that social enterprise has crossed a threshold that consolidates its import and integration into Korea's social policy repertoire.

Nevertheless, while this rapid proliferation and prevalence of state-backed social enterprises underlines the integral role social enterprise is playing as a major, expanding policy initiative in Korea (Yoon and Kim, 2016), it does not allow for conclusions to be drawn regarding the success of the government's intervention. The intervention may be well-meaning and have an appropriate ecology in place, yet this may not necessarily translate into social enterprises having become influential players in addressing the needs of citizens. On the supply side, for instance, factors such as officious or apathetic mid-level administrators, excessive paperwork and taxing administrative burdens, and general consultative and administrative amateurism may, for instance, hamper progress.

The *2016 Social Enterprise Performance Analysis Report*, published by KOSEA in 2017 and surveying the performance of state-backed social enterprise over the period 2013 through 2015, detailed the following: (a) the total number of social enterprises grew from 993 to 1,460; (b) net sales value increased across nearly all categories, with the number of social enterprises in almost all net sales value categories also increasing; (c) non-operating income has increased from an average of 155,368,675 KRW<sup>19</sup> to 175,240,808 KRW; (d) external funding in the form of government subsidies has decreased from an average of 132,788,000 KRW to 108,618,000 KRW; (e) the total number of employees increased from 14,179 to 21,096 nationwide, with the corresponding average number of employees adjusted for the number of social enterprise increasing from 14.3 to 14.4 over the same period; (f) employee mean income has increased from 1,104,000 KRW to 1,319,000 KRW, or 72.1 percent to 73.8 percent of that of 'ordinary employees'; and (g) the total number of social service provision social enterprises has increased from 826 to 1,072, while

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<sup>19</sup> 1208.94 KRW equaled 1 USD on December 29, 2016, and in 2016, the KRW per 1 USD had a range of max 1237.92 to min 1093.52.

the average number of beneficiaries decreased from 980 to 650. In terms of point (b), by way of illustration, in the net sales value category 500 million KRW to 1 billion KRW, the number of social enterprises increased from 183 to 280 and in the 5 billion KRW and above category there was an increase from 27 to 57 social enterprises – in other words, there are more social enterprises in higher net sales value categories. However, the below table merely represents aggregate figures, and it is thus not clear where the entry point is of newly certified social enterprises, and whether social enterprises have been moving across categories.

Figure 1.7: Social Enterprise Net Sales Value Distribution, by Year



(Source: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2017)

Furthermore, Kim et al (2016b), for instance, find that in Seoul the income of vulnerable groups has increased by 120 percent and that the ratio of social insurance coverage for social economy organization workers is 30 percent higher than that in regular businesses. They (Kim et al, 2016b) also find that social enterprise sales through the city-run ‘Hamkke Nuri Mall’ online shopping mall increased from a total of 110 million KRW in 2013 to 620 million KRW by 2015, and that the public purchase of goods and services also increased steadily. Approximately 2,300 registered products delivered by 272 social enterprises are advertised, providing social enterprises with a powerful online means to access the market. There has also been support for increasing marketing and sales channels at permanent markets and department stores (Kim et al, 2016b).

These trends provide powerful preliminary evidence for the growing financial sustainability of Korea's state-backed social enterprises, and justify a more granular investigation into state-backed social enterprises in Korea and what role government has played, if at all, in improving their performance and in scaling up social enterprise in Korea in general.

### *3.5 Criticism*

Fears have been expressed (Bidet, 2012; Defourny and Kim, 2011; Jang, 2017) that the market and the Korean state's potential 'coercive' isomorphic pressures might adversely influence the development of Korea's social enterprises due to the country's apparently 'weak' civil society. The potentially stymieing effect of the 'domineering' role of the state in the governing of social enterprise in Korea has also been cited, with it even suggested that it may represent a co-option of social enterprise by government or a neoliberal abandonment of the government's welfare responsibilities (Jang, 2017; Kim, 2016; McCabe and Hahn, 2006). Similarly, in this vein, it has been argued (Jang, 2017) that Korea's state-backed model is limited and too narrowly institutionalized, adhering to an overly narrow conception of 'social economy' and 'social enterprise', which saps the creativity and capacity of social enterprises to be socially innovative and confront the multidimensional issues of poverty and exclusion (Bidet, 2008). Moreover, Park and Wilding (2013) argue that SEPA may have led to greater efficiency through the government approval system-induced standardization process, but it has also led to a potential loss in flexibility, diversity, and autonomy. In other words, a general criticism has been that a fixation on certification and subsidy requirements has led to isomorphism.

Jang (2017) notes the assessment of the first five years of SEPA led to calls for greater cooperation between local government and social enterprises, as well as between national, regional, and local governments. There were also demands for the improvement of infrastructure, including social finance and socially responsible procurement. Furthermore, commentators (Park and Wilding, 2013) have suggested that the Korean government's approach to social enterprise is too instrumental, and that it should be more value-based (i.e. it is too market-oriented and should target more of the underlying values inherent to social enterprise). According to detractors (Park and Wilding, 2013), the approval system leads to mission drift and the result

that business-oriented social enterprises inevitably dominate given that the main reason for certification rejection is a lack of profit from business activities. They also allege that the system has led to the generation of low-quality jobs. To remedy these problems, Park and Wilding (2013) suggest instead that regulation should be less stringent and that more engagement should take place with social enterprise representatives in terms of welfare and employment policies (e.g. impact of certification criteria on service provision, costs of service delivery, et cetera).

Furthermore, Kim et al (2016a) have found that in rural Korea, the average debt of social enterprises is the largest among social economy organizations and also has the biggest standard deviation. This is consistent with Noh's (2013) finding that many of Korea's social enterprises struggle with debt, and a meagre 16.1 percent of social enterprises could be regarded as financially sustainable based on their reported operating profit. Noh (2013) furthermore finds that social enterprises have to rely on subsidies since they find it difficult to attract social investments; in other words, government support is said to induce dependency.

However, Gardin (2006) found that in Europe WISEs typically obtain on average 56 percent of their resources from the public sector. 53 percent of their resources are generated through the selling of goods and service, 19 percent of which is derived from sales to the public sector. On average, subsidies account for 32 percent of their resources. It is therefore not uncommon for social enterprises to rely on a degree of support from the public sector. Furthermore, to contextualize the finding that only a small number of social enterprises are financially sustainable, Korea's self-employment business closure rate was 77.7 percent in 2016 and rose to 89.2 percent by the end of 2018. These findings can be interpreted with reference to the organizational ecology literature. Hannan and Carroll (1992) explain that the founding rates of organizations increase as their legitimacy increases and eventually hit a peak. Numbers subsequently start to decline (i.e. the mortality rate increases) as competition intensifies with other organizations of the same form as well as other competing organizations in general. Given that social enterprises the Korean state's social promotion effort is a little more than a decade old, a degree of dependence on the public sector is to be expected. Moreover, it is to be expected that many social enterprises will not be successful, which is consistent with the organizational ecology literature as well as business trends in Korea in general. To further contextualize this point, the survival rate of startups in Korea that were founded was only 27.5 percent

after five years (2014-2018) (Lee, 2018). The OECD average was 40.9 percent (Lee, 2018).

#### **4. Discussion and Conclusion - Towards an Inclusive Developmental State?**

The fortunes and prospects of Korea's state-backed social enterprises are still equivocal. It is important to remember that social enterprise in Korea is a relatively new, developing phenomenon. Although expressions of well-entrenched social capital are found both in pre-modern and modern Korea, the notion of formal social economy organizations such as social enterprises is relatively nascent. The merits and demerits of the Korean government's intervention in the social economy are still difficult to ascertain for it is still a movement that is unfolding at present, which alludes to the crux of this chapter - namely, to capture a portrait of the state and mechanisms of an innovative policy intervention that is being continuously shaped through feedback channels. Nevertheless, prior to the government's intervention the notion of social entrepreneurship was absent from public discourse; the government's intervention has popularized social entrepreneurship and lent legitimacy to social enterprise as an organizational form.

Importantly, Korea's *dirigiste* tradition adds novelty to the conceptualization of 'social entrepreneurship' for it challenges not only antagonistic perceptions of the relationship of social enterprise to the state and the market, but fundamentally broadens the horizons of social enterprise's interactions with, and its relationship to, the state. In this sense, it has implications for the literature on the welfare state. In Korea the development of social enterprise has been influenced predominantly by the state, as opposed to the North American and European traditions of social enterprise that derive from civil society. This survey and analysis of Korea's state-backed social enterprises and the concluding case study contributes not only to the literature on forms of neoliberal welfare, but also government intervention in the social economy.

This echoes previous studies (Lee and Tee, 2009; Lee et al, 2014) that have shown how the legacy of the developmental state in Korea, and elsewhere, and the concomitant top-down implementation of policy even in the democratic era can promote industries. The active role that the state played as an inter-scalar mediator in the sense of strategically coupling *chaebol* with local actors (e.g. small firms) in order to promote regional development in the liquid display crystal industry is an

illustration of this logic (see Lee et al, 2014). Regulatory policies were enacted and regional innovation systems were constructed in order to create an environment conducive to strategic coupling, which led to an institutional architecture that has produced several clusters (Lee et al, 2014). Lee et al (2014) suggest that civil society played an active role in encouraging the Korean state to adopt this coupling policy. Similarly, Lee and Tee (2009) call for a reprisal of the role of the development state, showing that the Singaporean state was not only a facilitator but rather played an active role in the emergence of biomedical clusters in Singapore.

The movement towards more networked, participatory social welfare governance, which has been partly mediated by digital governance as illustrated in Appendix 2, comes in conjunction with Korea's transition from a manufacturing-based economy to a knowledge- and technology-based economy in the wake of the third and fourth industrial revolutions. The manifest reality in Korea that the 'job for life' welfare model is unattainable, along with changes in demographic structures, has compelled the government to explore the viability of social economy organizations, which has, in turn, precipitated corollary changes in institutions (i.e. more institutional pluralism, institutional layering, and institutional conversion) and power relationships (i.e. greater interaction with civil society throughout all levels of government) as a 'condition of necessity' to uncover innovative civil society-driven business models<sup>20</sup> to address social problems, as the proliferation of social economy organizations serving the vulnerable suggests (Chung, 2010; Jang, 2017).

Although conceptions of the role and place of the state, government, welfare, and the citizenry in Korea have been profoundly influenced by neoliberalism, the Korean state is still fundamentally an interventionist developmental state, as opposed to being a neoliberal state with reduced control and capacity to intervene (Suh and Kwon, 2014). Nevertheless, in involving its citizenry in policy-making through various platforms and feedback mechanisms, the goals, styles, and scope of government interventions have been undergoing transformation while still retaining elements of the welfare intervention logic of the pre-democratic era. There has been a notable shift away from a model of state dominance to an edifying mixture of top-down and bottom-up approaches (Jang, 2017). The state's active support and nurturing of social

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<sup>20</sup> Although many social enterprises were formerly profit-seeking businesses, the social enterprise promotion initiative has, arguably, converted them into civil society organizations defined organizationally by hybridity in the sense of offering both civic benefits and possessing commercial capabilities.

economy organizations alludes to a shift to an inclusive developmental state, which traces its genesis to the developmental state and its successful economy legacy, subsequent political democratization, and the 1997 and 2007-2008 financial crises.

Whether the Korean government's promotion of social entrepreneurship and whether state-backed social enterprises perform better than their uncertified enterprise counterfactuals (such as domestically uncertified B Corporations), both in terms of financial and social impact measures and also sustainability, is still equivocal. As Jeong (2017: 122) notes, "The main interest will be whether or not the Korean Government will be able to mobilize social enterprises for its policy goals with a government initiative as effectively as it did with its economic development."

Nevertheless, the mobilization of social enterprises to address Korea's intractable socio-economic problems, especially irregular employment and unemployment, is clearly evident, as well as the gradual scaling of the initiative. The government's recognition of the need for the creation of oversight, regulatory and accreditation bodies underlines the importance it has attached to the formal recognition of social enterprises as a means to address these issues. This has translated into policies that have supported the growth and development of social entrepreneurship and social enterprises in the country. These policies have been designed to create an enabling environment and to remove previously existing institutional barriers. Government appreciation and understanding of the challenges faced by social enterprises has led to the creation of policies, such as various incentives, including grants and tax exemption, and support mechanisms for social enterprises to overcome various barriers, such as overcoming financing obstacles through partial subsidization. Further government support is provided in terms of removing impediments to market development, aiding human resource development (e.g. training and best practice case sharing), and networking and collaboration. The creation of a legal framework and the concomitant policy and institutional frameworks has established a platform for the development, growth, and sustainability of social enterprises through mainstreaming and support programs, with the ultimate aim of fostering the integration of social enterprises into the Korean economy and society. The formal institutionalization of social entrepreneurship promotion lays the groundwork for the institutionalization of social entrepreneurship in Korean society at large. The Korean state's intervention in promoting social entrepreneurship is a powerful case study of the potential of an actor as powerful as a state to scale social entrepreneurship as a legitimate form of

organization in a collaborative manner. This is because the social entrepreneurs themselves need to be willing participants (e.g. the administrative burden of accreditation is considerable) and thus social entrepreneurship promotion necessitates collaboration with the private sector (i.e. potential social entrepreneurs and innovators), and civil society at large, and implies a non-confrontational relationship as well as one that is not mutually exclusive. Importantly, it also lends evidence to the claim that government can also be a social innovator (Lundström and Zhou, 2011). The explosion of social enterprises after the formal recognition of such organizational forms is evidence of such, given that there were few social enterprises, even informally, prior to the creation of a social enterprise legal framework and institutional and policy support mechanisms. Today social entrepreneurs and supporting organizations exist throughout the country.

However, in saying that, answering the question of the effectiveness of state-backed social enterprises as well as their sustainability necessitates, as a first foundational step, an investigation into the demand- and supply-side determinants of social enterprise certification and locational placement (e.g. is the phenomenon of social enterprise proliferation in Korea merely government, supply-side driven?), which broaches substantive avenues for future research. Likewise, it can only be speculated whether social entrepreneurship has come to be seen as a legitimate form of organization by the public at large, although the rapid proliferation of social enterprises throughout the country suggests as much. If the Korean government's experiment with social entrepreneurship is successful, and it may still be too early to judge, then the ultimate verification of the external validity of this research, as opposed to the Korean experiment being context-bounded, will be whether it is replicable - although it ought to be if the modern state is one of the key drivers, with reference to the instrumental role played by local government.

Both the logic that drove self-help, income improvement programs such as the New Community Movement in the pre-democratic era and similar movements after democratization and also of the developmental state in its promotion of *chaebol* (Jeong, 2015) essentially serve as the palimpsest of the ideational constitution of the country's contemporary statist approach to social enterprise promotion. This is evinced by the comprehensive set of guidelines for the intervention delineated by SEPA (2010), which includes the following key stratagems: (a) establishment of basic plan for promotion of social enterprise; (b) establishment of social enterprise support

plan by each city and province; (c) factual survey every five years; (d) certification of social enterprises; (e) business support; (f) support for education and training; (g) support for facility expenses; (h) preferential purchase by public institutions; (i) reduction or exemption of taxes and support for social insurance premium; (j) financial assistance for social enterprises providing social services; (k) reduction or exemption of taxes; (l) day of social enterprise; and, (m) establishment of social enterprise promotion agency<sup>21</sup>. These guidelines delineate the modal qualities and structural attributes of state-social enterprise cooperation for the achievement of the social agenda of both and also demarcate a clear legal definition of what constitutes ‘social enterprise.’ The certification of social enterprises with a robust business plan along with performance-based provisions to maintain certification serve as quality control measures to ensure the financial and ethical integrity of certified social enterprises and highlights the ‘self-help’ logic of Korea’s social enterprise promotion approach, which is designed to gradually wean social enterprises off of state dependency. In terms of Shockley and Frank’s (2011) typology of the functions of government in social entrepreneurship, the Korean case can be classified as characterized by higher state capacity and a mixture of top-down, bottom-up social entrepreneurship.

The Korean state thus endeavors to play a ‘corrective’ role in response to market failure by intervening in the third sector to enable social enterprises to compete in the marketplace by introducing a legal framework and certification process that seeks to ensure and promote the quantity and quality of social enterprises. Crucially, most certified social enterprises have remained certified over time, and the success rate for obtaining certification has increased (Yeondobyeol, 2019).

Social enterprise foundings and the maturation, if quality assurance measures are deemed credible, of the majority of the social enterprises has been contingent upon different types of period effects. Democratization and the concomitant shift in social values and norms, the enactment of a social enterprise promotion act, and the resource availability via state support mandated by law has induced social enterprise foundings and the emergence of social enterprise populations throughout the country. Maturation can also be observed via proxies such as their survival rate, which

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<sup>21</sup> These stratagems have manifested in the form of a number of support and incubation mechanisms, including, *inter alia*, subsidies, preferential purchase schemes, tax exemption, mentorship and training, and access to an e-commerce marketplace for goods and services.

suggests that they have been successfully navigating their environments although to varying degrees depending on locality.

## Endnotes

[1] KOSEA publishes a social enterprise magazine titled ‘Magazine 3.65’ (Maegeojin; 매거진 36.5). It is important to note that the Research Institute for Social Enterprises, which is independent from KOSEA, is also associated with a magazine titled ‘Social Enterprise Magazine’ (Sahoejeokgieop Maegeojin; 사회적기업 매거진).

[2] Although the notions of the ‘social economy’, ‘social enterprise’, and ‘cooperative’ are contemporaneously-minted terms and the anachronistic analytical fallacy that is presentism should be averted, at the village level antecedent institutions have existed on the Korean Peninsula since ancient times and can even be traced back to the Later Three Kingdoms (892-936). During the Joseon Dynasty, they manifested as informal institutions at the village level. Jung and Rösner (2012: 83) write: “the local autonomy of rural villages was strengthened by establishing a self-governing system called ‘*Hyangyak*’ (향약), literally meaning “rural promise” or agreement. Inspired by Confucian thinking in Chosun culture, *Hyangyak* obliges every member of rural society to work toward solidarity and mutual help in reciprocal social relationships... people had to perform common work, self-help, control, and other forms of interaction in order to promote the material and social welfare of their specific village.” The traditions of ‘*pumasi*’ (‘labor exchange’), ‘*dure*’ (‘collective farming’), ‘*gongdong jagobban*’ (‘cooperative work team’), ‘capital-labor exchange’, and ‘*gye*’ (‘social bond’ credit unions) were all associated ‘cooperative’ organizational mutual work and reciprocal aid principles (Jung and Rösner, 2012; Reed, 1981), as can be expected given the norm of reciprocity in rural settings in Asia (Scott, 1976), and represent an antecedent, pre-modern ‘social economy’ in rural Korea. Arguably, these traditions have assuaged the transition towards modern corporate community (Kim, 1996), which aligns with Popkin’s (1979) view of villagers as self-interested, rational problem-solvers with a sense of their own interests and the need to bargain for mutually acceptable outcomes. This is not to say that the traditional village ‘community’ was ever a paragon of virtue, a ‘romantic’ perception Rigg (1994) warns against, nor that traditional philosophies or policies were complete

and all-encompassing, but that a precedent exists for Korea's social economy and its interaction with the Korean welfare state, and that the modern welfare state-social economy interaction is at least partially rooted in indigenous institutions; which, arguably, will have a definite impact on how the modern Korean welfare state engages social enterprise as well as how social enterprise performs. Indeed, Korea's pre-modern customs and values have not been consigned to history, nor have the Japanese colonial period (1910-45), modernity, or globalization rendered Koreans cultural strangers vis-à-vis the traditions of their ancestors. The popularization of '*Kongdongche*' (공동체), the Korean term for community or *Gemeinschaft*, and its widespread societal adoption in the decade of the 1980's illustrates this point, with it being applied, inter alia, to the spheres of labor, academia, and culture, illustrating the egalitarian community ideology that permeates the notion of 'community solidarity' in Korea (Kim, 1996). The pre-modern manifestations of the traditions of autonomy, self-help, mutual aid and communal solidarity, although less institutionalized and more of a moral code of conduct, establish a nexus with modernity. The social capital generated by the legacy of strong communities bequeathed to modern Korea communal arrangements beneficial for economic development, especially in terms of the positive externalities associated with associational or group life. Indeed, it has been argued that the forces of community and society, defined in contrast by institutions characterized by transparency and codified rules, can serve as "complementary forms of organization whose relative balance and interaction shape the economic potential of every territory" (Rodríguez-Pose and Storper, 2006: 1). The genesis of the Korea's social economy-welfare state dynamic is found in the Korean state's tradition of strong and selective intervention, enabled by a powerful government as well as a capable and autonomous bureaucracy, as witnessed in the historic growth-oriented policy interventions that sought to improve the lot of its citizenry (Suh and Kwon, 2014). This implies that such interventions are not solely inspired by modern, Western-style welfare models, which have admittedly had an enormous influence in the manifestation of the modern welfare state in Korea in 1948 (Hong et al, 2013). Indeed, both formal and informal institutions associated with state welfare delivery and the social economy can trace their genesis to the primordial indigenous institutions of pre-modern Korea, and the existence of these traditions has certainly eased the development of new welfare delivery initiatives. Koh (2003) notes

that the Joseon Dynasty's (1392-1897) adoption of Neo-Confucianism as its state ideology, partly as a result of the belief propagated by the radical reform faction during the Buddhist Goryeo Dynasty (918-1392) that the 'corrupt' regime of the time had been forsaken by the people and thus lost its mandate of heaven, compelled it to play an affirmative role, despite its inherent class discrimination, by virtue of its foundation on the profoundly socio-economic Confucian ethics of 'benevolent government' (*renzheng*) and 'rule of virtue' (*dezhi*) as well as, as expounded by Mencius, the 'kingly way' (*wangdao*) of peaceful rulership based on the idea of 'people-based politics' (*minben zhengchi*) – implying an expected right, or norm, to a minimum level of subsistence among the largely rural populace (Scott, 1976). Court policy-making and institutional reform during the Joseon period were often far-reaching, with the largely agrarian Joseon court actively pursuing a policy of rural development given that the mandate of heaven and the associated notion of the 'Heavenly Way' (*tian*) required that the government, as its primary role, feed and clothe the population, as recorded in the Sejong Sillok (Annals of King Sejong). Accordingly, the government published manuals such as Nongsa Jikseol (1429; 'Straight Talk of Farming'/'Explanation of Farming' – an agricultural manual), Geum-Yang Japnok (1492; 'Miscellaneous Matters of Geum-Yang' – a book on agriculture), Hyangyak Jipseongbang (1433; Compilation of Native Korean Prescriptions – a medical book) and enforced the development and diffusion of local self-help programs centering on the technical knowledge contained within them, with the outcome of these programs reflected in the evaluations of local officials (Koh, 2003; Park, 2005), with Joseon having had a relatively meritocratic bureaucratic tradition. Moreover, in ancient times, during both the Three Kingdoms Period (57 B.C.E. to 668 C.E.) and the Unified Silla Period (668-918), monarchs would provide natural disaster relief to 'commoners', and during the Goryeo Dynasty free medical services were provided. Likewise, during the Joseon Period medical welfare systems existed for the vulnerable (Hong et al, 2013). Notably, Korea has embedded the traditional existentialist-humanist, moral socio-political philosophy of 'Hongik Ingan' ('devotion to the welfare of humankind') through its incorporation into the second article of the Education Law of the Republic of Korea (1951) (Jeong, 2001; Choi, 2003; Choi, 2009).

[3] NGOs and NPOs are treated synonymously here given that, that is how they are treated in the Korean literature.



## Chapter 2

### Analyzing the Legitimacy of Social Enterprise Through the Lenses of Interorganizational Networks and Discourse

#### 1. Introduction

Prior to 2000, social enterprise received scant attention in the Korean media; it is mentioned a mere 19 times in a period stretching from 1969, when ‘social enterprise’<sup>22</sup> was first mentioned, to the end of 1999 (Naver News Library, n.d.). Yet, from the year 2000 onwards, ‘social enterprise’ appears in the title of at least 1,858 articles of nine newspapers with national circulation that span the ideological spectrum from conservative to progressive.<sup>23</sup> Kim (2016) collected 2,706 Korean newspaper articles that contained the term ‘social enterprise,’ ‘social entrepreneurship,’ or ‘social entrepreneur’ from four national newspapers<sup>24</sup> covering the period January 2000 to May 2014 in analyzing conservative and progressive discourse on social enterprise in Korea.<sup>25</sup> With reference to publications in academic journals, Lee et al (2018) found that a mere eight academic articles were published in Korean academic journals that list ‘social enterprise’ as a keyword from 2000 to 2007, yet from 2007 to 2017 ‘social enterprise’ was listed as a keyword in at least 558 academic journal articles, with 94 articles in 2013 being the peak. It is apparent that discourse on ‘social enterprise’ has emerged swiftly.

The rapid proliferation of social enterprises throughout the country has sparked dialogue. Intermediary support organizations and funding agencies as well as other enabling organizations and units, including social enterprise units at the local government level, have also spread throughout the country. The number of uncertified social enterprises is unclear (Jang, 2017). The existence of 13 B Corporations (B Corp Asia, n.d.), not all of which are government-certified, suggests that not all social ventures can be accounted for; nevertheless, the first Korean B Corporation was only certified in 2012 (B Corp Asia, n.d.), which is consistent with this general trend of an

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<sup>22</sup> Albeit possibly with different connotations.

<sup>23</sup> The newspapers are as follows: Chosun Ilbo, Dong-a Ilbo, Hankook Ilbo, Hankyoreh, JoongAng Ilbo, Kookmin Ilbo, Kyunghyang Shinmun, Munhwa Ilbo, and Seoul Shinmun.

<sup>24</sup> 862 from Hankyoreh, 485 from Kyunghyang Shinmun, 740 from Chosun Ilbo, and 619 for JoongAng Ilbo.

<sup>25</sup> The study was based on “Social-Public Value” and “Market Principle” as well as “Masculinity” and “Femininity” vocabularies.

explosion of interest in social enterprise and entrepreneurship in Korea following the government's intervention. Furthermore, the third-biggest conglomerate in Korea, SK Group, founded the SK Happiness Foundation in 2006 with the intent of, *inter alia*, promoting social innovation, and it subsequently established the SK Social Enterprise Startup Academy in 2009. Likewise, a number of think tanks have been established specifically to research social entrepreneurship, including the Center for Social Value Enhancement Studies (originally known as the Social Enterprise Research Center) as well as the Social Enterprise Research Center (which should not be confused with the formerly mentioned think tank which previously had an identical name, although spelled differently in Korean). Social venture co-working spaces, such as Heyground in 2017, have also been established and several universities now have centers for social innovation or offer degree programs in social innovation or entrepreneurship, including prominent universities such as Hanyang University, Korea Advanced Institute of Science and Technology, Sungkonghoe University, and Yonsei University. National and regional social enterprise networks have also been established in all of Korea's provinces and city-level networks are present in the vast majority of cities.

Similarly, the *Framework Act of Cooperatives* (FAC) was enacted in 2011 and enforced in 2012 with 53 social cooperatives being registered by the end of 2012 (Korea Cooperatives, 2019a.). As of November 2019, there are 1,675 social cooperatives (Korea Cooperatives, 2019a). Community businesses (*maeul gieop*; 마을 기업) and self-help/self-reliance enterprises (*jahwal gieop*; 자활 기업) show similar trajectories of rapid scaling. Following the publication of the Ministry of the Interior and Safety's *Community Business Incubation Guidelines* (CBIG) in 2011, the number of community businesses rapidly increased to 1,592 by June 2019 (Ministry of the Interior and Safety, 2019). With the legal backing of the *National Basic Livelihood Security Act* (NBLA), it is projected that the number of self-help enterprises will increase from 1,092 in 2017 to approximately 2,100 by 2022 (Ministry of Health and Welfare, 2018).

It must thus be asked: What accounts for this sudden surge in interest in social enterprise and entrepreneurship in Korea?; or, more broadly put: What accounts for this sudden surge in interest in new social economy organizations in Korea? Is Korea simply following international trends? Are domestic pressures at play? Has a

domestic actor played an instrumental role in promoting social entrepreneurship in Korea?

As pointed out by Spicer et al (2019), social enterprise and entrepreneurship was first discussed as a coherent concept in the 1970's, though its usage remained sporadic in the 1970's and 1980's and would only become popularized in the 1990's. According to the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, the perceived legitimacy of social entrepreneurship in Korea in 2009 was relatively low by international standards (Kibler et al, 2018), which is not surprising given that social enterprise as an organizational form was uncommon in the country prior to 2007. Yet, today, social enterprise, along with other novel social economy organizations, have rapidly come to pervade and permeate nearly every industry in the country (Choi, 2016, 2018a, 2018b; Choi and Choi, 2019; Lee and Park, 2013; Lee and Young, 2017; Lim and Lee, 2016). Every sector, from the primary to tertiary and from the information technology to the cleaning sector, has witnessed the scaling of these social economy organizations (Lim and Lee, 2016; Korea Cooperatives, 2019b; Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2018, 2019a, 2019b). Moreover, these organizations have diverse organizational forms and business models, including models spanning labor- to capital-intensive forms of production and low- to high-skilled labor employment (Lim and Lee, 2016; Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2018, 2019a, 2019b; Park, 2008). It is further worth noting that certain social enterprises have been engaging in high-tech ventures that involve artificial intelligence, programming, or machine learning (e.g. deep learning). Social enterprises also range from local community-oriented social enterprises to social enterprises that target the domestic or even international market. This suggests that social enterprises in Korea are characterized by a degree of diversity, dynamism, and innovativeness.

The proliferation of these novel social economy organizations has thus sparked a national dialogue on social economy organizations as organizational forms and the efficacy of these relatively new organizational forms within the Korean context. For instance, social entrepreneurship is being discussed in a diverse array of Korean journals, such as environmental sociology, tourism, business and management, public administration, economics, agriculture, design, law, et cetera. Since 2004, Korean journals have published 566 articles about social entrepreneurship (Lee et al, 2018).

Given that social entrepreneurship was still a relatively muted notion as late as 2009, it can be surmised that Korea is not merely following international trends; that is, Korean civil society is not merely being reactive vis-à-vis international trends (Jang, 2017). It is indeed said that Korean civil society is relatively weak (Jang, 2017). The most likely catalyst that sparked nationwide interest in new types of social economy organizations, such as social enterprises and social cooperatives, is the Korean state in response to the domestic pressures of job creation and social service delivery (Jang, 2017; United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018). The National Assembly's SEPA of 2006 which came into effect in 2007 and mandates the MOEL with enforcing SEPA is likely the key inflection point. It is worth noting though that discussion on social enterprise as an organizational form appears to have become especially widespread following the wide-ranging amendments to SEPA in 2010.<sup>26</sup>

The enactment of SEPA thus represents a public sector intervention that stimulated, even ignited, interest in social enterprise in Korea and which makes the Korean case especially intriguing. As stated in SEPA, the rationale for the Act was motivated by two domestic pressures, namely: (1) job creation and (2) social service delivery. While it may be speculated that the entrustment of the MOEL as the relevant governing body for social enterprise promotion in Korea implies that job creation is the main domestic pressure that motivated SEPA, the two goals are not mutually exclusive. This is not to say that the government's SEPA model of social enterprise is the only model that exists in Korea, as antecedent and alternative models both exist (see Bidet et al, 2019). Rather it is that a public sector intervention sparked interest in social entrepreneurship in Korea, which has far-reaching implications.

This chapter explores the discourse surrounding social entrepreneurship in Korea so as to gain an understanding of its drivers and context, as well as the sentiments, be they positive or negative, that characterize discourse. This chapter, furthermore, seeks to map out the inter-organizational social enterprise support network associated with the public sector-led intervention. These two objectives serve to contextualize and illustrate the extent of the intervention and also affirm that large-scale public interest can be attributed to government intervention as a response

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<sup>26</sup> Although, for instance, the notion of 'social enterprise' was not previously absent from public discourse in Korea and is already discussed in 1969 in the *Kyunghyang Shinmun* ("68Yeon-do", 1969), state-led social entrepreneurship promotion serves as a definite key inflection point that accounts for the explosion in the number of social enterprises (Jang, 2017; Jeong, 2015; Kim, 2016).

to domestic pressures. In terms of the latter objective, it is particularly important to determine whether the intervention has remained a primarily public sector-led intervention or whether non-public sector actors have also come to play a leading, defining role.

The success of such an intervention is necessarily determined by how receptive society is to social enterprise as a new organizational form - in colloquial terms, the intervention can ultimately only be considered sustainable, and therefore successful, if society 'buys into' social entrepreneurship and assumes a leading role (i.e. a role that is not contingent or conditional upon continued subsidization or, at a minimum, wholly dependent on subsidies, public sector outsourcing, or preferential purchase agreements).

## **2. The Social Enterprise Promotion Act**

SEPA was initially proposed in the National Assembly by a member of the opposition conservative party and was later reformulated by the Ministry of Labor (now known as the MOEL) and the liberal ruling party. It emphasized the fostering and promoting of job creation through social enterprises, as well as promoting social enterprises in the social service sector (Bidet & Eum, 2011). At its genesis, SEPA therefore had bipartisan political support from both the dominant conservative and progressive political parties.

As Kim (2009) notes, poverty and unemployment were the catalysts for the creation of a governmental social enterprise support system, the formation of which took place within the context of increases in welfare expenditures and social services. The government envisioned social enterprises as credible and efficient service providers, which led to the enactment of SEPA. The public sector, as opposed to civil society or the private sector, can thus be attributed as the initial driving force for social enterprise promotion and propagation in Korea (Kim, 2009). Accordingly, the Korean government has employed various mechanisms to help social enterprises in their embryonic stage, with extended direct wage subsidies in fixed terms being a case in point. Kim (2009), reporting on the Korean government's social enterprise promotion efforts two years after SEPA came into effect, suggested that the government's role would eventually have to change from direct to indirect supporter and argued that the future of social enterprises in Korea would depend on supply-side

factors, including social entrepreneurs, strategic donors, and volunteers. Efforts by the government to diffuse a pro-social enterprise consciousness among the public and stimulate supply-side factors have manifested in the creation of ‘Social Enterprise Day’, as mandated by SEPA (Act No.10360, 08. Jun, 2010.), to be observed by both the state and local governments.

Perusing the 2006 iteration of SEPA and understanding the implications of the 2010 amendments to SEPA can help to understand the purpose of the public sector’s incubation and mobilization of social enterprise in Korea. Furthermore, it is also worthwhile to note that the MOEL, as opposed to the Ministry of Health and Welfare, was mandated with social enterprise promotion by SEPA, which could possibly have contributed to the types of social enterprise organizations that have been granted certification. Although speculative, it could be that more work integration social enterprises, or “job creation” social enterprises as referred to in Korea, have emerged as a consequence, though it may have been the original intention of the government to address welfare needs through job creation. This is consistent with the concept of ‘organizational imprinting’, which stresses that organizations are shaped by the environment within which they are founded (e.g. Johnson, 2007).

Article 1 (The Purpose) states: “The purpose of this Act is to contribute to the integration of society as well as to the enhancement of the quality of the people's life thereof, by means of expanding social services, which are not sufficiently provided in society, and creating jobs” (National Law Information Center, n.d.). Article 1 was amended in 2010, with “...through support for the establishment and operation of social enterprises and the promotion of social enterprises” (National Law Information Center, n.d.) being added to the latter sentence of the 2006 iteration. It is important to note here that SEPA has been amended three times<sup>27</sup>.

Public sector involvement in social enterprise promotion in Korea is delineated in Article 2 (Definitions) (5), which states that “The term ‘connected local government’ used in this Act refers to a local government which provides administrative and financial supports for a certain social enterprise with the aim to expand social service and create jobs for the sake of local residents.” In an amendment that followed and which was enforced in 2009, “connected local government” is changed to “associated

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<sup>27</sup> The associated acts being Act No.9685 on 21 May 2009, Act No.10360 on 8 June 2010, and Act No.11275 on 1 February 2012, yet the original act, Act No.8361, and Act No.10360 of 2010 are the most critical to understanding the purpose and mechanisms of social enterprise promotion in Korea.

local government”. In Article 3 (Functions and Responsibilities by Each Operating Entity) of the 2007 act, the importance of local government is once again established, with Article 3 (2) stating that “A local government shall draw up and carry out support measures for a social enterprise in consideration of local characteristics.” A principle for scaling up is also stated in the article, with Article 3 (3) stating that: “(3) A social enterprise shall make efforts to reinvest profits created by business activities in the maintenance and expansion of social enterprises.” Absent in the 2007 act, the 2010 act introduced the following “Article 5-2 (Establishment, etc. of City/Do Plans to Support Social Enterprises).” It is evident from examining the act in its various iterations that municipal governments are expected to play an important role in social enterprise promotion. It is also indicative that in Article 3 (2) and 3 (3), local government and social enterprise-led scaling up efforts follow each other ordinally, envisioning a cooperative relationship between municipal or provincial governments and social enterprises. Article 21 (Delegation and Entrustment of Authority), introduced by Act No. 11275 on 1 February 2012, further empowered and entrusted local government with social enterprise promotion, stating that “The Minister of Employment and Labor may partially delegate his/her authority under this Act to the heads of local governments or the heads of local labor and employment offices, as prescribed by Presidential Decree.” Article 20, introduced by the partial amendments found in Act No.10360 on 8 June 2010, saw the establishment of the Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency (KOSEA). The introduction of the article meant that the MOEL would henceforth entrust KOSEA with “promoting and fostering social enterprise.” Three important public sector actors would thus be involved in social enterprise promotion: namely the government at all levels, the MOEL, and the MOEL-affiliated KOSEA, although local government’s role, in addition to KOSEA, in social enterprise promotion is very much emphasized.

Yet, as alluded to in Article 3 (3), social enterprises would be expected to pursue their own scaling up efforts, with the government playing a secondary, supporting role. In Article 8 (Requirements and Procedures for Certification of Social Enterprises), certification as a government-certified social enterprise, which qualifies social enterprises for support mechanisms, is contingent upon having a functioning business model. Article 8 (5) states: “That the revenue generated through its business activities shall meet or exceed the standards prescribed by Presidential Decree.” Article 8 (5) thus clearly benefits for-profit organizations that would seek certification in order to

gain access to state support mechanisms, as described in Article 10 (Support for Business Management, etc.), Article 10-2 (Support, etc. for Education and Training), Article 11 (Subsidization of Facility Costs, etc.), Article 12 (Preferential Purchases by Public Institutions), Article 13 (Tax Reduction or Exemption and Subsidization of Social Insurance Premiums), Article 14 (Financial Support to Social Enterprises Providing Social Services), Article 15 (Limitations on Liability of Associated Enterprises), and Article 16 (Tax Reduction or Exemption for Associated Enterprises, et cetera.).

### **3. Data and Methods**

#### *3.1 Social Network Analysis*

In the first analysis, the types of organizations that have come to comprise the social enterprise support organization ecosystem in Korea following the enactment of SEPA are mapped out by means of descriptive network diagrams. Only organizations that self-identify as organizations that directly or indirectly support social enterprises were included, although social enterprises that themselves aim to primarily support other social enterprises were excluded. The purpose of the descriptive network diagrams is therefore to map out the organizations that support social entrepreneurship in Korea. All of the principal actors are included, and I also attempted to include all of their subsidiaries as well as affiliated secondary actors. It is important to note that I could not identify all support organizations nor was this my aim (i.e. abridged maps were produced), but that the maps that were produced do illustrate the main and diverse types of relationships that characterize the social enterprise support organization ecosystem and therefore fulfil the aim of capturing the dynamics of the network. I furthermore made an effort to contextualize this ecosystem within the broader social economy support organization ecosystem since there is significant overlap. Finally, it has to be mentioned that the maps produced are static and consistent for 2019 and do not attempt to capture change over time<sup>28</sup>.

In order to measure connectivity, R was used as a web crawling and scraping tool to extract web links from the webpages of known principal agents, such as the MOEL-affiliated KOSEA and the conglomerate SK Group's Happiness Foundation. It

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<sup>28</sup> Detailing change over time represents an interesting research avenue. However, it is beyond the scope of this dissertation.

was assumed that the existence of a web link of another actor or agent's website serves as proxy for connectivity; subsequently, all of the web links on the newly identified entities' webpages were again extracted and indexed in an iterative process. In order to check for robustness, the webpages of all identified actors and agents were reviewed manually to ensure the accuracy of the results obtained.

The data were imported into UCINET, commonly used for social network analyses, to create an adjacency matrix, with symmetric relationships assumed for all actors and agents. In reality, Korea's social enterprise ecosystem is likely defined by asymmetric relationships, though the purpose of the descriptive network diagrams is merely to partially illustrate the ecosystem, and for this purpose a symmetric adjacency matrix is adequate.

Only primary actors and agents and their subsidiaries as well as most secondary entities were included. The entire ecosystem was therefore not mapped, but rather an illustrative bounded ecosystem that could illustrate the network of the many different support organizations that comprise the social enterprise ecosystem in Korea, and which has emerged since SEPA was enacted. The support organizations and identities that were identified covered a wide range of entities both from the public and private spheres, including, amongst others, government ministries and their affiliates, local governments, universities, think tanks, donors and funders (including banks), conglomerates and other companies, online malls, accelerators, other social economy organizations, and civil society organizations; state, market, and civil society entities are all observed to constitute the network. A full list of included entities is provided in the Appendix 5. Regrettably, B Lab, which certifies B Corporations, had to be excluded given that it is an isolate, although its existence is noted; B Lab is only connected to other support organizations and institutions in Korea via its certified social enterprises, of which there are 13 as of November 2019.

By showing the variegated and vibrant social enterprise support ecosystem that has emerged following SEPA, the data highlight how the notion of 'social enterprise', as well as the organizational form and the support organizations and institutions that are pertinent to it, has diffused. Moreover, it shows how the ecosystem, as a whole, has scaled up to evolve into a very diverse one populated by actors and agents from both the public and private sectors and defined by a multitude of clusters. The data suggest that the social enterprise ecosystem in Korea is not only defined by state actors - and therefore does not represent an effort by the government

to eschew its social welfare obligations - but rather that different communities of agents and actors have become involved in the discussion and discourse on social change and, specifically, how market (i.e. profit) and social motives can be reconciled and configured within the organizational context for the betterment of society.

### *3.2. Topic Modeling*

In the second and third analyses, social enterprise as it appears in public discourse is examined from the period 2000 to 2019, so as to determine the key themes and issues that characterize the discourse on social enterprise and whether this discourse is largely positive or negative. Social enterprise has received a great deal of interest since the enactment of SEPA, and thus it can be determined with certainty what characterizes social enterprises as organizations in the Korean context and in what sort of environment they operate. Analyzing word frequency and clusters in different spheres reveals both trends and opinions regarding the performance, success, and sustainability of social enterprise, as well as prospects of these organizations, the issues they have responded to, and whether they have been undergoing organizational change. A sentiment analysis is incorporated so as to provide a more nuanced understanding of the word frequency and cluster analysis and to determine if social enterprise is perceived in largely positive or negative terms. NVivo and R's MonkeyLearn package text analysis were used.

### *3.3 Data*

The data for the first analysis, a social network analysis, were obtained through R-based web crawling and scraping from web pages through an iterative, snowball process. This process was ended once a sufficient number of organizations were identified to comprehensively illustrate the characteristics and features of Korea's social enterprise promotion ecosystem.

The data for the second analysis, the word frequency analysis, can be divided into the following three broad categories. First, the Korean e-resource DBpia was used to download 496 academic journal articles from 127 academic journals; the first category is therefore academic in nature. Second, 1,858 articles were downloaded from eight newspapers and one news agency with national circulation; the second

category is therefore journalistic in nature. Third, 96 reports and magazine articles were obtained from public sector sources, think tanks, and private magazines; the third category is classified as ‘miscellaneous’. The time period from 2000 to 2019 was used as the search parameter. In selecting data sources (i.e. articles and reports), only Korean language sources that examine or report on social enterprise in the Korean context were included for analysis.<sup>29</sup>

### *3.4 Methods*

A social network analysis approach was utilized to explain the characteristics of the social enterprise support organization network. A symmetric adjacency matrix was constructed that displays connectivity (i.e. edges) between organizations. Tichet et al (1979: 507) write that:

“Organizations can be viewed as social groupings with relatively stable patterns of interaction over time... the social network approach views organizations in society as a system of objects (e.g. people, groups, organizations) joined by a variety of relationships. Not all pairs of objects are directly joined, and some are joined by multiple relationships. Network analysis is concerned with the structure and patterning of these relationships and seeks to identify both their causes and consequences... At the interorganizational level, the web of direct and indirect relationships between organizations could be made more explicit by a network approach.”

Similarly, the first analysis represents a social network analysis at the interorganizational level. As shown by Padgett and Ansell (1993) in their well-known study on Florentine families and the rise of the Medici, the purpose of a social network analysis is to measure influence by measuring degree of centrality through the measurement of ties, or ‘edges’. In this analysis, organizations are represented by nodes. A higher number of connections implies greater influence, or ‘degree centrality’. Communities are detected, some with overlapping membership, by grouping nodes based on their distance and relation with other nodes (e.g. the

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<sup>29</sup> A detailed description is provided in Appendix 6.

existence of an edge with another node or the number of edges a node possesses) (Iliho, 2019).

A topic modeling approach is used for the second and third analyses to explore discourse on social enterprise. The second analysis takes the form of a word frequency analysis and the third a sentiment analysis.

In the second analysis, the software program Nvivo is used to reveal the frequency of words related to social enterprise, so as to list frequently occurring words or concepts. Lee et al (2018) similarly conducted a 'word frequency' analysis in their study on social enterprise research trends in Korean journals. It is assumed that frequency equals prominence. 'Word Frequency' queries were run for all three of the categories mentioned in section 3.1 to identify important themes. A summation of the three categories was subsequently conducted. In terms of weighting, journal articles account for approximately 11,754 pages, whereas the 'miscellaneous' category accounts for 5,187 pages and the 'journalistic' category for anywhere between 1,858 to 3,716 pages; this large range in the lattermost category is due to unrelated text comprising large parts of online newspaper articles. The broad scope of the data makes this representation of discourse on social enterprise in Korea comprehensive in the sense that multiple sources are included from a broad range of sectors and authors. In order to ensure the validity of the term frequency analysis, irrelevant words were excluded. It has to be noted here that journal articles comprise the vast majority of the pages analyzed. The analysis revealed 167 frequently occurring words that are directly pertinent to social enterprise in Korea.

With reference to the second analysis, it is important to note here that certain similar words as well as synonyms were assigned to the same category, which is indicated where it is the case; both 'society' and 'social' were included into a single 'term' category as well as 'economy' and 'economic', given their similarity. When calculating the number of times 'social' is referred to, it was necessary to determine the total number of times both 'social' and 'enterprise' appear separately and then deduct the count of the latter from the former; ordinarily 'social enterprise' is a single word in Korean, yet this is not a set rule and at times the two words are separated. The word 'enterprise' therefore had to be disregarded for the purposes of this analysis. Given that discourse with reference to 'social enterprise' is being surveyed, it was necessary to omit all instances of 'social enterprise' when tallying frequency. The dataset for the second analysis can be found in Appendix 6.

In the third analysis, R's text analysis package MonkeyLearn is used to conduct a sentiment analysis, using a data mining approach, largely for the purpose of assessing whether social enterprise is perceived positively or negatively in Korea. On sentiment analysis as a text analysis approach, Liu and Zhang (2012: 415) concisely state that "Sentiment analysis or opinion mining is the computational study of people's opinions, appraisals, attitudes, and emotions toward entities, individuals, issues, events, topics and their attributes," which captures both the methodology and purpose. For this analysis 89 representative articles were selected from eight Korean newspapers, from across the political spectrum, with national circulation. Separate analyses were conducted based on three ideological categories, namely conservative, neutral (i.e. centrist), and progressive, as well as a single, collective holistic analysis. Only newspaper articles were taken into consideration for the sentiment analysis given that academic journal articles are expected to abide by academic neutrality and, likewise, government and think tank reports are expected to have an impartial tone. Only newspaper article titles were analyzed.

This sentiment analysis was a preliminary attempt to gauge public sentiment of social enterprises, though in conducting the sentiment analysis only the titles of newspaper articles were taken into consideration. This has implications for the finding of Kibler et al (2018) that, according to the 2009 Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, social entrepreneurship was generally perceived of in Korea as carrying little legitimacy. The dataset for the second analysis can be found in Appendix 7.

Similarly, Lee (2015b) finds that, in Korea, the quality of the goods and services provided by social enterprises is commonly seen as inferior and that social enterprises in Korea are still confronted by prejudices and stereotypes. In another domestic study on recognition and awareness of social enterprises, the Research Institute for Social Enterprise (RISE) (2008) found that 43.8 percent of 1,509 respondents had heard of the term 'social enterprise', whereas a mere 16.5 percent knew what social enterprises do. In its broadest sense and including all respondents who have heard of the term, the highest levels of recognition could be found among people in their 30s and 40s, those with a tertiary education, and in Gwangju Metropolitan City and Jeolla and Gangwon provinces. If awareness is measured at its strictest (i.e. by measuring only those who knew what social enterprise do), then higher levels of awareness were shown among men, people in their 30s and 40s, those with a tertiary education, and resident of Gwangju Metropolitan City, Busan

Metropolitan City, and Jeolla and Gyeongnam provinces. In a follow-up study, RISE (2009) found that 50 percent of 1,506 respondents had heard of the term ‘social enterprise’, with 17.1 percent having an understanding of the profit and social motives of social enterprises as hybrid organizations. Once again, those in their 30s and 40s had the highest levels of recognition, although, in terms of geographic distribution, the areas of highest awareness were now, ordinally ordered, Daejeon Metropolitan City and the surrounding Chungcheong provinces, Gangwon province, Incheon Metropolitan City and Gyeonggi province, and Seoul. Gwangju Metropolitan City and Jeolla province no longer had high levels of awareness relative to other geographic areas. Finally, men in their 40s with a tertiary education and who were residing in Daejeon Metropolitan City or the surrounding Chungcheong provinces showed the highest awareness. This implies that there is a geographic element to social enterprise in Korea. RISE has not conducted any further demographic studies on social enterprise awareness.

## **4. Results**

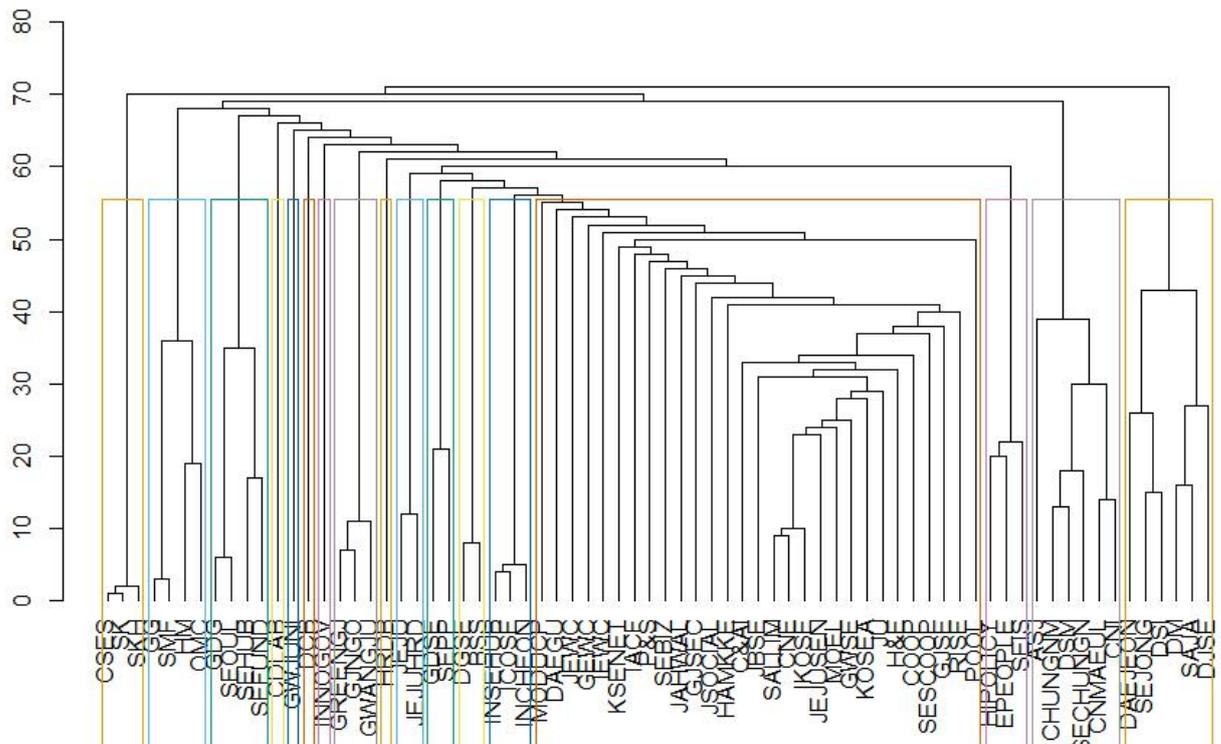
### *4.1 Social Network Analysis*

The results of the social network analysis approach adapted to create descriptive network diagrams are reported in Figures 2.1 to 2.12. Figures 2.1 to 2.2 show the sheer scale of even a bounded ecosystem mapping, which illustrates the vibrant social enterprise ecosystem that exists in Korea. All acronyms can be found in the Appendix 5, with brief sectoral descriptions of each organization and institution. Both Figure 2.1 and 2.2 show the centrality of KOSEA, with the MOEL also having a high degree of centrality but less so than KOSEA. It is furthermore apparent that even though KOSEA has a high degree of centrality, there is a very large number of organizational players in the social enterprise promotion ecosystem, many of which are from the private sector.



membership. This implies that since SEPA was enacted various social enterprise promotion communities have emerged and that, it follows, the social enterprise ecosystem has been maturing during the public sector-led incubation process. It is important to note that public sector entities are not the center of all of the clusters. This suggests that social entrepreneurship has diffused into the public consciousness, although that should not be taken as to imply that the public at large has embraced social entrepreneurship. Nevertheless, it is clear that, following the 2011 reform of SEPA, a vast, complex social enterprise ecosystem has emerged, which stands in stark contrast with the unipolar system of 2007, or even the scant recognition garnered by social entrepreneurship in 2009, as revealed by the GEM.

Figure 2.3: Social Enterprise Promotion Ecosystem Clusters

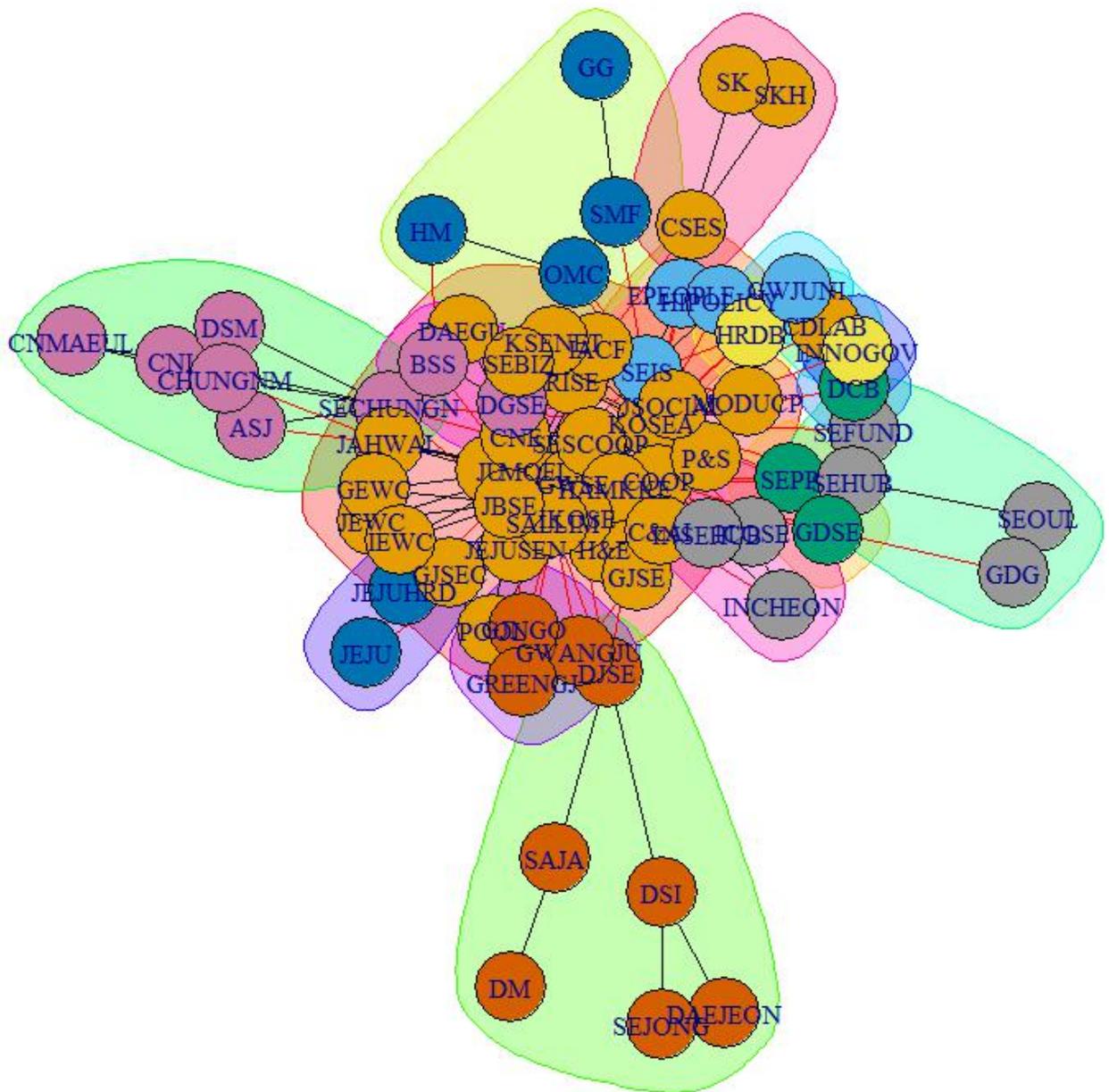


Figures 2.4, 2.5, and 2.6 further visualize the results shown in Figure 2.3. It is important to note that different parameters are used for these visualizations. In Figure 2.4, only communities are shown, whereas in Figure 2.5 and 2.6 membership is also shown. Figure 2.5 and 2.6 only differ in terms of how strictly membership contra community is defined. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this chapter this is immaterial. The main purpose of highlighting the existence of a range of communities is to highlight that following the public sector intervention in 2007 to promote social



Figure 2.5: Social Enterprise Promotion Ecosystem Communities and Their Members

(1)







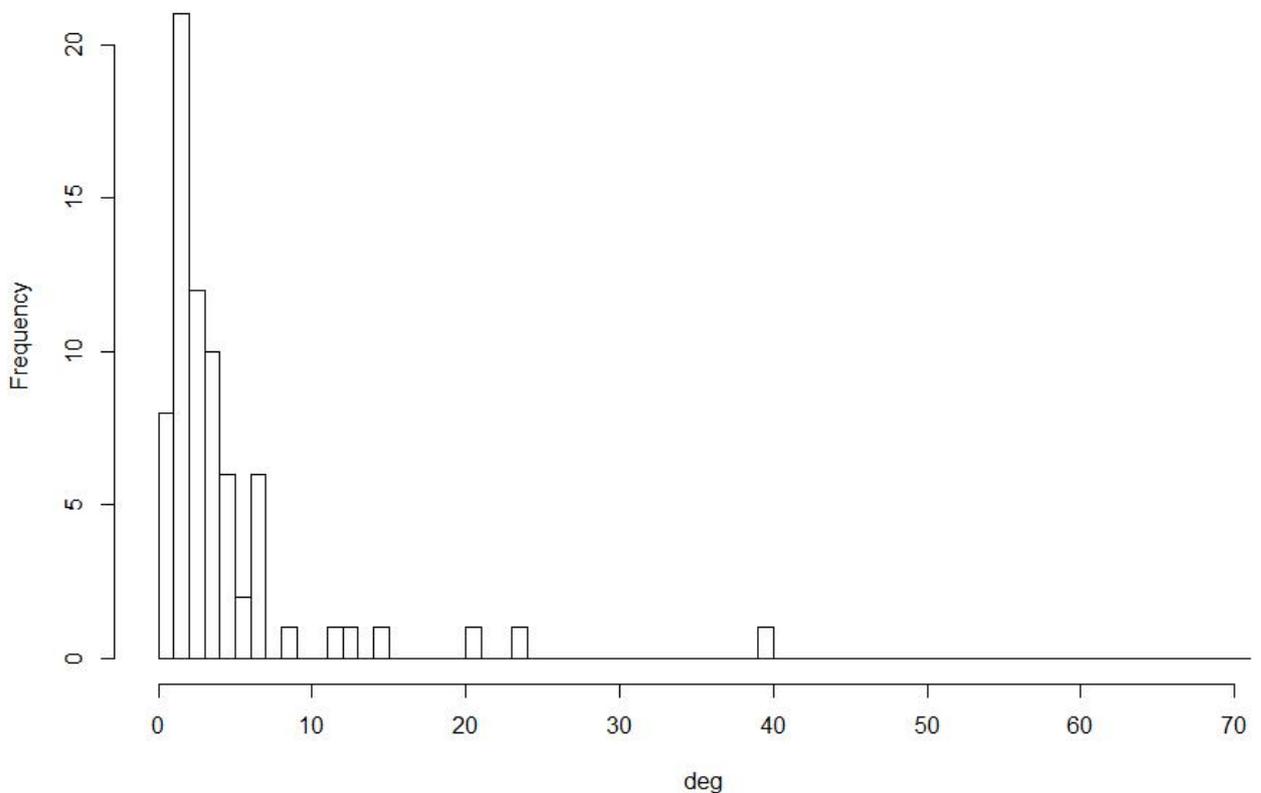
Second, in terms of degree centrality - a measure of the centrality (i.e. importance) of actors and agents in a network - the network is characterized by a few very important actors and agents. Importance here is defined as connectedness in the sense of actors or agents who can quickly and easily connect with other members that populate the network. Given this definition of ‘importance’ it is to be expected that KOSEA, which has a degree centrality value of 40, would be the most important actor as measured by connectedness. However, this does not imply that the vitality of the network itself is entirely predicated upon KOSEA. A case in point is the SK Happiness Foundation (SKH), which has a degree centrality value of 2 and runs social entrepreneurship promotion efforts that are not predicated upon KOSEA in any way. However, it is apparent that the public sector’s intervention and the agents of it are very central to the wider network.

Table 2.1: Degree Centrality of Network Members

KOSEA	MOEL	SEIS	COOP	SEPP	EPEOPLE	HIPOLICY	HRDB	OMC	JU
40	24	9	12	3	3	3	2	4	6
GWSE	RISE	SESCOOP	DJSE	H&E	SECHUNGN	SEFUND	HAMKKE	CDLAB	IACF
5	7	4	6	4	7	2	5	1	2
WJUNI	JEJUSEN	DCB	MODUCP	INNOGOV	POOL	SAJA	DSI	DAEJEON	SEJONG
1	7	1	3	1	3	2	3	1	1
DM	CNI	DSM	ASJ	JAHWAL	CNMAEUL	CHUNGNM	KSENET	JEJUHRD	JEJU
1	2	2	2	5	2	4	2	3	2
GJSEC	GJSE	GWANGJU	IKOSE	CNE	DAEGU	BSS	DGSE	GJNGO	SALLIM
2	4	4	13	7	3	3	7	4	21
SEHUB	SEOUL	GREENGJ	P&S	C&AI	INCHEON	ICOSE	INSEHUB	JBSE	SEBIZ
5	2	3	2	7	3	5	4	15	2
JEWC	GEWC	IEWC	SMF	GG	HM	GDSE	GDG	JSOCIAL	SKH
2	2	2	3	1	2	5	2	4	2
SK	CSES								
2	4								

Figure 2.8 illustrates another important finding reported in Table 2.1, namely that most of the nodes (i.e. actors) have a relatively low node degree and only a few actors are well-connected to the wider network (i.e. most nodes have a low number of edges). The edge density of the network, defined as the number of connections a node has over the total number of possible connections, is therefore relatively low at 0.06729264.

Figure 2.8: Node Degree Histogram of Social Enterprise Promotion Ecosystem Actors



The bounded network shown is thus characterized by a high degree of centralization (0.4960876 - 0.5618465) and a low degree of transitivity (0.2022293), that is, a few actors are very important to the network whereas the majority are not. This is to be expected though, given that the intervention arose from the public sector and its purpose has been to incubate a social enterprise ecosystem. Results are visualized in Figures 2.9 to 2.12. Figure 2.9 illustrates degree centrality in the network; Figure 2.10 illustrates logged degree centrality; and Figure 2.11 displays the names of the most central actors only, while Figure 2.12 highlights them.

It is important to note here that JBSE (Jeonbuk Social Economy Forum) is only central due to the way in which the network was coded and this is likely not the case in reality. The network was coded so as to illustrate the multifarious multi-sectoral communities that exist, with the intention of only capturing a representative sample, and not to comprehensively display or capture all of them. The same could be true for SALLIM (Gwangju Social Economy Support Center). Interestingly, both of these possible aberrations are geographic entities; Gwangju is a major metropolitan city and Jeonbuk is a province. This might hint at a strong geographic element to social entrepreneurship promotion in Korea; geographic

differences almost certainly exist, though these findings suggest that social entrepreneurship promotion has been taking place more proactively in certain regions than others.

The reason for the centrality of KOSEA has been discussed, and the centrality of the MOEL is also unsurprising given that KOSEA is affiliated to the MOEL. Furthermore, the centrality of COOP (Korea Cooperatives), which is an affiliate of KOSEA, links social enterprise promotion to social cooperative promotion. A significant finding is that IKOSE (Korea Central Council of Social Enterprise), a private sector actor, is central to the network. Public-private sector collaboration and engagement as a driver of the development of the network is therefore apparent.

Figure 2.9: Social Enterprise Support Network Actor Degree Centrality

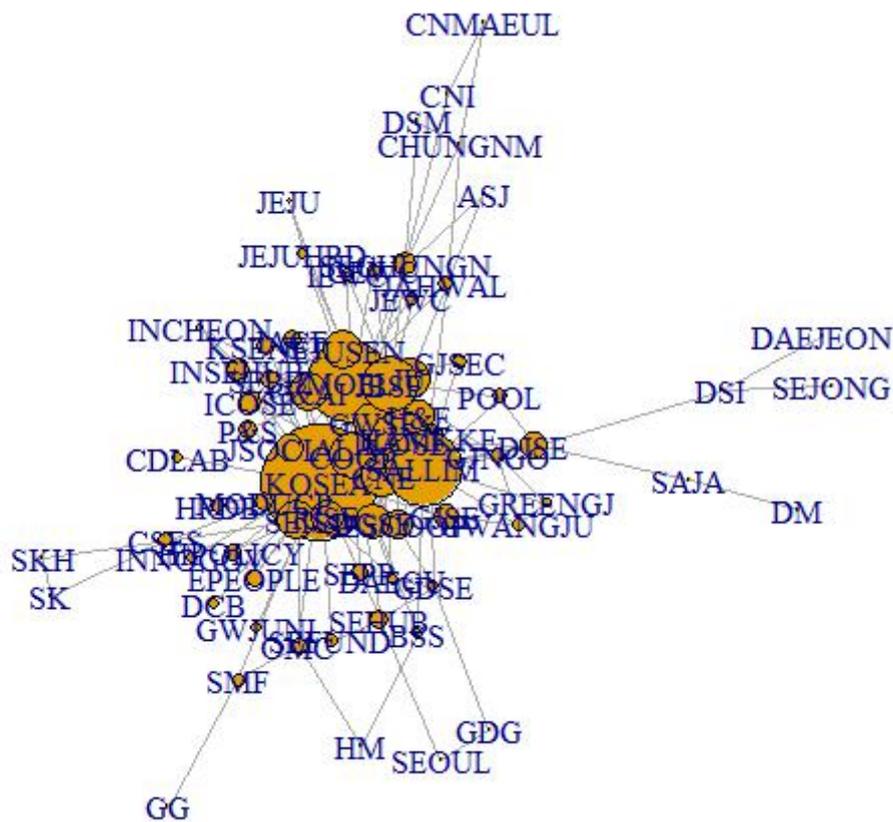
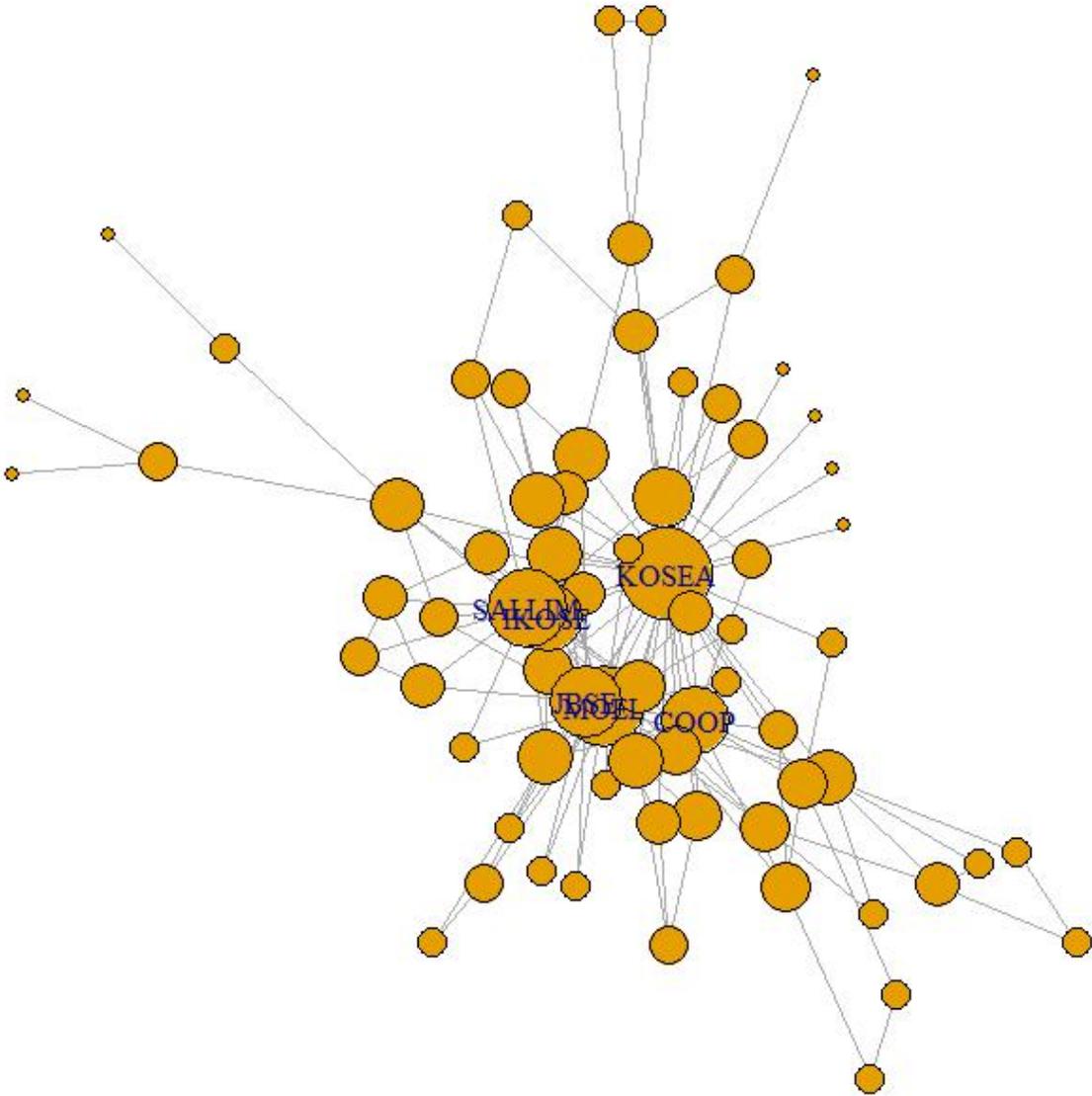




Figure 2.11: Social Enterprise Support Network's Central Nodes (1)





percentage. Figure 2.14 visualizes these results with five color-coded tiers ranging from least to most frequently occurring. Tier five is represented by elf green (i.e. light green), tier four by tawny (i.e. orange-brown), tier three by chetwode blue (i.e. light blue), tier two by deep cerise (i.e. reddish pink), and tier one by dim gray (i.e. dark gray). Notably, ‘society’ and ‘social’ appear, in combination, more than twice as often as ‘economy’ and ‘economic’ are fused, and it is the only collective term found in the first tier. In other words, ‘social enterprise’ is often discussed with reference to Korean society, as well as its societal impact. This discourse regarding either social enterprise’s impact on society or the social elements of social enterprise (e.g. its social motive) are particularly prominent when social enterprise is discussed. Nevertheless, ‘economy’ and ‘economic’ appear very frequently in combination as well as the word ‘support’; both of which are tier two words. The implication is that the economy is a critical element of the narrative centering on the economic role to be played by social enterprises in Korea’s economy as well as the economic rationale for promoting social enterprise; this latter implication directly relates to the government’s effort to ‘support’ social enterprises. With regard to the third tier, the words ‘outcome/performance’, ‘job(s)/work’, and ‘area’ appear. This finding indicates that the impact (i.e. outcome) as well as performance of social enterprises is frequently discussed, yet whether this is because their impact has been unclear or either positive or negative cannot be determined from this finding alone. The frequent appearance of ‘job(s)/work’ in discussions surrounding social enterprise is to be expected given that social enterprises have been mandated with creating jobs, which also ties in with the economic motive of social enterprises as well as their social-moral duty with reference to the tier one jointly tallied words. The finding that ‘area’ is a tier three word implies that social enterprise in Korea has a geographic element to it. In terms of tier four words, ‘government’, ‘value(s)’, ‘vulnerable social group’, ‘organization’, ‘business’, ‘certification’, ‘social service’, and ‘education’ appear. It is evident that government is a crucial actor in the social enterprise ecosystem and that this intervention by the government is linked to the demands of vulnerable social groups, such as the long-term unemployed, the disabled, career-interrupted women, the elderly, et cetera. The appearance of ‘certification’ in the same tier, national social enterprises in Korea being certified by the government, corroborates this finding. Yet, the appearance of ‘social service’ in a tier below ‘job(s)/work’ implies that social enterprises are more closely associated with job creation than delivering social

services. ‘Value(s)’ belonging to the same tier hints at the discussion regarding both the social and economic value contributed by social enterprises (i.e. their impact) as well as the values of social enterprises themselves, which also relates to frequent discussion on social enterprise as an organization. This latter finding is not surprising given that ‘social enterprise’ is a relatively new form of organization in Korea, and understanding the value as well as values of social enterprise is contingent upon such discussion. Finally, that ‘education’ appears in the same tier is surprising, yet this could possibly be due to the fact that the appearance of social enterprise in Korea and the rapid proliferation of this form of organization is premised upon a public sector intervention that has had an educative element. In terms of tier 5, perhaps the most surprising finding is that the ‘Ministry of Employment and Labor’ appears more frequently than the ‘Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency’, even though the latter was mandated by the MOEL with promoting social enterprise. The full list of 166 words and terms are reported in Table 2.2. Furthermore, although in the fifth tier, ‘(local/regional) community’ is a borderline case which narrowly missed the parameters to be included in tier four; nevertheless, this finding once again highlights the importance of geography in analyzing social enterprise in Korea, specifically with reference to the local community or civil society. Another interesting observation is that ‘quality’ is the 40th most frequent word, which implies that discourse on the quality of jobs provided by social enterprises or the goods or services rendered by them is commonplace. Other interesting findings include ‘female’ as the 38th most frequent word, ‘labor costs’ as 45th most frequent, ‘cooperative’ as in the organizational form as the 52nd most frequent word, ‘technology’ as the 58th most frequent word, ‘nonprofit’ as the 68th most frequent word, ‘community’ as the 81st most frequent word, and ‘local government’ as the 150th most frequent term. ‘Labor costs’ is an interesting finding given that one of the incentives for seeking certification is the subsidization of labor costs, although labor costs can only be subsidized for up to five years (Choi and Kim, 2014).

Figure 2.13: A term frequency table by descending order of the top fifty most frequently appearing Korean words with reference to social enterprise in Korea

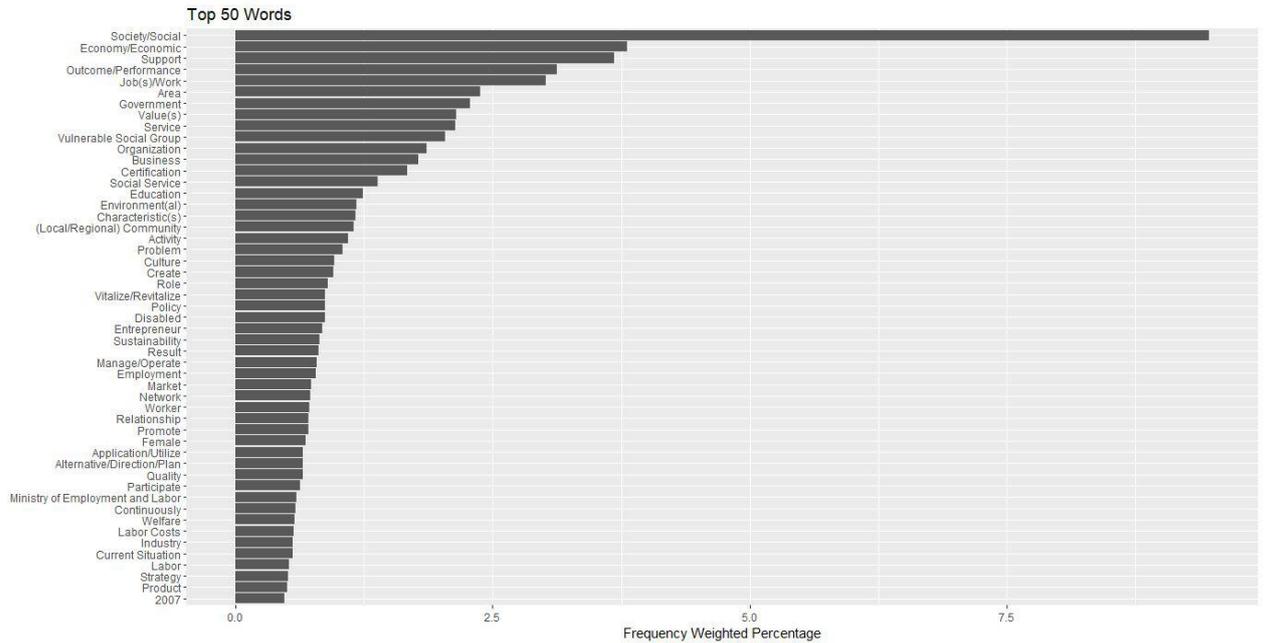


Figure 2.14: A word cloud composed of the 166 most frequently occurring words and terms with reference to social enterprise in Korea

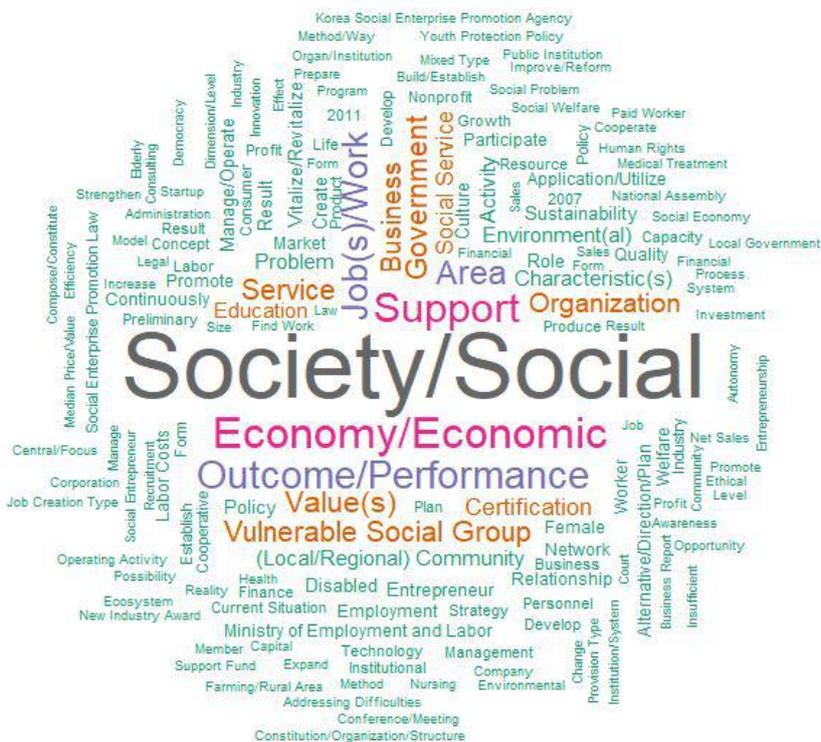


Table 2.2: A list of the 166 most frequently occurring words, terms, and names with reference to social enterprise in Korea, with weighted percentage (as a % of 166 listed words)

#	Word	English Translation	Count	Weighted Percentage (%)
1	사회(적)	Society/Social	32888	9.4716
2	경제(적)	Economy/Economic	13226	3.809
3	지원	Support	12790	3.6835
4	성과	Outcome/Performance	10848	3.1242
5	일(자리)	Job(s)/Work	10478	3.0176
6	지역	Area	8267	2.3809
7	정부	Government	7924	2.2821
8	가치	Value(s)	7462	2.149
9	서비스	Service	7408	2.1335
10	취약계층	Vulnerable Social Group	7086	2.0407
11	조직	Organization	6466	1.8622
12	사업	Business	6165	1.7755
13	인증	Certification	5806	1.6721
14	사회서비스	Social Service	4805	1.3838
15	교육	Education	4287	1.2346
16	환경	Environment(al)	4098	1.1802
17	특성	Characteristic(s)	4063	1.1701
18	지역사회	(Local/Regional) Community	3979	1.1459
19	활동	Activity	3802	1.095
20	문제	Problem	3610	1.0397
21	문화	Culture	3330	0.959
22	창출	Create	3315	0.9547
23	역할	Role	3105	0.8942
24	활성화	Vitalize/Revitalize	3038	0.8749
25	정책	Policy	3030	0.8726
26	장애인	Disabled	3022	0.8703
27	기업가	Entrepreneur	2922	0.8415
28	지속가능성	Sustainability	2823	0.813
29	결과	Result	2804	0.8075
30	운영	Manage/Operate	2754	0.7931
31	고용	Employment	2715	0.7819
32	시장	Market	2561	0.7376
33	네트워크	Network	2514	0.724
34	근로자	Worker	2496	0.7188
35	관계	Relationship	2472	0.7119
36	육성	Promote	2462	0.709
37	여성	Female	2357	0.6788
38	활용	Application/Utilize	2275	0.6552

39	방안	Alternative/Direction/Plan	2268	0.6532
40	질	Quality	2267	0.6529
41	참여	Participate	2183	0.6287
42	(고용)노동부	Ministry of Employment and Labor	2047	0.5895
43	지속적인	Continuously	2027	0.5838
44	복지	Welfare	2006	0.5777
45	인건비	Labor Costs	1966	0.5662
46	산업	Industry	1944	0.5599
47	현황	Current Situation	1936	0.5576
48	노동	Labor	1809	0.521
49	전략(적)	Strategy	1780	0.5126
50	제품	Product	1729	0.4979
51	2007 년	2007	1654	0.4763
52	협동조합	Cooperative	1654	0.4763
53	자원	Resource	1652	0.4758
54	예비	Preliminary	1559	0.449
55	발전	Develop	1545	0.445
56	개념	Concept	1523	0.4386
57	사회적기업육성법	Social Enterprise Promotion Law	1517	0.4369
58	기술	Technology	1472	0.4239
59	금융	Finance	1447	0.4167
60	경영	Management	1433	0.4127
61	성장	Growth	1430	0.4118
62	인사	Personnel	1419	0.4087
63	개발	Develop	1388	0.3997
64	2011 년	2011	1369	0.3943
65	기획	Plan	1358	0.3911
66	제도적	Institutional	1357	0.3908
67	수익	Profit	1351	0.3891
68	비영리	Nonprofit	1347	0.3879
69	비즈니스	Business	1338	0.3853
70	생산	Produce	1327	0.3822
71	소비자	Consumer	1320	0.3802
72	삶	Life	1315	0.3787
73	역량	Capacity	1310	0.3773
74	결과를	Result	1307	0.3764
75	유형	Form	1275	0.3672
76	설립	Establish	1268	0.3652
77	정책적	Policy	1206	0.3473
78	사회적기업가	Social Entrepreneur	1147	0.3303
79	인식	Awareness	1134	0.3266
80	공동체	Community	1123	0.3234
81	매출액	Net Sales	1112	0.3203
82	사회적경제	Social Economy	1081	0.3113

83	창업	Startup	1043	0.3004
84	법적	Legal	1035	0.2981
85	취업	Find Work	1032	0.2972
86	투자	Investment	1018	0.2932
87	사회복지	Social Welfare	979	0.2819
88	국회	National Assembly	975	0.2808
89	실제	Reality	972	0.2799
90	결과	Result	970	0.2794
91	판매	Sales	965	0.2779
92	인권	Human Rights	963	0.2773
93	관리	Manage	936	0.2696
94	사업보고서	Business Report	935	0.2693
95	행정	Administration	931	0.2681
96	프로그램	Program	910	0.2621
97	자본	Capital	906	0.2609
98	법원	Court	902	0.2598
99	재계	System	902	0.2598
100	법	Law	900	0.2592
101	사회문제	Social Problem	870	0.2506
102	확대	Expand	869	0.2503
103	재무적	Financial	867	0.2497
104	구축	Build/Establish	857	0.2468
105	혁신	Innovation	836	0.2408
106	혼합형	Mixed Type	824	0.2373
107	방법	Method	809	0.233
108	제도	Institution/System	808	0.2327
109	자치	Autonomy	804	0.2315
110	차원	Dimension/Level	803	0.2313
111	고충처리	Addressing Difficulties	792	0.2281
112	기관	Organ/Institution	792	0.2281
113	간병	Nursing	786	0.2264
114	이익	Profit	785	0.2261
115	민주주의	Democracy	773	0.2226
116	모델	Model	771	0.222
117	효과	Effect	771	0.222
118	청소년보호정책	Youth Protection Policy	768	0.2212
119	영업활동을	Operating Activity	763	0.2197
120	가능성	Possibility	762	0.2195
121	직장	Job	751	0.2163
122	환경적	Environmental	750	0.216
123	회사	Company	739	0.2128
124	대비	Prepare	738	0.2125
125	기회	Opportunity	735	0.2117
126	의료	Medical Treatment	735	0.2117

127	변화	Change	733	0.2111
128	증가	Increase	733	0.2111
129	컨설팅	Consulting	732	0.2108
130	한국사회적기업진흥원	Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency	728	0.2097
131	기업가정신	Entrepreneurship	726	0.2091
132	제공형	Provision Type	721	0.2076
133	윤리적	Ethical	711	0.2048
134	협력	Cooperate	711	0.2048
135	고령자	Elderly	698	0.201
136	보건	Health	692	0.1993
137	개선	Improve/Reform	688	0.1981
138	농촌	Farming/Rural Area	685	0.1973
139	방식	Method/Way	683	0.1967
140	수준의	Level	682	0.1964
141	강화	Strengthen	678	0.1953
142	재정적	Financial	673	0.1938
143	업종	Industry	671	0.1932
144	회의	Conference/Meeting	659	0.1898
145	홍보	Promote	656	0.1889
146	효율성	Efficiency	656	0.1889
147	과정	Process	650	0.1872
148	지자체	Local Government	650	0.1872
149	신산업상	New Industry Award	649	0.1869
150	구성	Compose/Constitute	641	0.1846
151	일자리제공형	Job Creation Type	638	0.1837
152	모형	Form	636	0.1832
153	채용	Recruitment	634	0.1826
154	중위값	Median Price/Value	630	0.1814
155	법인	Corporation	620	0.1786
156	구조	Constitution/Organization/Structure	617	0.1777
157	구성원	Member	606	0.1745
158	중심	Central/Focus	606	0.1745
159	공공기관	Public Institution	604	0.1739
160	부족한	Insufficient	600	0.1728
161	생태계	Ecosystem	598	0.1722
162	형태	Form	598	0.1722
163	지원금	Support Fund	591	0.1702
164	매출	Sales	588	0.1693
165	유급근로자	Paid Worker	588	0.1693
166	규모	Size	582	0.1676

It is apparent that in Korea the government has been playing an active role in the promotion and mobilization of social enterprises for the achievement of various

welfare objectives, the most important of which is the creation of jobs. Furthermore, social enterprise in Korea appears to have a strong profit-oriented motive given its frequent association with business terms, as can be seen in Table 2.2. This suggests that, for government-certified social enterprises in Korea, the profit motive is as pronounced as the social motive, which is consistent with the finding that most certified social enterprises were formerly for-profit businesses as opposed to nonprofits with reference to Seoul (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018).

Importantly, in order to gain a measure of understanding regarding the success of this intervention (i.e. outcome/performance), it is important to conduct a sentiment analysis. This analysis constitutes the next step of this progressive analysis on the impact of the Korean government’s intervention via the MOEL.

#### 4.3 Sentiment Analysis

The results of the third analysis, the sentiment analysis, are reported in Figure 2.15 and 2.16. Figure 3 indicates that in general most articles on social enterprise have a neutral tone (66.3 percent) and that there are more articles with a positive tone (23.6 percent) than a negative one (10.1 percent).

Figure 2.15: Sentiment Analysis Results for All Newspapers, Regardless of Political Orientation

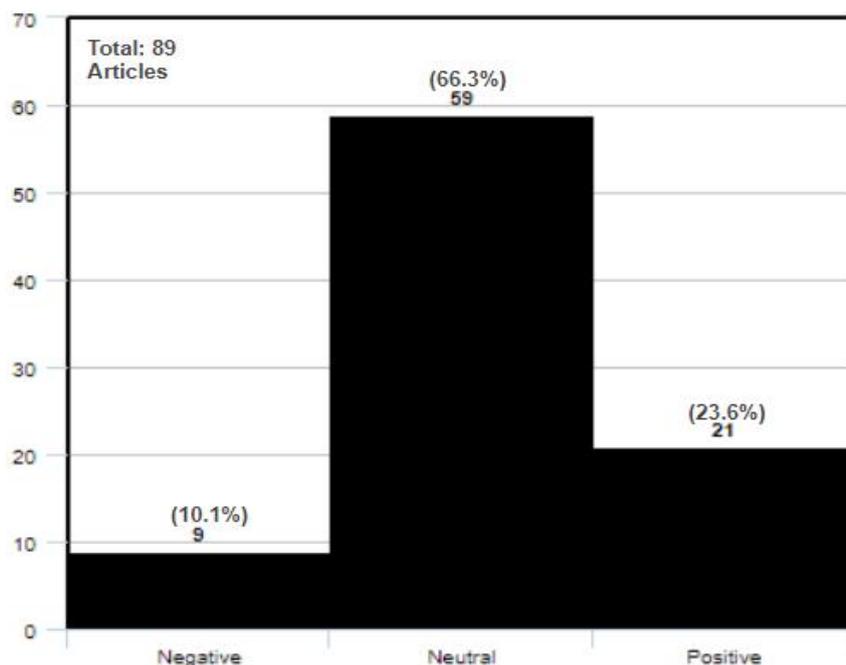
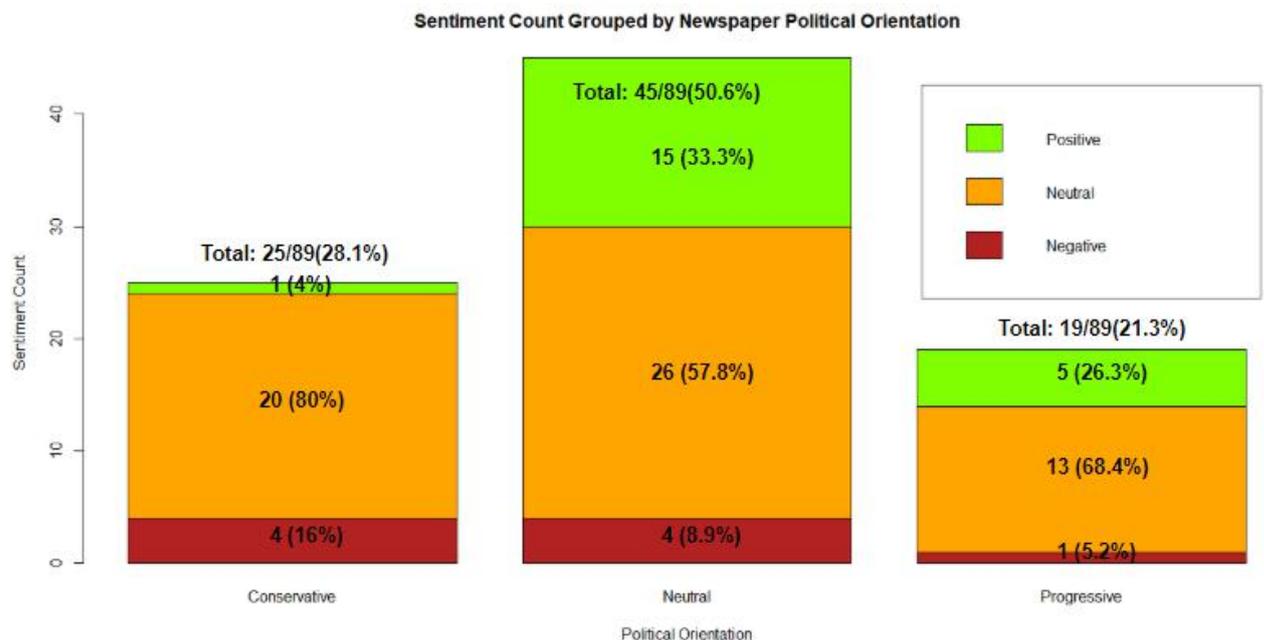


Figure 2.15 represents a more fine-grained analysis by political orientation. Conservative newspapers are shown to be the most critical of social enterprise, although only 16 percent of the selected articles were critical. By contrast, 80 percent of articles on social enterprise that appeared in conservative newspapers had a neutral tone. Conversely, among the articles analyzed that appeared in progressive newspapers, only one article headline was found with a negative tone; 26.3 percent of article headlines had a positive tone and 68.4 percent had a neutral tone. The greatest proportion of headlines with a positive tone were found in centrist newspapers (33.3 percent) and approximately 8.9 percent of headlines in centrist newspapers had a negative tone. The results shown in Figure 2.16 reveal that headlines about social enterprise primarily had a neutral tone in newspapers throughout the political spectrum, which suggests that social enterprise is not a politically polarized topic in Korea. Although speculative, the findings imply that Koreans are still largely sceptical, although not critical, about social enterprise given that the majority of headlines had a neutral tone. A surprising finding is that the number of headlines with a positive tone exceeds that for those with a negative tone, with the exception of the ‘conservative’ category although the ‘conservative’ category does not express an overall disapproving tone with regard to social enterprise. Thus, at its polar ends, public sentiment as an aggregate of all political orientations is more in favor of social enterprise than opposed to it.

**Figure 2.16: Sentiment Analysis Results by Political Orientation**



Although the results are intriguing, this analysis is confronted by a number of limitations. First, given its purpose as a preliminary, exploratory analysis, only 89 newspaper articles were chosen arbitrarily based on perceived suitability (i.e. a representative sample was sought) and, furthermore, only the headlines of those articles were analyzed. Secondly, given that Korean is a high-context language, any sentiment analysis of Korean language sources will by default have lower accuracy than an analysis of low-context language sources, which may introduce a bias towards neutrality. Thirdly, a fully developed standard Korean dictionary for sentiment analyses is still being developed. These limitations, especially as they relate to accuracy, do at times result in dubious classifications. For instance, in the data reported in Appendix 7 a headline reads “Preliminary Social Enterprise Extramail Communications, Joining the United Nations Global Compact,” which appears in a conservative newspaper, is classified as having a negative tone. Although speculative, to a reader the tone of the headline would likely appear positive.

Nevertheless, although the analytical tools used are still imperfect, the classifications of the headlines appear to be largely accurate and to indicate that Koreans in general do not perceive of social enterprise in negative terms, and more Koreans view social enterprise positively than negatively. This would also suggest that in 2019, more than a decade after SEPA was enacted, ‘social enterprise’ has become a legitimate organizational form given the relative absence of articles with a negative tone.

## **5. Conclusion**

A social network analysis was conducted to understand the ecosystem of support organizations that has emerged, while topic modeling approaches, separate word frequency and sentiment analyses, were utilized to gain insights into public discourse on social enterprise. A social network analysis was conducted in order to determine the nature of the interorganizational social enterprise support networks that have emerged. The utility of this analysis derives from its ability to both determine whether private organizations also participate in social enterprise promotion and to map the diverse range of partnerships and communities that exist. Mapping interorganizational networks furthermore has value in terms of revealing the dynamics that define the relationships of Korea’s social enterprises with a diverse range of actors, from the

public sector to corporate conglomerates. A discourse analysis was employed in order to assess the receptivity of the public vis-à-vis social enterprises by measuring the sentiments expressed by the public. The multifaceted exploratory analyses conducted in this chapter suggest that the public sector intervention to incubate and promote social enterprise as an organizational form has succeeded in garnering public interest and also that social enterprise is seen as a legitimate form of organization by the public and not merely one that has been imposed. This chapter has shown that social enterprise as an organizational form has attracted interest from the public and that the public has been actively participating in the promotion of social enterprises. The social network analysis which was conducted highlighted how Korea's social enterprise sector promotion ecosystem has evolved and matured since the enactment of SEPA, with multiple communities of supporting organizations and institutions with, at times, overlapping membership existing. Importantly, the bound ecosystem indicates that the private sector has, in part, come to see 'social enterprise' as legitimate. Private sector entities have come to play important roles in the ecosystem, including *chaebol*, universities, think tanks, civic organizations, et cetera. Unsurprisingly, public sector entities still play, as a whole, the most important role in promoting social enterprises, from the ministerial to the local government level. There also appears to be an overlap between the ecosystems of different types of new social economy organizations, including social cooperatives, community businesses, and self-help enterprises.

The separate but intertwined exploratory semantic analyses conducted revealed the great diversity of sources of discourse on social entrepreneurship. It has become a topic of conversation in nearly every sector in the country and is being discussed in everything from academic publications to public sector and think tank reports to newspaper and magazine articles<sup>30</sup>. A word frequency analysis showed that there is a rich discussion on the performance and organizational aspects of social entrepreneurship and a sentiment analysis revealed that discussion on social entrepreneurship is typically imbued with a normal tone and is more positive than negative. Obviously negative sentiment is the least frequently observed.

These findings suggest that Korea's public sector intervention by means of SEPA has largely been a success in terms of incubating a social enterprise sector and

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<sup>30</sup> It is beyond the scope of this dissertation to compare and contrast academic discourse and popular (i.e. media) discourse on social enterprise.

inducing civil society as well as private sector participation. The ability of the public sector to induce social economy organization sector creation, in this case an entirely new social enterprise sector, and an entire support network characterized by a constellation of public and non-public sector actors is interesting in that it highlights the ability of the public sector to legitimize new welfare-oriented forms of organizations.

The scale and scope of Korea's state-induced social enterprise movement makes it an unprecedented public sector intervention aimed at incubating and mobilizing social economy organizations. The enactment of various laws and protocols to promote social economy organizations thus represents a public sector intervention that has stimulated, even ignited, interest in new social economy organizations in Korea and which makes the Korean case especially intriguing. Studying the Korean case in a more fine-grained manner may reveal interesting findings in terms of how a national government can induce the founding, evolution, and legitimation of a previously relatively uncommon welfare-oriented organizational form (e.g. Dutta, 2017 with reference to the local government level). The implications are far-reaching, especially in terms of the literature on the welfare state as it pertains to Salamon's (2002, 2005) notion of 'third-party governance' as a system in which elements of public authority are delegated to non-governmental actors (e.g. Clemens and Guthrie, 2011).



## Chapter 3

### A Spatial Analysis of Social Enterprise Agglomeration in South Korea - At the Interstices of Policy, Community, and Market

#### 1. Introduction

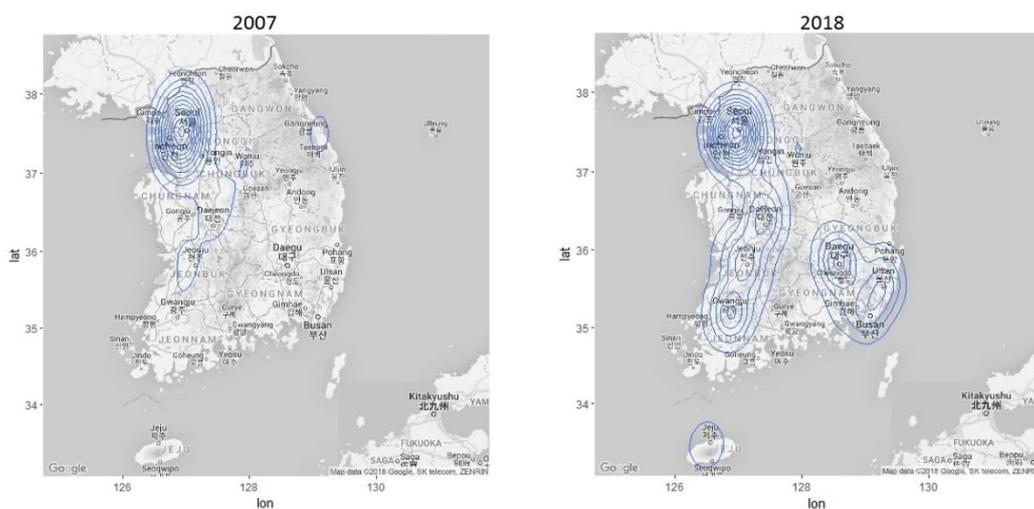
The 2007 intervention in the social economy wrought by the Korean government has morphed into a national social enterprise movement that is unique in terms of its scale and comprehensiveness. As stated previously, the transformation of the formerly ‘repressive’ government-third sector relationship has been facilitated by the concomitant pressures of democratization and a combination of pressing job creation and welfare demands. In analytical terms, demand- and supply-side factors have led to the evolution of Korea’s third sector (Jang, 2017), although, in a primordial sense, supply-side factors appear to have been the main catalyst that sparked the national social enterprise movement. This point serves as the motivation of this chapter.

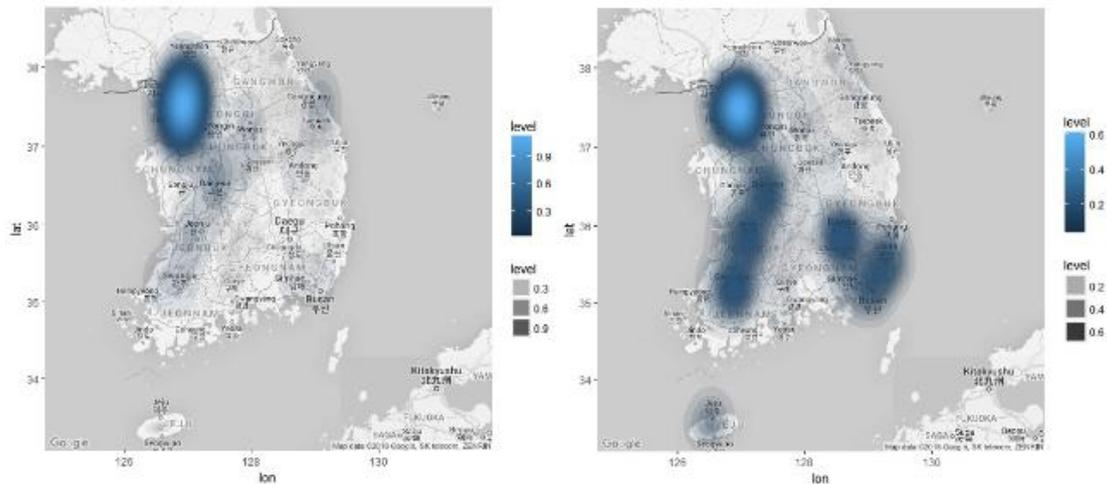
This unfolding government intervention broaches the question: ‘What impact has the government intervention had on the social economy, particularly at the local level?’ This question is pertinent to a more universalist - as opposed to particularist, Korean context - discussions of government involvement in the social economy. It raises the question of what impact strong support from the public sector has on the manifestation and performance of social enterprises. The implied intertwined question is hence: ‘Does public sector support - particularly at the local level - in the form of innovative policies, partnerships, adequate laws, and, *inter alia*, consultative bodies lead to more social enterprises, and more effective and financially self-sustainable social enterprises?’ In order to answer these questions, it is important to first identify where success is apparent, as defined by agglomeration, so as to contextualize the attributes of success. Doing so would lay the foundation for a more in-depth causal analysis that could determine whether government intervention can serve as a causal mechanism for agglomeration and generate more social economy activity. The following two questions are thus posed: (a) *What community attributes influence social enterprise agglomeration?*, and (b) *Why do we see agglomeration in some communities but not in others?*

## 2. Distribution of Social Enterprise at the Local Level - Spatial Patterns of Social Enterprise Agglomeration in Korea

In terms of the spread and dispersion of social enterprise in Korea, it can be observed that there is agglomeration in certain municipal districts but not others. Moreover, it is apparent that social enterprise agglomerations tend to be located in urban areas, although not exclusively. Nonetheless, the top ten areas with the highest number of social enterprises are all urban. This is not surprising given Korea's high degree of urbanization. Figure 3.1 illustrates social enterprise density over time, and it confirms that social enterprises tend to be based in urban areas, as all of the areas of greatest density correspond to metropolitan areas. Figure 3.1 furthermore seems to indicate a strong first city bias, with Seoul appearing to be the hub of social entrepreneurship in Korea. This is to be expected, though, given that Korea itself has a strong first city bias towards Seoul, a primate city in a country with a relatively high degree of urban primacy (Im and Križnik, 2017), and also because there is a great concentration of urbanized municipal areas, especially if the surrounding Gyeonggi Province and Incheon Metropolitan City are included into the commonly used Seoul Capital Area (*sudogwon*; 수도권) category. However, given that the district level is being studied, this first city bias does not present an analytical obstacle.

Figure 3.1(a, b): Social Enterprise Density Over Time





(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

Within metropolitan areas, there also appears to be significant variation in levels of agglomeration at the municipal district level, which further justifies an investigation into the determinants of social enterprise agglomeration. Environmental attributes (e.g. the number of healthcare and social service providers, mean apartment price, et cetera) do not appear to be the primary determinants of agglomeration. For instance, in the case of Seoul, Mapo-gu<sup>31</sup> and Yeongdeungpo-gu have the two highest levels of agglomeration, yet these wards are highly dissimilar in terms of their environmental makeup. Mapo-gu, for instance, is a trendy municipal district that is associated with the art industry and youth culture, as well as civic movements and cooperatives; whereas Yeongdeungpo-gu has traditionally been perceived as a mostly commercial area that is unfashionable and poor. Furthermore, it is also intriguing that Gangnam-gu and Nowon-gu have contrasting levels of agglomeration. Gangnam-gu has more social enterprises and is considered to be Seoul's most affluent municipal area, whereas Nowon-gu has a relatively low number of social enterprises and is also much less affluent than Gangnam-gu.

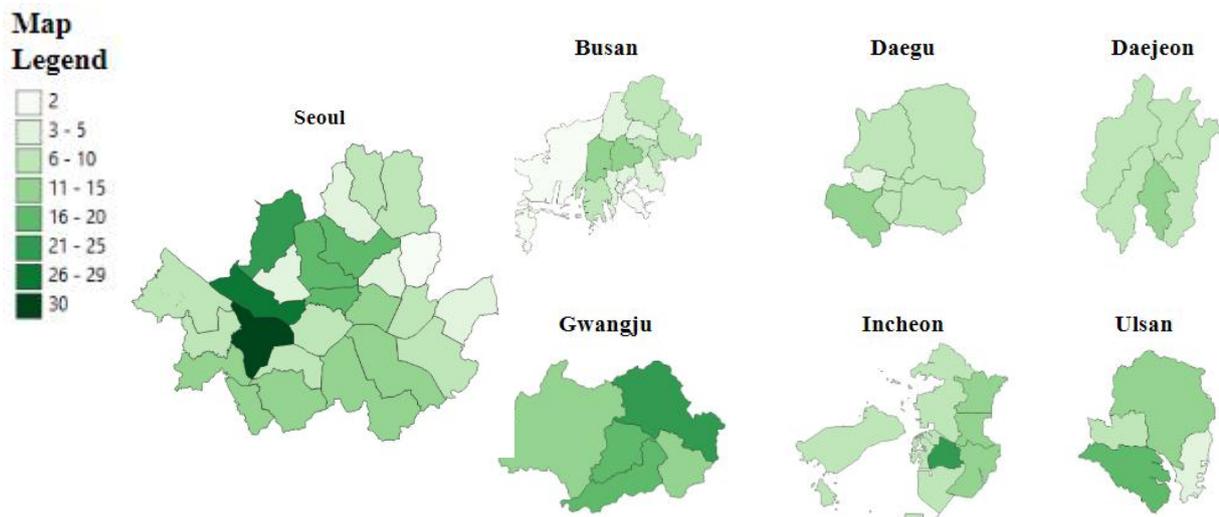
There is also significant variation at the metropolitan city level. Gwangju has relatively high levels of agglomeration of social enterprises in all wards. By contrast, Daejeon has low levels of agglomeration in all wards. In Busan, Korea's second-biggest city, social enterprises are not as uniformly distributed as in Gwangju and levels of agglomeration tend to be low. This suggests that the social enterprise movement is much less pronounced in Busan than Seoul. With that being said, all

<sup>31</sup> 'Gu' refers to an autonomous metropolitan district that is roughly equivalent to 'ward' as an administrative unit.

urban municipal districts had social enterprises in 2016 with the range having been two to thirty.

Given the official state mandate for social enterprises to create jobs and deliver social services, understanding the drivers of agglomeration may contribute towards understanding whether social enterprise agglomeration is predominantly demand- or supply-side driven. Understanding the dynamics that underpin social enterprise agglomeration has utility in measuring the sustainability of the initiative and, thereby, its success.

Figure 3.2: Social Enterprise Distribution in Metropolitan Wards (metropolitan counties excluded)



(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

The divergent distributional patterns of certified social enterprises in Korea, as shown in Figure 3.2, prompts an investigation into the antecedents of their manifestation and, specifically, the catalysts of high levels of agglomeration within certain wards. Variation in levels of agglomeration, if not random, suggests that demand- and supply-side factors may exist which influence levels of social entrepreneurship and thereby stimulate agglomeration. Choo and Roh (2018: 173) note that the social economy’s pursuit of social value in Korea “will exhibit unique spatial characteristics” and that research on the “spatial characteristics inspiring social entrepreneurship, place-based context of decision-making by social economy organizations, and spaces formulated by interactions between the demand for solving

social problems and the supply of economic resources” is needed. According to them, this calls for an investigation into the differentiated characteristics of social innovation and agglomeration and also suggests that “the concept of embeddedness be applied in the search of the essence and elements of social economy’s ties with local community”. Given that there has been a proliferation of a great quantity of organizationally diverse social enterprises in Korea (as shown in Chapter 2), it can be deduced that entrepreneurs have been responding to the state’s demand-side opportunity signaling. Yet, there is significant variation in terms of where social enterprises have decided to base themselves. The question is: *Why?*

### **3. The Determinants of Social Enterprise Agglomeration**

#### *3.1 At the Interstices of Literatures*

In approaching the question of why agglomeration occurs in certain municipal districts, it is essential to account for not only the local environs but also demand- and supply-side factors. To this end, it is essential to note that an investigation into the phenomenon of social enterprise agglomeration straddles several literatures.

Although ‘social entrepreneurship’ has its own rich literature, in determining location factors it is important to recognize that this literature derives from different strands of literature, in particular the nonprofit and entrepreneurship literatures. Although there is no consensus on what constitutes ‘social entrepreneurship’, at the most foundational level it is agreed that social enterprise can be roughly defined as a hybrid organization that is profit-seeking and also carries a social mission; social enterprise thus shares features of both for-profit organizations and NPOs. This implies that due consideration for the location factors of social enterprise as a hybrid organizational form ought to be given; yet Wry and York (2017) noted that research into the mechanisms of entrepreneurship has almost exclusively examined the commercial logic of entrepreneurship while largely neglecting to account for social entrepreneurship and the non-pecuniary motives of the social welfare logic that drives it.

In order to determine which location factors are drivers of social entrepreneurship, it is therefore important to consult and harmonize both the entrepreneurship and nonprofit literatures while also accounting for the contextual factors of social entrepreneurship in Korea. Factors such as the non-pecuniary motives

of the funders (e.g. government or *chaebol*) or supporters (e.g. individuals with certain value configurations) of social entrepreneurship in Korea could, for instance, be important drivers of agglomeration.

### *3.2 Demand- and Supply-Side Determinants of (Social) Entrepreneurship*

Notably, given the importance of accounting for the role played by the state in stimulating social entrepreneurship, the level of analysis of the demand- and supply-side determinants must be at the macro or meso levels, as opposed to micro level which would take into account, for instance, the biographical details of social entrepreneurs when examining supply-side determinants. Both the macro and meso levels are appropriate levels of analysis, given that the former encompasses government regulation as well as important economic and demographic variables and the latter accounts for market-specific determinants such as entry and profit opportunities (Audretsch et al, 2002).

In the for-profit entrepreneurship literature, it is noted that both demand- and supply-side factors can be strongly influenced by government regulation (Audretsch et al, 2002; Hoffman, 2007; Hunt, 2013). On the demand side, government can introduce regulations and specific, direct policies as well as undertake generic, indirect measures (e.g. reforms in the education sector) that create opportunities for entrepreneurship by stimulating demand for the goods and services provided by enterprises (Audretsch et al, 2002). On the supply side, government can stimulate entrepreneurship through the transferal of resources (e.g. capital, subsidies, and tax exemptions as measures to ensure resource availability), the improvement of capabilities (e.g. skills and knowledge, supplemented with e-extension services), and the provision of information (e.g. consulting and counseling), and the lessening of administrative burdens (e.g. through e-extension services) (Audretsch et al, 2002; Hoffman, 2007; Stevenson and Lundström, 2007). Furthermore, sectoral and problem-specific policies can be adopted that seek to encourage entrepreneurial activity among certain groups of people (e.g. the unemployed) or in certain geographical areas (e.g. ‘underdeveloped’ areas) (Audretsch et al, 2002). Government intervention necessarily interfaces with a certain given environment, which implies that endogenous demand- and supply-side factors necessarily interact with exogenous demand- (e.g. the general economic climate) and supply-side factors. How these

endogenous and exogenous factors reconcile determines the actual rate of entrepreneurship versus the government's desired equilibrium rate of entrepreneurship (Audretsch et al, 2002). By way of example, with regard to norms of a given environment, it has been noted that areas with low levels of entrepreneurship are likely to maintain low levels of entrepreneurship and vice versa (Stevenson and Lundström, 2007).

With more specific reference to the social entrepreneurship literature, it has been argued that government regulation may boost the supply of entrepreneurs by creating a greater degree of perceived certainty through the creation of favorable institutional circumstances that lower the barriers to social entrepreneurial activity (Hoogendoorn, 2016). Regulatory quality and the quality of formal institutions necessarily serve important roles in incentivizing social entrepreneurs (Hoogendoorn, 2016).

It has also been argued that exogenous supply-side factors that relate to the labor market could influence the rate of social entrepreneurship as a given area interfaces with government policy (Griffiths et al, 2013; Hoogendoorn, 2016). A culture of self-employment, cultural values, levels of social capital (e.g. linking capital), and women's participation in the labor force may impact the rate of social entrepreneurship (Griffiths et al, 2013; Hoogendoorn, 2016). Others have argued that higher levels of income or wealth as well as higher levels of social welfare may decrease the demand for third sector organizations (Griffiths et al, 2013; Hoogendoorn, 2016).

The drivers of social entrepreneurial activity, especially at the macro level, should furthermore be contextualized with reference to the failure thesis and institutional void perspective contra interdependence theory and institutional support theory. The former suggests that dissatisfaction with the government's perceived inability to deliver public and quasi-public goods (e.g. health care and education) leads to increased demand for quasi-public good delivery from the third sector, which implies an inverse relationship between government spending on social welfare and social entrepreneurial activity (Hansmann, 1987; Hoogendoorn, 2016). The latter holds that the relationship between government and the third sector is complementary, and thus suggests that a government in favor of promoting social entrepreneurial activity would do so through various means (e.g. subsidies and grants or by serving as a market partner) (Hoogendoorn, 2016). This suggests that there is a direct, positive

relationship between government spending on welfare (i.e. public expenditure) and social entrepreneurial activity (Hoogendoorn, 2016). It also suggests that a more positive attitude towards cooperation may lead to more entrepreneurial activity (Hoffman, 2007).

The organizational legitimacy conferred onto social enterprises by the national government of Korea through certification suggests that social enterprise promotion is embedded into a political context, as shown by the foregoing literature. Variation in levels of agglomeration suggests that differences exist in institutional contexts at the municipal district level. Local governments in particular have been encouraged by SEPA to enhance the attractiveness of engaging in social entrepreneurship, yet significant variation in social enterprise numbers exists. The foregoing literature highlights that local governments are important actors that can influence rates of social enterprise foundings.

Nevertheless, the potentially generative force of local government demand (i.e. opportunity signaling and incentive structures), if it exists at all, for social enterprises needs to interface with the local environment. The supply of social enterprises is contingent on how people and organizations respond to the incentives provided by the government. Given that we have already observed that significant variation exists, it can be deduced that the actual rate of social entrepreneurship is mediated by local supply-side factors, environmental features, and/or institutional conditions or legacies.

### *3.3 Geographic Community as Unit of Analysis*

Garud et al (2014) suggest that although ‘anchor events’ such as state-sponsored entrepreneurial expositions are commonplace, the full theoretical significance of policy initiatives designed to serve as platforms for an ecosystem’s various constituents to coordinate their activities has not been explored. They argue that these ‘anchor events’ may induce entrepreneurial innovation, and are thus worthy of academic exploration. Their observation can be extrapolated to a broader context of a systematic, multi-modal government intervention. They furthermore stress in the same study that institutional factors at the regional level are key contextual moderators of regional entrepreneurial agglomeration and note that “felicitous conditions” are “a core facet of performativity”, while also highlighting the relational and temporal facets of entrepreneurship (1883).

The importance of utilizing as a unit of analysis the geographic community as a territorially bounded context that influences both embedded organizations or their founding, and vice versa, has likewise been conveyed by several other studies (e.g., Berrone et al, 2016; Clifford, 2018; Dimitriadis et al, 2017; Greve and Rao, 2012, 2014; Lee and Marquis, 2018; Rao and Greve, 2018; Tilcsik and Marquis, 2013; Wry et al, 2010).

With regard to the agglomeration of charitable organizations, Clifford (2018) found that in England more deprived neighborhoods had a lower density of charitable organizations relative to less deprived neighborhoods, and that in the former, charities experience a higher hazard of dissolution, suggesting that institutional resources may act as an enduring neighborhood effects mechanism. Clifford notes that in “poor neighborhoods, without the presence of a critical threshold of economically stable households, community organizations may be less viable and therefore more scarce” (1581-1584). Similarly, Berrone et al (2016: 1945), in their study on the ability of welfare NPOs to reduce income inequality, determined that institutional context could serve as an enabler or constraint contingent on whether *community actors*, “who embody the regulative and social-normative institutional pillars”, and *community fabric*, “the local cultural-cognitive institutions”, are aligned in terms of “the rules, values and expectations of community actors” and “the mission of welfare profits.” Value congruence, they suggest, enables welfare NPOs to “mobilize community support and attention” (1945) and reduce inequality. Community dynamics hence influence the ability of NPOs to secure resources and build legitimacy, and ultimately achieve their social mission. In their supporting analysis of community-level determinants, Berrone et al (2016) found that welfare NPOs are more effective in highly financialized contexts and communities defined by strong local government law enforcement capabilities, whereas they are less effective in politically conservative communities, demographically heterogeneous contexts, and contexts where local government social policies are effective. They thus find evidence for the notions that NPOs partly arise out of the need to compensate for market or government failure (in contrast to interdependence theory (see Salamon and Anheier, 1998)), in particular when a government intervention is not forthcoming. This suggests that there may be a substitution effect with regard to the inverse relationship between social policy effectiveness and the efficacy of welfare NPOs (i.e. nonprofit

failure theory), or also between social welfare spending and the size of the nonprofit sector.

Likewise, Dimitriadis et al (2017) found that community-level gender norms affect the capacity of female-run social ventures to successfully incorporate commercial activity into their ventures, observing that “the presence of female business owners in the same community mitigates the role of the founders’ gender on the use of commercial activity” (13-14). This suggests that community-level norms can affect the durability of social ventures.

With regard to the temporality of community-level institutions, Greve and Rao (2012; 2014) identified a causal relationship between the early founding of mutual fire insurance organizations and mutual savings banks in communities in 19th century Norway and the establishment of cooperative stores in the same communities in the 20th century, demonstrating the temporal effect of the institutional legacy bequeathed by a rich ecology of community organizations on community civic capacity and institutional infrastructure more than a century later. Their research suggests that there is a spillover effect of collective action in one domain on other domains as institutions induce the formation of more complementary institutions and therefore nodes of socialization. Hence, community organizations are less likely to form in communities that do not have a history of such forms of organization and vice versa, suggesting the path dependence of legacy effects. Institutional legacies, Greve and Rao (2012, 2014) argue, serve as a source of organizational variation and as a mechanism of relay, and they specify legal structures, voluntary organizations, and intra-community relations as the carriers of institutional legacies. By way of illustration, Greve and Rao (2014) suggest a two-by-two matrix taxonomy of legacy effects that proposes when and how organizations of the same form (i.e. a community organization or business) influence other organizations of the same form due to spatial proximity, path-dependent growth and contagious conduct. The following hypotheses thus follow:

**Hypothesis 1:** Social services demand has a positive relationship with the number of certified social enterprises.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is an inverse relationship between social welfare spending and social enterprise agglomeration at the municipal district level.

**Hypothesis 3:** In municipal areas with a legacy of cooperative organization, there will be more certified social enterprises.

### *3.4 Literature on Agglomeration*

The rich literature on agglomerations and networks effects would suggest that the agglomeration of similar organizations or enterprises (e.g. Silicon Valley) can be explained in terms of complementarities and competition. In the case of complementarities, the mutual benefits and external economies that enterprises may enjoy through agglomeration could serve as external and internal economies of scale that firms create for each other as their operations expand that lead to a decrease in fixed costs and more co-location in an area (Marshall, 1920; Room, 2011). This implies that agglomeration in certain areas may simply be a historical accident.

Nevertheless, the top-down element of state-backed social enterprise promotion in Korea does imply that it is not necessarily an accident given the political nature of social enterprise agglomeration in Korea. However, in order to confirm that agglomeration is not random potential spatial spillover should be tested for. Furthermore, if agglomeration is random, then it would suggest the role of local government is marginal to negligible. This will be tested.

### *3.5 Korean Academic on the Spatial Features of Social Entrepreneurship in Korea*

A rich body of Korean-language literature has emerged on the district-level determinants of social enterprise agglomeration as a result of the scale and scope of the intervention. It can be surmised that the rapid scaling of social enterprise in Korea has also sparked interest among Korean academics.

Kim and Kim (2014) conducted a network analysis of the social network of social enterprises in the Gwanak District of Seoul, and found that the social enterprises of the district tend to have strong ties with other social enterprises, administrative agencies, intermediary agencies and support organizations, NPOs as well as NGOs as opposed to for-profit firms, funding agencies, consumers, and universities and research institutes. Importantly, they noted that neither social innovation nor industrial cluster theory explained the characteristics of the Gwanak District social enterprise network.

At the metropolitan level, Lee and Young (2017) employed a fuzzy-set ideal type analysis to understand what drives the formation and prosperity of the various social economy ecologies, and the networks that characterize them, in the

administrative districts of Seoul. They concluded that political will at the district government level and the capacity of a district's civil society to establish social economy networks were key factors, and, ultimately, the interaction between both determinants as manifested in local institutions defined by participatory, co-governance served as a key determinant. They do argue, nevertheless, that civil society (e.g. through mobilization) plays a more important role than local government. Choi (2013) earlier conducted a fuzzy set qualitative comparative analysis and found that a supportive local government is a causal condition for the successful operation of local social enterprises, and in an earlier study (Choi and Lee, 2012) also found that local government plays a more crucial role than local environment. Likewise, Choi and Choi (2019) also found that local government proactiveness is a critical causal factor that has a direct impact on the size of the local social economy.

Lim and Lee (2016) conducted a spatial analysis of the district-level and sectoral characteristics of the distribution of social enterprises in the greater Seoul metropolitan area, concluding that social enterprises tend to agglomerate in areas characterized by high population density, a high tertiary education attainment rate, low income, and a relatively high proportion of foreigners due to the higher demand for social services in such areas. Conversely, they found that the home ownership rate and the housing supply ratio both had an inverse relationship with social enterprise agglomeration. Furthermore, they found that in the education, culture and art, child care, and nursing sectors the spatial distribution of social enterprises and for-profit businesses were similar whereas in the healthcare, social welfare, environment, and manufacturing sectors they differ. This led them to conclude that locational correspondence can be explained by social enterprises being able to provide services at a lower cost than regular enterprises by 'piggybacking' whereas locational divergence is mainly due to social enterprises basing themselves in areas where social services cannot adequately be provided by regular enterprises.

The United Nation Research Institute for Social Development's (2018) report on the social economy in Seoul similarly notes the variation of geographical agglomeration of social enterprise in Seoul, and identifies the following as district-level variables that may lead to variation in the development of the social economy at the district level: district government (including changes in presiding political party), fiscal autonomy of the district government, civil society networks, local community banks (e.g. credit unions and cooperative banks), level of home

ownership, the price index of apartments (i.e. the sales price index and the rental price index), the number of National Basic Livelihood Security (NBLIS) recipients, GINI coefficient, proportion of aging population, engagement with private business, and the number of public libraries, general hospitals, and public cultural facilities.

At the national level, Choi (2016) utilized a spatial regression model to analyze factors that affect the diffusion of social enterprise at the local government level with reference to heterogeneity theory, interdependence theory, supply-side theory, and welfare state theory (see Salamon and Anheier, 1998). The findings showed that per capita welfare spending and the number of NGOs per thousand people had a statistically positive relationship with the number of social enterprises per thousand people, whereas the proportion of people aged between 20 to 34, the population growth rate, the number of firms per thousand people, the financial independence ratio, and population density did not have any significant impact. Choi (2018a) determined by utilizing a panel model that within a given administrative area a greater number of social enterprises typically leads to greater economic activity by the local population in general. Choi (2018a) furthermore found that the proportion of foreigners, the per capita expenditure of small and medium-sized enterprises, and the per capita expenditure on land and area development also had statistically significant relationships. Choi (2018b) utilized a spatial regression model to identify determinants of the size of the social economy in a given administrative area, finding that the number of social enterprises and cooperatives has a statistically inverse relationship with the size of the local economy. On the other hand, it has statistically positive relationships with the size of the nonprofit sector and the degree of government financial transfers to the private sector. There was no statistically significant relationship with demographic diversity. Choi concludes that in areas where the local economy can meet the needs of the people there are fewer social enterprises, whereas the fact that there are more social enterprises in areas with a large nonprofit sector and higher incidence of government financial transfers implies that social enterprises are largely redundant and financially dependent on government support, which implies that social enterprise in Korea is not sustainable. Choi furthermore finds that no spatial autocorrelation exists and that there is thus no spillover effect.

Kim et al (2017) note that there are significant regional discrepancies in terms of the efficiency of social enterprises relative to input factors such as government

financial support contra output factors such as sales and net profit, although all regions have been showing increasing returns to investment bar Seoul, Daegu, and North Gyeongsang Province, which have shown constant returns to investment. However, they do note that the social enterprises of Seoul along with Gangwon Province were found to be the most efficient. Lee and Park (2013) analyzed the location factors of social enterprises in Korea using both Poisson and a negative binomial regression models, and found that community environment, the features of local government (i.e. the political affiliation of the district head and the existence of a local agency promoting and supporting social enterprise) and the ratio of employees and supply-side factors such as land rent, production networks and factors (e.g. average wage and land price as well as production linkages such as the number of welfare institutions and NPOs), and market competition (i.e. the avoidance of competition as measured by a proxy variable such as the number of sewage and waste treatment, recycling, and hygiene employees) have a greater influence on where social enterprises base themselves than demand-side factors such as market size (e.g. population size) and service demand (e.g. number of senior and disabled persons or the number of basic living grant recipients). Their study suggests a positive relationship between the population size, the number of education providers and day care centers, the party affiliation of the district head, the existence of a social enterprise promotion agency, and the employment rate, but a negative relationship with the number of disabled people, average wage, and average price of land.

With consideration for the preceding literature, the following hypotheses are put forward:

**Hypothesis 4:** There is a positive relationship between the number of NPOs and NGOs in a municipal district and the number of social enterprises.

**Hypothesis 5:** There is a positive relationship between local government demand for social enterprise and the number of social enterprises.

Hypothesis 5 may appear self-fulfilling and near-tautological. However, given that certification is not a unilateral process and is dependent on both an organization's features and solvency as well as the consent of KOSEA and the MOEL, it is not necessarily a given that municipal districts with a pro-social enterprise local

government proactiveness necessarily have more social enterprises. Local governments do not have the authority to certify social enterprises.

Furthermore, with regard to Hypothesis 4, the *2016 Social Enterprise Performance Analysis Report* found that the amount of external funding received by social enterprises has been steadily decreasing. Nevertheless, if it can be shown that Hypothesis 4 is true even in municipal districts where the local government either does not have the capacity or the will to promote social enterprise, then it would negate Choi's (2018b) argument that social enterprises mainly depend on government support and therefore correlate positively with the size of the local nonprofit sector. Hypothesis 4, in addition to the number of cooperatives, will be interpreted as 'civil society vibrancy'<sup>32</sup>, although Choi's (2018b) contention is noted. This is consistent with Berrone et al's (2016) notions of *community actors* and *community fabric*.

These two hypotheses, furthermore, investigate whether social enterprise creation is simply a top-down, state-led process or whether civil society is actively participating, and in posing this question the two hypotheses find value. As discussed in Chapter 1, there has been an active debate in Korea over whether this social enterprise initiative is a form of statist co-optation of the social economy or whether the public has come to play an active role in social enterprise formation.

## **4. Data and Methods**

### *4.1 Data Sources*

This analysis covers the entirety of Korea's geographic area, as defined by its 2016 'si' (city), 'gun' (county), 'gu' (district) public administrative structure as it appears on the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport's National Spatial Data Infrastructure Portal. More devolved administrative divisions exist at the 'eup' (town), 'myeon' (township), 'dong' (neighborhood), and 'ri' (village) levels as well as more macro administrative divisions at the 'si' (city) and 'do' (province) levels. However, the 'si', 'gun', 'gu' level represents the most natural administrative level at which to measure the impact of local government on social enterprise agglomeration given that: first, Korea's two-tier system of local government guarantees a significant degree of autonomy to lower tier administrative divisions, including districts within its

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<sup>32</sup> 'Vibrancy' and 'prominence' are synonymous for the purposes of this dissertation.

metropolises; second, local elections take place quadrennially to decide municipal leaders in the given areas (i.e., none of the municipal leaders at the chosen level are appointed); and, third, data collected by local governments and the national government, such as tax data, often exclude more devolved administrative tiers. The ‘*si*’, ‘*gun*’, ‘*gu*’ administrative tier includes the 69 autonomous districts and five counties of the seven metropolises (Seoul, Busan, Daegu, Incheon, Gwangju, Daejeon, and Ulsan), Sejong Special Autonomous City, 11 large cities, 64 small and medium-sized cities, 77 counties, and Jeju Special Self-Governing Province. This amounts to 228 administrative areas and captures the entire universe of social enterprise in Korea at the given administrative level.

This analysis is limited in time and all data is standard for 2016, with the exception of gross regional domestic product (2014). Data on social enterprises were collected from a list of certified social enterprises with complete addresses published by the Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, an affiliated organization of the Ministry of Employment and Labor, on 27 December 2016. Likewise, data on cooperatives with their complete addresses were collected from Korea Cooperatives, which is an affiliated organization of the Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency. Data on the number of NPOs and NGOs by administrative district were collected from a list published by the Ministry of the Interior and Safety in January 2017, standard for 31 December 2016. Data on the number of healthcare and social service providers, number of businesses, number of employees, and female workforce participation rate per district were obtained from the annual *Census on Establishments* published separately by the various ‘*si*’, ‘*gun*’, and ‘*gu*’ governments. Demographic, gross regional domestic product (GRDP), social welfare budget, and geographic area data were obtained from the Korean Statistical Information Service, which is run by the ‘Statistics Korea’ wing of the Ministry of Strategy and Finance. Data on the number of NBLIS beneficiaries (i.e. welfare recipients) were obtained from the welfare portal Bokjiro, which is run by the Ministry of Health and Welfare and Social Security Information Service. Tax data were gathered from ‘National Tax Statistics’ portal administered by the National Tax Service of the Ministry of Strategy and Finance. Confirmation of the existence of a social economy promotion ordinance at the district level was obtained from the Ministry of Interior and Safety’s Enhanced Local Laws and Regulations Information System. Similarly, the existence of a social economy support center at the district level in 2016 was obtained from a report

published in 2017 by the Land and Housing Institute, a research organization associated with the government-owned Land and Housing Corporation. Finally, the results of the nationwide local elections of 2010 and 2014 were obtained from separate reports published by the National Election Commission, found in the Election Information Library.

## *4.2 Measures*

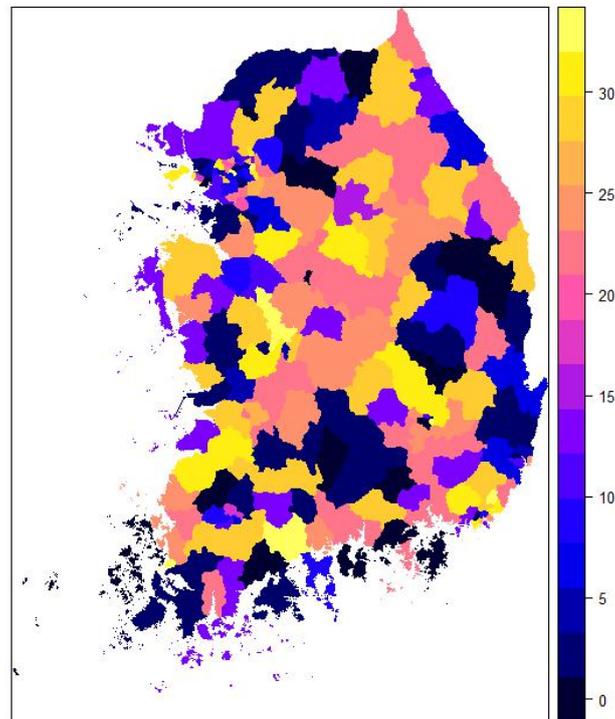
### *4.2.1 Dependent Variable and Models*

The dependent variable, the number of social enterprises in a given district, was operationalized by counting the number of social enterprises in a given area at the end of the focal year, 2016. An Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) linear regression model is used to explore the association between the dependent and defined independent variables, followed by Poisson and Negative Binomial regression models given the nature of this analysis: to search for correlated variables with regard to social enterprise agglomeration. Given empirical observations, it appears as though there are especially high levels of agglomeration in specific areas, which further underlines the need to use both Poisson and Negative Binomial models.

To check for robustness, first both GeoDa and R are used to calculate Moran's I in order to check for the presence of spatial autocorrelation within the residuals of the OLS models, so as to determine whether there are significant spatial spillovers between adjacent locations. No evidence is found to reject the null hypothesis that there is no spatial autocorrelation, which implies that the samples are independent of each other and that the assumption of independent normal residuals is not violated. This suggests that, at the selected unit of analysis, neighboring districts do not influence in any way the dependent variable in a particular area through the effects of spatial spillovers. The spatial autocorrelation map that follows shows that there is no evidence for agglomeration at the *si-gun-gu* administrative level. Second, given that the dependent variable is a discrete count variable, both Poisson and Negative Binomial count data generalized linear regression models are applied given their greater robustness against having several high counts and overstated, biased, or inconsistent regression coefficients. Third, rural-urban differences are controlled for by creating two separate models with rural or urban-only observations. However, it is

accept to include only urban areas when measuring social phenomena (e.g. Brandtner et al, 2017; Tilcsik and Marquis, 2013).

Figure 3.3: Spatial Autocorrelation Map



(Created based on data retrieved from: Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, 2019b)

With regard to the third robustness check, it is noted here that in the case of the national models, only GRDP is log transformed as log transforming the population density, nonprofits, NGOs, cooperatives, and healthcare and social service providers introduces serious multicollinearity issues. In the subsequent separate urban and rural models, all of the named variables are log transformed and no serious multicollinearity is detected. The dependent variable, the number of social enterprises, is not log transformed since it constitutes an important element of this analysis (i.e. drivers of high agglomerations).

#### *4.2.2 Independent Variables*

##### *a) Political Agency*

To capture the political dynamics of a given district as they relate to social enterprise agglomeration, it is important to first determine whether political will, as manifested

capacity, exists at the local level to promote social enterprise. Accordingly, a dummy variable for the existence of a social economy promotion ordinance was created as well as a continuous variable for the number of social economy support centers (0-2) in a given district, which is consistent with the approach taken by Lee and Park (2013). Whether the local district head is affiliated with the national ruling party serves as a further variable, also utilized by Lee and Park (2013), and proxy for potentially both ideological persuasion and the possible hazards of partisan party politics: succinctly, it is a measure of politicization. Finally, it is important to determine whether there has been a change in the party affiliation of the local district head from the 2010 to 2014 local elections as a measure to capture both policy and situational familiarity and policy continuity.

*b) Civic Capacity, Institutional Legacy, and Social Capital*

To measure the impact of institutional legacy, the number of cooperatives in a given district are counted. Cooperatives are Korea's oldest form of social economy organizations, and it can therefore be surmised, based on the work of Greve and Rao (2012), that areas with a history of cooperative organization may have been imprinted "with a general institutional legacy of collective action" (p. 635) that may lead it to experiencing more foundings of social enterprises given the proximate social economic organizational nature of both types of organizations. A number of social enterprises refer to themselves as cooperatives - though the majority do not - in their registered business name, although the data that has been extracted for the purposes of this dissertation do not conflate self-identified 'cooperative' social enterprises and cooperatives. The number of NPOs and NGOs also serves as a further proxy for civil society, including civic capacity (e.g. Lee and Young, 2017).

*c) Civil Society-Local Government Proactiveness Typology*

Inspired by Lee and Young's (2017) fuzzy-set ideal type analysis of the Seoul Metropolitan Area, a categorical variable is created to capture the interaction of civil society and local government. To calculate the prominence of civil society, the number of cooperatives, NPOs, and NGOs in an area is combined and a z-score is calculated and subsequently a dummy variable is created. Similarly, to capture local

government proactiveness, a dummy variable is created for whether either a social economy support center or ordinance exists.

*d) Social Welfare Demand*

Social welfare demand is measured by the percentage of welfare recipients in the local population, the percentage of elderly (65+), the number of healthcare and social service providers, and the female workforce participation rate. The lattermost is included as a measure to account for the phenomenon of ‘career-interrupted women,’ women who struggle to re-enter the labor market following a hiatus due to marriage, childbirth, and other domestic roles; admittedly, the female workforce participation rate could be a reflection of sectoral makeup.

*e) Control Variables*

To control for potentially capturing rural-urban differences, it is necessary to include in the models both an urban-rural classification as well as the population density of a given district. The size of the local economy is controlled for by taking note of the GRDP.

Property price data is excluded since the LiivON real estate portal of KB Kookmin Bank, one of the four largest banks in Korea ranked by asset value, does not provide data on property prices in most rural districts, simply providing an average for most rural areas. The unemployment rate of a given district could also not be incorporated into the analysis because only the aggregate unemployment rate is available for Seoul, which is home to approximately 19 percent of the country’s population. GRDP and population density are used as substitutes, with reference to welfare state theory which holds that there is an inverse relationship between per capita income and the size of the nonprofit sector (Salamon and Anheier, 1998). Appendices 9, 10, and 12 reveal a strong, positive correlation between population density and GRDP, and a strong, negative correlation between population density and GRDP per capita.

## 5. Results and Findings

Table 3.1 shows the results of an Ordinary Least Squares analysis of social enterprises agglomeration in Korea, while the same analysis is repeated with a Poisson-based regression analysis in Table 2 and a Negative Binomial-based regression analysis in Table 3 as robustness checks. The multiple robustness checks are designed to provide alternative analyses of the findings and test substantive findings for possible alternative mechanisms that drive correlation. A variable booklet is presented in Appendix 8.

Table 3.1 has a number of socio-economic and demographic control variables as well as proxies for political agency, civic capacity, and social welfare demand. Model 1 includes all 228 administrative regions in Korea. Positive and significant results are found at the 1 percent significance level (i.e. there is a 99 percent chance of it being true) for both civic capacity proxies, namely the number of NPOs, NGOs, and cooperatives, the percentage of welfare recipients, and the existence of a social economy support center(s). A negative and significant result is obtained for the percentage of elderly and the female workforce participation rate at the 10 percent significance level. The results suggest that environmental factors such as the GRDP, population density, and degree of urbanization have no correlation with the number of social enterprises in an area, nor does the proportion of budget spent on social welfare, the number of healthcare and social welfare providers, party affiliation, or a change in party. Similarly, it is found that the mere enactment of a social economy promotion ordinance has no impact on the number of social enterprises in a given area.

In Model 2, a categorical variable is added that indicates whether civil society is prominent and whether local government has taken an active role in promoting social economy organizations. The prominence of civil society is calculated by combining the NGO, nonprofits, and cooperative variables and creating a Z-score followed by a positive-negative dummy variable. Local government proactiveness is defined as the existence of a social economy support center. The results show a significant, positive correlation at the 1 percent significance level in areas where civil society is prominent and local government proactive, and likewise a significant, positive correlation at the 10 percent level in areas where only civil society is prominent. The number of healthcare and social service providers is also shown to have a significant correlation at the 5 percent level, and, importantly, the GRDP is

shown to have a positive, significant relationship at the 10 percent level, which suggests that the model may be capturing rural-urban differences.

To examine whether degree of urbanization is an important facet, separate urban and rural models are introduced. Model 3 is a duplicate of Model 1, and shows similar findings, although the levels of significance of the NGOs and NPOs (combined into a single variable), cooperatives, and social economy support center variables decrease to 5 percent. Model 4 replicates Model 2, and shows similar findings, with the exception of the number of healthcare and social service providers and areas with a prominent civil society only, both of which are shown to be no longer significant. In Model 5 the ‘civil society’ component of the civil society-local government categorical variable’s Z-score is recalibrated for urban areas only, and shows similar results to Model 4. Municipal districts where only civil society is prominent once again shows a positive, significant relationship at the 10 percent level. Model 6 applies Model 1 to rural areas only, and confirms that there is a rural-urban divide with social enterprise agglomeration being a mainly urban phenomenon.

Table 3.1: Ordinary Least Squares Model of Social Enterprise Agglomeration [1]

	<b>Model 1 (National)</b>	<b>Model 2 (National)</b>	<b>Model 3 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 4 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 5 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 6 (Rural)</b>
(Intercept)	-2.92 (27.82)	-62.10 (34.37)	6.93 (20.66)	-41.08 (21.94)	-29.72 (21.03)	-25.53* (12.45)
Gross Regional Domestic Product (2014), market price	4.23 (9.70)	23.92* (11.95)	-0.55 (1.45)	2.20 (1.50)	1.52 (1.48)	2.26* (0.93)
Population density	0.00 (0.00)	-0.00 (0.00)	0.40 (0.55)	0.08 (0.61)	0.01 (0.60)	-0.68 (0.56)
Urban/rural (urban)	0.76 (1.06)	0.56 (1.30)				
NGOs and NPOs, total number	0.05*** (0.01)		3.83** (1.26)			0.99 (0.52)
Cooperatives, total number	0.07*** (0.01)		3.59** (1.10)			0.73 (0.44)
Healthcare and social service providers, total number	-0.00 (0.00)	0.00** (0.00)	-1.03 (1.78)	2.04 (1.89)	2.28 (1.84)	-1.50 (1.20)
Social welfare budget, %	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.03 (0.05)	-0.10 (0.07)	-0.06 (0.08)	-0.03 (0.07)	0.01 (0.09)
Female workforce participation, %	-0.16* (0.07)	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.29 (0.15)	-0.00 (0.16)	-0.06 (0.16)	0.08 (0.07)
Welfare recipients, %	1.23*** (0.24)	1.53*** (0.28)	1.80*** (0.32)	2.01*** (0.34)	1.95*** (0.34)	-0.04 (0.32)

Elderly population, %	-0.21*	-0.17	-0.34*	-0.22	-0.22	-0.05
	(0.08)	(0.10)	(0.17)	(0.19)	(0.18)	(0.07)
Social economy support, yes/no	3.16***		3.14**			0.37
	(0.88)		(1.17)			(2.26)
Social economy promotion ordinancy, yes/no	0.92		1.28			0.57
	(0.60)		(0.99)			(0.56)
Party affiliation of municipal head, opposition/ruling (ruling)	-0.77	-1.58	-1.46	-2.55	-2.46	0.63
	(0.72)	(0.88)	(1.19)	(1.30)	(1.29)	(0.70)
Change in ruling party from previous local election (yes)	-0.62	-1.19	-0.07	-1.02	-1.26	0.14
	(0.92)	(1.12)	(1.68)	(1.84)	(1.81)	(0.78)
Party affiliation (ruling): change (yes)	2.54*	3.27*	2.77	3.71	4.08	-0.14
	(1.21)	(1.49)	(2.19)	(2.42)	(2.41)	(1.03)
Both civil society and local government are prominent		5.82***		5.99***		
		(1.65)		(2.08)		
Only civil society is prominent		2.80*		2.55		
		(1.20)		(1.67)		
Only local government is prominent		-1.18		-1.99		
		(2.65)		(3.74)		
Both civil society and local government are prominent (urban areas)					7.24***	
					(2.01)	
Only civil society is prominent (urban areas)					4.03*	
					(1.61)	
Only local government is prominent (urban areas)					1.36	
					(2.31)	
R2	0.75	0.61	0.62	0.53	0.54	0.39
Adj. R2	0.73	0.59	0.58	0.49	0.50	0.26
Num. obs.	228	228	146	146	146	82
RMSE	4.12	5.06	5.51	6.11	6.02	2.07

\*\*\*p < 0.001, \*\*p < 0.01, \*p < 0.05

In Table 3.2, a Poisson-based regression model is used to test the findings of Table 3.1 with due regard for the high count data and possible high dispersion involved in examining cases of agglomeration. Model 7 confirms the rural-urban divide and prompts the recalibration of our model to urban areas only. Model 8 uses the same form as Model 2, although it suggests a significant, positive correlation for social welfare budget proportion at the 10 percent level and suggests that party

affiliation has a statistically significant relationship at the 1 percent level. Models 9-11 adhere to the same form as Models 3-5. Model 11 confirms the significant, positive relationship at the 1 percent level of both areas with a prominent civil society and proactive local government as well as areas with prominent civil society only. The number of welfare recipients is also shown to have a significant, positive relationship at the 1 percent level. It also suggests that party affiliation is important. The number of healthcare and social service providers is shown to have a significant, positive relationship at the 5 percent level, and GRDP and social welfare budget proportion are shown to have a significant, positive relationships at the 10 percent level.

**Table 3.2: Poisson Model of Social Enterprise Agglomeration**

	<b>Model 7 (National)</b>	<b>Model 8 (National)</b>	<b>Model 9 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 10 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 11 (Urban)</b>
(Intercept)	-2.52* (1.08)	-4.52*** (1.17)	2.01 (1.25)	-3.23** (1.17)	-2.79* (1.16)
Gross Regional Domestic Product (2014), market price	0.24*** (0.06)	0.34*** (0.06)	-0.12 (0.09)	0.21** (0.08)	0.17* (0.08)
Population density	-0.00 (0.00)	-0.00* (0.00)	0.02 (0.03)	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.03 (0.03)
Urban/rural (urban)	0.44*** (0.12)	0.41*** (0.12)			
NGOs and NPOs, total number	0.00*** (0.00)		0.36*** (0.07)		
Cooperatives, total number	0.01*** (0.00)		0.43*** (0.07)		
Healthcare and social service providers, total number	-0.00*** (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.00 (0.11)	0.26* (0.11)	0.30** (0.10)
Social welfare budget, %	0.01 (0.00)	0.01* (0.00)	0.00 (0.00)	0.01 (0.00)	0.01* (0.00)
Female workforce participation, %	-0.00 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	-0.04*** (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)
Welfare recipients, %	0.09*** (0.02)	0.10*** (0.01)	0.06*** (0.01)	0.09*** (0.01)	0.09*** (0.01)
Elderly population, %	-0.02* (0.01)	-0.01 (0.01)	0.01 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)	0.02 (0.01)
Social economy support, yes/no	0.32*** (0.06)		0.22*** (0.06)		
Social economy promotion ordinance, yes/no	0.09 (0.06)		0.07 (0.06)		
Party affiliation of municipal head, opposition/ruling (ruling)	-0.11 (0.07)	-0.27*** (0.06)	-0.15* (0.07)	-0.32*** (0.07)	-0.30*** (0.07)
Change in ruling party from previous local election (yes)	0.00 (0.09)	-0.16 (0.09)	-0.01 (0.10)	-0.12 (0.10)	-0.13 (0.10)

Party affiliation (ruling): change (yes)	0.28*	0.45***	0.35**	0.46***	0.47***
	(0.12)	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.13)
Both civil society and local government are prominent		0.58***		0.55***	
		(0.10)		(0.11)	
Only civil society is prominent		0.35***		0.34***	
		(0.09)		(0.09)	
Only local government is prominent		-0.15		-0.28	
		(0.23)		(0.26)	
Both civil society and local government are prominent (urban areas)					0.54***
					(0.10)
Only civil society is prominent (urban areas)					0.38***
					(0.08)
Only local government is prominent (urban areas)					0.18
					(0.13)
AIC	1251.42	1337.07	900.33	984.02	982.41
BIC	1306.29	1388.51	945.08	1025.79	1024.18
Log Likelihood	-609.71	-653.53	-435.16	-478.01	-477.20
Deviance	466.47	554.11	308.94	394.64	393.02
Num. obs.	228	228	146	146	146

\*\*\*p < 0.001, \*\*p < 0.01, \*p < 0.05

Table 3.3 serves as a robustness check for the Poisson-based model. Model 12 once again suggests that rural-urban differences are being captured, although only at a 10 percent significance level, which prompts the creation of both urban and rural models, in the case of the latter because the level of significance is not 1 percent. Model 16 adopts the same form as Model 11, and confirms the significant, positive relationship, at the 1 percent level, of areas with both a prominent civil society and proactive local government, although areas with a prominent civil society only are shown to have a significant, positive relationship at the 5 percent level. Likewise, the number of welfare recipients is shown to have a significant, positive relationship at the 5 percent level. Party affiliation is also shown to be significant at the 10 percent level. Model 17 shows that in rural areas the GRDP has a significant, positive relationship at the 5 percent level and NGOs and NPOs at the 10 percent level, whereas the population density has a significant, negative relationship at the 10 percent level.

Table 3.3: Negative Binomial Model of Social Enterprise Agglomeration

	<b>Model 12 (National)</b>	<b>Model 13 (National)</b>	<b>Model 14 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 15 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 16 (Urban)</b>	<b>Model 17 (Rural)</b>
(Intercept)	-3.30*	-4.83**	1.76	-2.40	-2.32	-10.37**
	(1.67)	(1.86)	(1.82)	(1.95)	(1.90)	(4.02)
Gross Regional Domestic Product (2014), market price	0.29**	0.36***	-0.09	0.16	0.14	0.84**
	(0.09)	(0.10)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.28)
Population density	-0.00	-0.00	0.01	-0.02	-0.03	-0.43*
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.19)
Urban/rural (urban)	0.35*	0.32				
	(0.16)	(0.17)				
NGOs and NPOs, total number	0.00		0.33**			0.43*
	(0.00)		(0.11)			(0.18)
Cooperatives, total number	0.01***		0.42***			0.23
	(0.00)		(0.11)			(0.14)
Healthcare and social service providers, total number	-0.00**	-0.00	-0.01	0.27	0.33	-0.41
	(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.16)	(0.17)	(0.17)	(0.38)
Social welfare budget, %	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.01	0.02
	(0.00)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.03)
Female workforce participation, %	0.00	0.01	-0.04**	-0.01	-0.01	0.03
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)
Welfare recipients, %	0.10***	0.11***	0.07**	0.10***	0.09**	0.07
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.13)
Elderly population, %	-0.02	-0.01	0.00	0.02	0.02	-0.02
	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Social economy support, yes/no	0.34***		0.24**			0.42
	(0.10)		(0.09)			(0.62)
Social economy promotion ordinance, yes/no	0.09		0.02			0.35
	(0.08)		(0.09)			(0.19)
Party affiliation of municipal head, opposition/ruling (ruling)	-0.08	-0.18	-0.16	-0.27*	-0.25*	0.26
	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.10)	(0.11)	(0.12)	(0.24)
Change in ruling party from previous local election (yes)	0.02	-0.09	0.05	-0.05	-0.06	0.08
	(0.13)	(0.14)	(0.15)	(0.16)	(0.16)	(0.29)
Party affiliation (ruling): change (yes)	0.27	0.41*	0.34	0.46*	0.46*	0.02
	(0.17)	(0.19)	(0.19)	(0.21)	(0.21)	(0.35)
Both civil society and local government are prominent		0.66***		0.64***		
		(0.18)		(0.18)		
Only civil society is prominent		0.38**		0.39**		
		(0.14)		(0.15)		
Only local government is prominent		-0.07		-0.23		

		(0.33)		(0.36)		0.60***
Both civil society and local government are prominent (urban areas)						(0.17)
Only civil society is prominent (urban areas)						0.39**
Only local government is prominent (urban areas)						(0.14)
						0.22
						(0.20)
AIC	1186.86	1211.84	854.79	881.26	883.28	325.77
BIC	1245.15	1266.71	902.52	926.02	928.03	364.28
Log Likelihood	-576.43	-589.92	-411.39	-425.63	-426.64	-146.89
Deviance	259.24	251.73	159.72	155.63	157.50	94.38
Num. obs.	228	228	146	146	146	82

\*\*\*p < 0.001, \*\*p < 0.01, \*p < 0.05

The findings suggest that social enterprise agglomeration is mostly an urban phenomenon driven by collaboration between civil society and local government, and, to a lesser degree, also by civil society only. The results furthermore show that areas with a greater demand for social welfare, as measured by the proportion of NBLs welfare recipients, tend to have more social enterprises. With regard to rural areas, given that the econometric models employed here could not reveal the dynamics that underpin social enterprise formation in rural areas, only the findings that pertain to urban areas are considered for the purposes of this dissertation. Nevertheless, rural areas certainly merit analysis given that 210 of the 1,715 social enterprises that form part of this analysis are located in rural areas. It is worth mentioning, though, that there are rural areas that have a greater number of social enterprises than urban areas and do display an above average degree of agglomeration. Excluding the peri-urban area of Ulju County which forms part of the Ulsan metropolitan area and had more certified social enterprises (14) in 2016 than 105 of the country's 146 urban areas, perhaps owing to the prominence of its civil society, there are also completely rural areas such as Geochang County, Chilgok County, and Gochang County marked by prominent civil societies that in 2016 had more certified social enterprises than approximately a third of urban areas. As suggested by Model 17, rural areas with relatively more certified social enterprises tend to have prominent civil societies; indeed, there is only a single case of both a proactive local government and prominent civil society, namely Muan County. Nevertheless, there are also rural areas such as Inje County and Yecheon County that have more certified social enterprises than 50 of the country's urban areas despite not having particularly prominent civil societies,

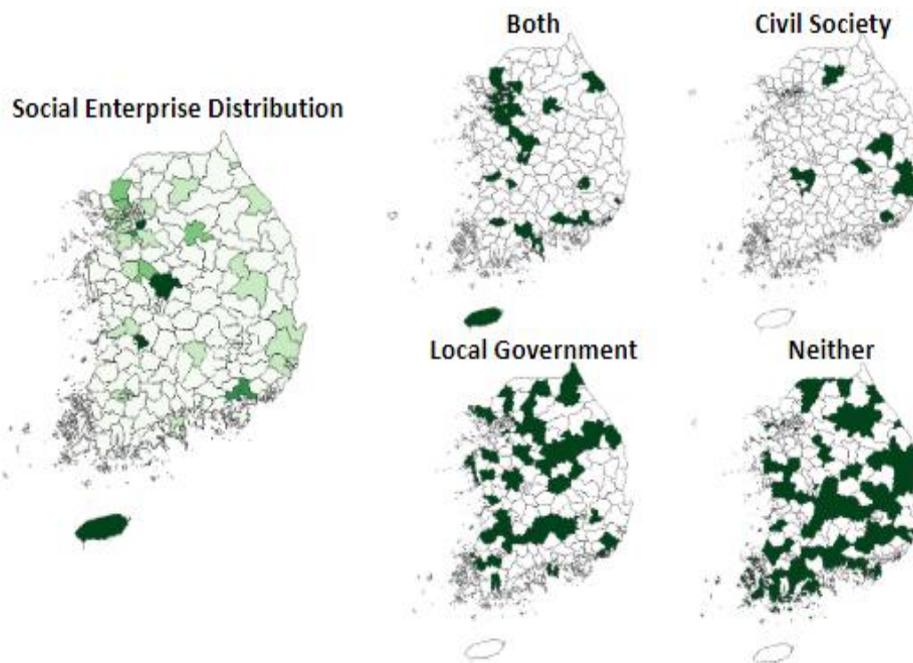
although the urban areas below them have very low concentrations of certified social enterprises, typically 5 or fewer. The means, standard deviations, and correlations with confidence interval for the national and urban models are provided in Appendix 9 and Appendix 10, respectively. Appendix 11 shows the results of a variance inflation factor test for multicollinearity in the case of Model 14. The following typology is thus suggested:

Figure 3.4: Two-by-Two Matrix of Social Enterprise Agglomeration Drivers<sup>33</sup>

	Proactive Local Govt	Dormant Local Govt
Proactive Civil Society	++	+
Dormant Civil Society	-	-

The following series of maps appear to lend credence to the proposed typology. The social enterprise distribution map on the left has color graduation of social enterprise numbers - the darker, the more social enterprises. The maps to the right derive from the typology and highlight areas that correspond to individual district types and are therefore “yes/no” maps in terms of district classification. ‘Both’ refers to areas with a proactive local government and civil society, whereas ‘Civil Society’ refers to areas where only civil society is prominent. The converse also applies.

Figure 3.5: Typology Maps



<sup>33</sup> With regard to local government, ‘dormant’ implies a lack of interest or capacity to promote social enterprise. ‘Proactive’ means the opposite. In terms of civil society, ‘proactive’ is synonymous with ‘prominent’ and ‘dormant’ refers to a civil society that lacks prominence.

Although these maps illustrate agglomeration in both urban and rural areas, which can be problematic due to the risk of merely capturing rural-urban differences, they still serve to illustrate the findings of the regression models given that strict controls were applied to ensure that the regression models were not simply capturing rural-urban differences. A more fine-grained typology would include typology maps of urban locales only, but, given the results of the regression models, it is fair to assume that those maps would mostly reflect the metropolitan district maps produced earlier in this chapter.

## **6. Conclusion**

The replication of the logics previously predominantly observed in Korea's coordinated market economy have provided the platform for social enterprises to shift from their peripheral status, marked by stasis and relative obscurity, and occupy a more central position in participating with government in setting the social agenda and addressing social issues and general societal dysphoria.

In the Korean case, there are a variety of local actors to consider. First, given that social enterprise promotion has been a public sector effort with the local government pinpointed as an interlocutor, the role of local government as a potentially powerful actor and enabler in promoting social enterprise by way of its role in the construction of a supportive ecological structure has to be emphasized (Jang, 2017). The fact that an estimated 60 percent of certified social enterprises were previously for-profit enterprises in Seoul, with NPOs forming the second largest category (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018), underscores the important role government plays in initiating and aiding the certification process. This observation is particularly notable because it suggests that certain municipal areas have seen more for-profit organizations adopt social missions. Similarly, there is geographic variation in terms of the number of NPOs and NGOs that have developed the commercial capabilities to gain certification. The findings of this chapter suggest that local government is an important actor that aids this process, particularly through the establishment of social economy support centers (e.g. these centers may help aspiring social enterprises overcome significant administrative hurdles). Although government's involvement may pose the risk of excessive isomorphism due to certification requirements, the role local government plays in

facilitating the transition of for-profit organizations to organizations with a social mission and the transformation of NPOs and NGOs into social enterprises is an important driver of agglomeration.

Second, as is apparent, social enterprise agglomeration tends to occur in areas where civil society is prominent. It is important to note that areas with a prominent civil society and a largely passive local government also tend to see relatively higher levels of social enterprise agglomeration. This underscores the effect of a vibrant local civil society on social enterprise foundings and also suggests that social enterprise concentration is not merely government, supply-side driven. Indeed, the finding that there is no correlation between areas with a relatively proactive local government and dormant civil society (i.e. a civil society that lacks prominence) lends credence to this observation. These findings suggest that civil society prominence is a more important driver than local government involvement. To wit, the high levels of agglomeration of social enterprises throughout Gwangju, a metropolitan city well known for its civic culture and civil movements, hints at the important role of civil society, and implies that the national social enterprise movement is not simply local government-led and wholly dependent on the government. The most powerful evidence of this is that there are more social enterprises in areas with a large number of cooperatives, implying an institutional legacies effect. Cooperatives predate the government intervention into the social economy.

To my knowledge, this chapter is the first to consider the institutional legacies effect of cooperatives on social enterprise foundings at the local level in Korea. Most of the Korean literature emphasizes the role the local government plays in stimulating social enterprise foundings, as well as other social economy organizations (Choi and Choi, 2009) such as cooperatives (Kwon et al, 2016), yet the findings of this chapter suggest that local governments that desire to do so can only succeed if a municipal district is already populated by civil society organizations and cooperatives and therefore has a history of being populated by these forms of organizations. In other words, social enterprise foundings are contingent on civil society prominence. Importantly, the finding that population density and market size have no bearing suggests that this finding is not spurious in the sense of there simply being more for-profit enterprises, NGOs, NPOs, and cooperatives in a given district as a result of

a larger population density or size<sup>34</sup> leading to more certified social enterprises. This fact that municipal districts with a dormant local government but many NGOs, NPOs, and cooperatives - proxies of civil society prominence - see less agglomeration than municipal districts where both of these forces converge lends credence to this point. Moreover, the findings that municipal districts with relatively high numbers of NGOs and NPOs have relatively lower levels of agglomeration than those where civil society and local government prominence converge also suggests that having more NGOs and NPOs does not by default lead to more social enterprise foundings.

These empirical findings of this chapter necessitate more analytical rigor and theoretical research. To this point, Seelos et al (2011) argue that local institutional contexts, and the structures and mechanisms that define a given context, influence social entrepreneurship initiatives. Social enterprises, when they emerge argue Seelos et al (2011), are embedded into local communities and their development and strategic orientations are conditioned by the communities within which they are embedded. Local institutional configurations therefore explain variation in social enterprise foundings. These insights are consistent with the findings of this chapter. Seelos et al (2011) furthermore suggest that more attention ought to be directed towards the community level of analysis in institutional theory. In keeping with this suggestion, the following chapter will adopt a more theoretical and analytically rigorous approach to explaining social enterprise foundings, with particular reference to institutionalist perspectives.

### **Endnote**

[1] To the best of my knowledge, there is either negligible overlap, in terms of the official categorization of the organization types used for this analysis, or none at all.

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<sup>34</sup> GRDP here is taken as a proxy for population size given that Korea's Gini coefficient was 0.304 in 2016 (Statistics Korea, 2017).



## Chapter 4

### **Social Enterprise Agglomeration in Urban South Korea - The Institutional Features of Organization Legitimation at the Local Level**

#### **1. Introduction**

As shown in Chapter 3, the founding, evolution, and legitimation of novel forms of organization are contingent upon the setting of the local geographic community (e.g. Tilcsik & Marquis, 2013). A community's organizational infrastructure, including institutional actors such as local government and civil society actors, as well as an array of environmental factors, make communities receptive to new forms of organization and, concurrently, attract new forms of organization, and their associated proponents, to a community. This relationship is reciprocal in nature, and organizations have been shown to affect the communities in which they are embedded, even for decades (e.g. by making communities more receptive to the founding of similar organizations for decades) (Greve and Rao, 2012, 2014; Tilcsik and Marquis, 2013). Nevertheless, there are community-level features that serve as antecedental factors, which distinguish certain communities from others and make them more likely to be first movers in attracting organizations. A study of these community-level features is pertinent, given the fierce competition between local governments to attract entrepreneurs, businesses, and capital. Such a study is furthermore meaningful with reference to Hirsch and Lounsbury's (2014: 98) critique of institutionalism and call for institutional perspectives that focus attention on alternative possibilities for change and reform (98). As Hirsch and Lounsbury eloquently state: "We also wonder about how community logics embedded in cooperatives, other virtual and geographically situated groups, and social movements provide not only alternatives to Neoliberal Capitalism but also capacities to buffer groups from the most rapacious forms of Capitalism and to foster more humanistic approaches to inequality" (98).

A community's ability to attract social enterprises has become imperative, given the gradual worldwide breakdown of the Fordist 'job for life' welfare model. National governments across the globe have undertaken efforts to cooperate with social enterprises to either complement or substitute social welfare services (e.g., Kerlin, 2010), as have local governments (e.g., Amin et al, 2002; Mazzei, 2017). Although social enterprises, as with other social economy organizations, have

traditionally been seen as alternative, non-mainstream organizations (Amin et al, 2002; Desa, 2010; Kim, 2016; Light, 2008; Schneiberg, 2007, Uluorta, 2009), public sector cooperation with social economy organizations has now become mainstreamed, echoing the rise of the associative state in the 1920s that was defined by state-nonprofit partnership (Clemens and Guthrie, 2011), as policymakers have sought to facilitate the integration of social enterprises into the market system to address welfare concerns in a financially sustainable way (Mazzei and Roy, 2017).

Such interactions have been characterized by varying degrees of state involvement in different geographic contexts at the national (Hulgård, 2007; Lim and Endo, 2016; Shockley and Frank, 2011) and local levels. It has been theorized that government, as an institutional actor, can serve the function of originator and implementer or adapter and promoter of social entrepreneurship, although these are ideal types in a matrix of state involvement and capacity (Shockley and Frank, 2011). To this end, government regulation may involve both demand- (e.g. specific, direct policies) and supply-side (e.g. transferral of resources) factors that create opportunities for entrepreneurship (Audretsch et al, 2002; Hoffman, 2007; Hunt, 2013).

Nevertheless, although government regulation may provide a greater degree of perceived certainty by creating favorable institutional circumstances that lower barriers to social entrepreneurial activity (Hoogendoorn, 2016), the rate of entrepreneurship is mediated by exogenous supply-side factors that relate to the local community's organizational infrastructure and general environmental factors. For example, market performance, labor market characteristics (e.g. entrenched culture of self-employment), level of income, wealth distribution, social (linking) capital, institutional legacies, culture and values, et cetera, may all influence how a particular geographic community interfaces with government policy and the national institutional superstructure in general (Brandtner, 2019; Griffiths et al, 2013; Hoogendoorn, 2016). Government regulatory intervention necessarily interfaces with the realities of a given geographic community, which implies an unavoidable interaction between the endogenous and exogenous demand- and supply-side factors that affect the actual rate of entrepreneurship versus the government's desired rate of entrepreneurship (Audretsch et al, 2002). Several studies convey the importance of the geographic community as a territorially bounded community that influences both embedded organizations and their founding or transformation, and vice versa

(Berrone et al, 2016; Clifford, 2018; Dimitriadis et al, 2017; Greve and Rao, 2012, 2014; Lee and Marquis, 2018; Rao and Greve, 2018; Tilcsik and Marquis, 2013; Wry et al, 2010). Consequently, variation in the rate of entrepreneurship is to be expected across different geographic community contexts.

This chapter addresses the following question: Why are certain geographic communities more successful in attracting, legitimizing, and promoting social enterprise as an organizational form than others? The social entrepreneurship literature has mostly discussed the role of the state vis-a-vis social enterprise (e.g., Kerlin, 2010). This chapter's focus is rather on the local level and, in particular, local institutional actors and how they interact with both national policy and their environment. There is a need to investigate the community-level factors and conditions that lead to the more successful implementation of welfare-oriented social policies at the local level, particularly with reference to social enterprise promotion. Potential drivers of social enterprise agglomeration at the local community level are accordingly identified with reference to institutionalist theory. Institutional theory is incorporated given that it accounts for local actors and their responses to the national government's diffusion pressures and incentives. This allows for theorizing on how a confluence of local actors legitimizes new organizational forms by means their interactions with one another. In interrogating the demand- and supply-side determinants that lead to social enterprise agglomeration at the community level within the context of public sector-social economy sector collaboration, several institutionalist perspectives are incorporated to inform this research, in addition to controlling for local market and societal factors (e.g., D'Aunno et al, 2000). Institutional perspectives that highlight the influence of institutional legacies (Greve and Rao, 2012, 2014), local government (Yue et al, 2018) as well as civil society actors (Clemens and Guthrie, 2011) are also incorporated with the aim of constructing a set of explanatory factors that account for local organizational infrastructure as well as institutional superstructure (e.g. Brandtner, 2019).

The theory presented here is tested by referencing the Korean context. The Korean context is ideal given that the perceived legitimacy of social entrepreneurship in Korea as late as 2009 was relatively low, and social enterprise as a form of organization was relatively uncommon in Korea prior to 2007. Analyzing the Korean case thus allows this chapter to isolate and examine the effects of local government proactiveness, civic society, institutional legacies, and an array of environmental

factors, such as market size, inequality, community affluence, welfare infrastructure, and community-level norms. The impact of inequality on local social capital (Longhofer et al, 2019) and the impact of the efficiency of public welfare service delivery on alternative forms of social service delivery (e.g., Salamon and Anheier, 1998) are both potentially important community-level factors. A rigorous analysis of these factors is possible due to the sudden exogenous demand from the national government to instrumentalize and legitimize a previously relatively uncommon organizational form (e.g. Dutta, 2017).

As Mair and Rathert (2019) advocate, studying alternative forms of organizing at the local community level is necessary and also promises to forge conversations with the institutionalist literature. Given that municipal governments are the main local proxies of the state, the municipal district area is employed as the geographic unit of analysis.

## **2. Theoretical Background**

This section builds on the literatures on institutionalism, organizational ecology, and political economy in order to frame theorization about social enterprise agglomeration at the municipal district level. The aim of this section is therefore to theoretically discuss the hypotheses for which evidence was found in Chapter 3, with Chapter 3 having been mainly empirical and exploratory. These hypotheses will be restated.

### *2.1 Institutional Perspectives*

The emergence of new forms of organization may be subject to a community's given organizational infrastructure. Organizational infrastructure is defined as the constellation of institutional actors within a community, from the municipal government to NGOs, and may define the governance regimes of local communities and their ability to successfully achieve social development outcomes. An organizational-institutional framework pre-configured by certain institutional legacies and configured by specific social, political, and economic actors and factors and the institutional logics that define the behavior of actors at the local level may serve as the prerequisites of social enterprise agglomeration.

The trajectory of a geographic community's development is furthermore defined by its historical, institutional, and territorial contexts. These factors are inextricably tied to the social and political visions of communities, and they influence their governance and the socio-economic policies and strategies they adopt through a process of "multiscalar dialectics that embrace local and non-local struggling and bargaining as well as the capacity of the local culture to reuse norms of behavior that are adapted to contemporary challenges" (Moulaert and Nussbaumer, 2005: 2086). A community's capacity for social innovation and enacting socioeconomic change may be contingent upon not only social capital, but also other types of capital, such as economic. These are intrinsically interwoven and defined by a dialectic of instrumentality and interdependence that affect local governance, including the potential for collective action and effective policies in relation to social innovation (Moulaert and Nussbaumer, 2005). Different strands of institutional perspectives, grounded in a neo-institutionalist tradition originating in organizational sociology, emphasize an ensemble of manners in which both formal and informal institutions may influence the behavior and relations (e.g. egalitarian voluntary cooperation based on solidarity and reciprocity versus hierarchical principal-agent relationships) of local institutional actors (Moulaert and Nussbaumer, 2005). In accord with this institutionalist logic, Kaufmann and Arnold (2018), referencing theories of economic geography in addition to neo-institutionalism, found in a comparative study of Lucerne in Switzerland and Ulm in Germany that local setting served as a determinant of how these cities formulate locational policies - the notion of 'locational policy' referring to how local resources and constraints impact policy choices within the context of interurban competition.

Scott (2001) notes that there are three elements of institutions, namely regulative, normative, and cultural-cognitive. The regulative pillar of institutionalist literature underscores the instrumentality of institutions and how institutions constrain and coercively regularize behavior by means of rules, laws, and sanctions, which has implications for both how organizations are structured and function. The normative pillar of institutional theory literature is associated with behavioral norms, with, for instance, the certification of an organization entailing the acceptance of certain social obligations and expectations. Finally, the cultural-cognitive institutionalist literature relates to the shared meanings of a community that define its perception and interpretation of its social reality, and, accordingly, the acceptable or expected logics

of action. These three institutional dimensions are not mutually exclusive and highlight different institutional patterns that imprint the structures that local institutional actors, including organizations, adopt and how they function. Scott (2001: 70-71) writes: “it is important to restate the truth that in most empirically observed institutional forms, we observe not one, single element at work but varying combinations of elements. In stable social systems, we observe practices that persist and are reinforced because they are taken for granted, normatively endorsed, and backed by authorized powers. When the pillars are aligned, the strength of their combined forces can be formidable.”

## *2.2 Institutions versus Agency*

Institutional change may come from either external shocks and monumental events, or gradually as a result of collective action, even seemingly insignificant ones, over time. The adoption of novel forms of organization such as social enterprises may represent a paradigm shift, as local institutions respond to oscillations in national-level institutional logics. Hybrid organization like social enterprise are, thus, an intuitive public sector response to the competing logics of productivism and welfarism in Korea, with the logic of welfarism arising as a result of democratization and the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis accentuating this tension. It is therefore important to establish whether a form of embedded agency exists that allows local communities to alter institutional arrangements so as to reflexively respond to changes in their environment. It is thus critical to recognize the role of actors, such as local government or civil society organizations, in shaping and engaging with institutional arrangements within the context of competing institutional pressures.

Social problems are constructed in the sense that they are collectively agreed upon in a process of implicit, consensus-seeking problem identification and subsequent issue salience signaling. This, notably, underlines that institutions and resultant administrative frameworks are not merely contingent upon the market and rational choice, but that there is also an agentic component. This highlights the role of agents in the process of issue-specific incipiency, coalescence, and institutionalization following the diagnosis, prognosis, and motivational framing of issues. It is important to note, as Schneider (1985) does, that government agencies are also potential social problem entrepreneurs. The state, including its local manifestation, as an actor can, for

instance, provide resources, such as subsidies, technical extension services, legitimacy facilitation, and access to formal decision-making processes. Understanding that agents are fundamental to the transformation of institutions, from gradual to rapid transformation, invariably calls attention to the importance of leadership. The role of local government in Korea in assisting organizations to attain certification as social enterprises is a pertinent point here, although local government is not the only channel (i.e. an organization need not necessarily work with local government in preparing an application for certification). The act of aiding organizations in attaining certification implies that certain local governments have embraced the opportunity to reshape how local-level interactions between themselves and non-public sector organizations are to occur, specifically in the sense of how local community problems are identified and addressed. This is a radical departure from previous vertical forms of interaction with regard to social policy design and implementation. Local government can play an important role in facilitating the transformation of organizations into social enterprises by maximizing their chances of attaining certification by KOSEA and the MOEL. Local governments often make available lists of ‘candidate’ or ‘preliminary’ social enterprises that are seeking certification. As shown in Chapter 1, the average application success rate from 2007 to 2017 was 58.50 percent, although the application success rate has increased rapidly while the number of applications has decreased. This suggests that potential applicants are being better prepared to submit successful applications and that there may be a vetting process that precedes application (e.g. local governments might discourage applications from organizations they believe have little chance of being granted certification).

To this point, Room (2011: 28) argues that, “Institutions constrain and channel agent interactions; they can also however be subverted from below or reformed from above, as actors lift their gaze, reflect upon the overall socio-economic system in which they live and reinforce or reshape the rules and architectures of those systems.”

### *2.3 Institutional Elasticity and Transformation for Organizational Adoption and Diffusion*

Certain institutional configurations or settings may affect the possibilities of other institutions emerging (Salamon *et al*, 2000), and also confer legitimacy upon new forms of organization or imprint meaning upon them. The introduction of these

organizations in the local community, though, may also, reflexively, shape institutions themselves and induce transformation - that is, there is logically an interplay between organizations and institutions in that they influence each other. With reference to social enterprise, it has been argued that not only are social enterprises defined by different institutional settings (e.g. culture, welfare state model, economy, civil society), but also that their emergence in the local community setting may be contingent upon existing local institutions.

Battilana and Lee (2014) note that social organizations have, in part, emerged as a reaction to a series of regulatory, cultural, and macroeconomic changes, including the emergence of pro-business social attitudes, a reduction in social service public spending and also charitable funding for private sector social service providers, as well as greater inter-sector employment mobility. Yet, how social organizations, including social enterprises, have responded to external pressures, their modal qualities, and their interactions with local communities, the market, and government has been subject to their negotiated interplay with existing institutions. Variance in the structure of communities and the organizational properties of communities implies variance in the emergence of social enterprise at the local level as well as how they have responded to a community's agreed-upon salient issues.

#### *2.4 Economic Geography and Organizational Ecology*

Carroll (1984) identifies the community as the level of analysis for the macroevolutionary approach of organizational ecology, which included the study of the emergence and disappearance of organizational forms. Organization founding rates increase as their legitimation increases, that is, when the associated organizational form becomes an accepted mode for addressing collective action problems. Conversely, the mortality rates of organizations increase as competition within and among organizations intensifies (Hannan and Carroll, 1992).

Density, thus, conveys legitimation, though there is a ceiling to this effect, and competition results as density grows (Hannan and Carroll, 1992). Significantly, legitimation via density may create an incentive for entrepreneurs to found such organizations (Hannan and Carroll, 1992: 198). Hannan and Carroll (1992) observe that there is a link between capacity for collective action and density, and that this process is, initially, self-reinforcing. They elaborate that when founders organize

collectively (e.g. mutual benefit societies and trade associations), this might incentivize entrepreneurs to enter the market and also benefit them through access to guidance and assistance. Carrol and Hannan (2000: 13-14) point out that entrepreneurs are rational and “respond to perceived market opportunities,” and that entrepreneurial actions are associated with supply-side variables that make access to resources easier. Hannan and Carroll (1992: 42) furthermore note the research of Olzak and West (1991), who argue that such social movement-like features are a necessary condition for “the successful proliferation of organizational activity.”

With regard to agglomeration, Carroll and Hannan (2000: 451) utilize a corporate as well as industrial organizational-demographic approach to analyze corporate populations, with the purpose of identifying empirical regularities and, in doing so, suggest that such a demographic approach has the potential to shed light on “the more complex questions of how the evolution of populations of organizations affects the communities and societies in which they operate.”

While this relationship is certainly not unidirectional, acknowledging the mechanism of legitimation conferral is important to understanding the process by which agglomerations have arisen in certain geographic communities. Nevertheless, the phenomenon of ‘imprinting’ marks this relationship as possibly bidirectional. The notion that organizations reflect institutional and environmental factors at their founding is well supported (Carroll and Hannan, 2000; DiMaggio and Powell, 1983; Marquis and Tilcsik, 2013, 2016; Meyer and Rowan 1977); likewise, studies have shown that an organization’s founder’s imprint can have a long-lasting effect on an organization (Marquis and Qiao, 2018).

## *2.5 Economic Geography and Political Economy*

The question of whether cities compete - and, if so, for what and how - is divisive. Lever and Turok (1999) present the contrasting views of Porter (1995, 1996) and Krugman (1996a, 1996b); Porter (1995, 1996) arguing that cities and regions do in fact compete for, *inter alia* mobile investment and population by means of efficient modern infrastructure, responsive system of local governance, et cetera. Porter (1995, 1996; cited by Lever and Turok, 1999: 791) argues that:

“Places that are successful economically have concentrations of specialized knowledge, support institutions, rival firms, related enterprises and sophisticated customers. Proximity leads to special access, closer relationships, better information and powerful incentives to innovate. Many of the assets of cities are products of co-operation between the public and private sectors, sometimes with third-sector involvement as well.”

Krugman (1996a, 1996b; cited by Lever and Turok, 1999: 791) on the other hand, argues that cities do not compete and are rather the “locus of firms and enterprises which compete,” and that locational attributes are a necessary but not sufficient condition for competitive success.

Nevertheless, there is a substantial literature that is in favor of the notion that cities compete, not only at the international level, but also on the national and regional levels (Begg, 1999; Brandtner, 2019; Brueckner and Saaverda, 2001; Cheshire, 1999; Kresl and Singh, 1999; Lü and Landry, 2014; Rogerson, 1999; Stigler, 1972; Story, 2012; van den Berg and Braun, 1999). Moreover, it has been argued that the leadership of a metropolitan area can, based on an evaluation of its local urban economy relative to those of others, make decisions and develop plans that lead to “futures characterized by more attractive employment opportunities, rising incomes, growth in tax revenues to fund the array of demands for social, educational and infrastructure projects with which they are being confronted, and social stability,” whereas not doing so may lead to “marginalization, declining economic conditions, and social tensions” (Kresl and Singh, 1999: 1026). At a more functional level, Stigler (1972), noting that political parties do not play a significant role at this level, argues that competition between cities compels efficient municipal service delivery relative to tax. He argues that this is because, in the long run, the failure to do so would lead to the migration of citizens to more congenial municipal areas. Writing in relation to urban place marketing as a means to greater city competitiveness, van den Berg and Braun (1999) stress that the organizing capacity of a city is fundamental to its competitiveness and is constituted by *administrative organization* (i.e. the role played by public actors such as the local and metropolitan governments), *strategic networks* (i.e. networks between public and private actors), *leadership, vision and strategy*, *spatial-economic conditions*, *political support*, and *societal support*. Likewise,

Rogerson (1999) argues that city agencies use ‘quality of life’ promotional tools to attract capital, citing the connection between quality of life, as shown quality of life ratings, and the attraction of capital. In a similar vein, Cheshire (1999) argues that territorially competitive policies may impact the trajectory of local economic growth, but that these policies are the product of conditional outcome and not predetermined. Brueckner and Saaverda (2001) find evidence for strategic interaction as local governments, in the Boston metropolitan area, engage in strategic property-tax competition with reference to the migration of mobile capital. Similarly, writing on the fiscal extraction efforts of local governments in China, Lü and Landry (2014: 709) find that local governments “compete with one another to register businesses and thus generate stable tax revenues.” Story (2012) details how local governments compete for businesses - by offering a variety of incentives, including: grants; loans; tax breaks, abatements, and exemptions; and free services - in the United States, mainly for the purpose of job creation in the local community. Brandtner (2019, citing: Florida, 2002; Morgan, 2010; Paddison, 1993; Tiebout, 1956; Harvey, 2005; Sassen, 2001, 2012) emphasizes that, owing to globalization, cities compete for labor, economic and human capital, reputation, and ideas.

The foregoing research underlines the agency of public sector actors such as local government, and the importance of their strategies and policies. To quote Stigler (1972: 93), writing in reference to Tiebout (1956), the “traditional economic definition of competition applies directly and exactly to one area of political life: local government.”

## *2.6 Organizational Agglomeration and Scaling Factors*

On why New York became the largest city in the United States, Glaeser (2005: 23) writes that “New York’s success for centuries has been connected to its edge as an idea city.” Similarly, Glaeser and Gottlieb (2009) find that agglomeration economies (i.e. when productivity rises with density) in modern cities have come to be defined by the acceleration of the flow of ideas as a product of density, which has become an important driver of urban success. Elaborating on idea-oriented agglomeration, they (Glaeser and Gottlieb, 2009: 1001) state: “cities may thrive because they facilitate the flow of knowledge across people and enterprises.”

Nevertheless, as Room (2011: 16) points out, geographical agglomeration may be random and mediated by the nexus of path dependency and external increasing returns, stating: “Notice that whatever the reason for the forerunners to locate there (maybe the pioneer just happened to like the local fishing or golf course), once they have established themselves the external increasing returns and the corresponding path dependencies start to operate and attract others.” Similarly, Arthur (1990) argues that agglomeration as an effect of increasing returns - such as in Silicon Valley - may be because of ‘historical accident.’ Though this may be true, it does underline the potential of being a deliberate first mover through proactive means, such as the creation of an enabling environment. Nevertheless, it needs to be noted that social enterprise in Korea is sectorally diverse and that this literature is discussed in relation to the legitimation of an organizational form at the local level as, potentially, a policy initiative by the local government and/or the initiative of local civil society. Moreover, it is not certain whether the ‘first mover’ effect applies to the Korean context of social enterprise agglomeration.

There is evidence for government intervention as a driver of agglomeration. In a study that examines the spatial patterns of concentration of one of the pharmaceutical industry’s sub-sectors, namely drug substance production, in Ireland, van Egeraat (2006) argues that agglomeration is not only driven by agglomeration advantages, notably co-location and localization economies. Indeed, he argues that these advantages played a limited role as drivers of agglomeration. Instead, government intervention by means of industrial, environmental, and regional planning policy is attributed as the main driver of agglomeration.

Although the foregoing research is with reference to the industry-level agglomeration of specific industries led by private sector actors, it does underline the importance of both institutional legacy as well as the implications of early adoption or promotion. The agglomeration of an organization type that is cross-sectoral as a direct result of government intervention has been subject to less analysis, though. This point is especially pertinent given that social enterprises as hybrid organizations in Korea can be found in various sectors from agriculture to information technology, and therefore the agglomeration of social enterprises may be subject to different dynamics than the agglomeration of single-sector firms.

Furthermore, the top-down nature of the initial moment of state-backed social enterprise promotion in Korea does suggest that it is likely not an accident, especially

in the case of adjacent municipal districts in metropolitan areas that have hugely different levels of agglomeration. The fact that Kibler et al (2018), referencing the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, found that in 2009 social enterprise as a form of organization carried very little perceived legitimacy yet by 2016 significant agglomerations had formed, which suggests that the mechanisms and dynamics that pertain to agglomeration may involve an element of local government policy and engagement.

However, Nathan and Overman (2013: 385) warn that “cluster policies appear to be generally ineffective and have been robustly debunked in the academic literature, yet remain very popular with policy makers.” They furthermore write that government cluster creation policies have been largely unsuccessful in creating competitive clusters and typically result in uncompetitive clusters. It is instead suggested that policymakers ought to make policies that make cities more functional, by improving infrastructure for instance, and by virtue of such support help firms to scale. In saying that, they argue that even though cluster outcomes cannot be manipulated directly, policies can be created that aid the firms that already exist in a cluster. Such policies, they suggest, would be founded on an understanding of market failures (i.e. lack of access to finance) as well as an understanding of the actors that compose a cluster, and entail the creation of a suite of policies that may, as potential forms of intervention, aim to encourage entrepreneurship, providing subsidies or early-stage finance, fostering workforce skills and management capacity, and also the creation of co-working spaces or accelerators. Nevertheless, implicit in the work of Nathan and Overman is the notion that government can induce clustering - whether the agglomerations that have formed in Korea are competitive is beyond the scope of this paper.

### *2.7 Organizational Backgrounds of Social Enterprises: For-Profit Organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations, and Nonprofits*

It is important to highlight a report on the social economy in Seoul by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (2018), which states that for-profit organizations account for approximately 60 percent of all organizations that gained certification as social enterprises, while NPOs constitute the next highest number of legal statuses. This suggests an increasing number of for-profit organizations have

incorporated social missions so as to obtain certification. It may be justifiably speculated that certain for-profit organizations, NGOs, and NPOs have sought to take advantage of state resources in a rent-seeking manner. Nonetheless, the adoption of social enterprise as an organizational form may also represent a substantive change in the organizational forms of for-profit organizations, NPOs, and NGOs. In the case of the foremost, the incorporation of a social motive may increase their benefit to society, and in the case of the latter two, enhancing commercial capabilities may ensure sustainability or even allow scaling. Moreover, the quality assurance measures introduced by the state in the form of annual reports, if they function as intended, may be one safeguard against rent-seeking behavior.

As it pertains to social enterprise agglomeration levels, it may be argued that certification patterns introduce the risk of measurement bias, given that areas with a significant number of NGOs and NPOs may also have more social enterprises simply by virtue of having a greater number of NGOs and NPOs. It may be argued, though, that the mechanism that drives this correlation is due to institutional legacies that involve the founding of similar organizational forms. It is also notable that, as stated above, the majority of certified social enterprises were formerly for-profit organizations, which suggests that measurement bias is not a concern if it can be shown that there is no relationship between the number of businesses in a given municipal area and social enterprises.

Nevertheless, it is important to contextualize the role of NGOs and NPOs in relation to the Korean state so as to dispel such suspicions and also in order to delineate the setting within which social enterprises have emerged. Korea witnessed significant changes in its economic, socio-demographic, and political structure following the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis. Among these changes was the power relationship between the state and civil society, resulting in a change of the government's attitude towards institutional pluralism and linkages with NPOs and NGOs (Jang, 2016). These institutional changes were reflected by the enactment of the National Basic Livelihood System Act (NBLSA) of 1999, the rapid growth in the number of NPOs and NGOs since the late 1990s, and the enactment of the 2000 Act of Assistance of Non-Profit Civil Organizations (2000 AANPCO) (Jang, 2017). The government has come to outsource social service provision to NPOs and NGOs, and the rapid scaling of the number of NPOs and NGOs involved in the social service sector may be a reflection of such (Jang, 2017) - an arrangement that reflects

Salamon's (2002; 2005) notion of 'third-party governance' as a system in which elements of public authority are delegated to non-governmental actors. Underlying this newly accepted institutional pluralism was the notion that government and civil society ought to collaborate to address employment, welfare, and social integration within the context of limited government budgets (Jang, 2017).

The third sector's relationship with government has thus been redefined since the 1990s, from a formerly repressive relationship to a cooperative one<sup>35</sup>. The third sector was previously largely neglected, having little to no legal recognition and policy support. The 1975 Act on the Establishment and Operation of Public Interest Corporations made clear that non-government-directed welfare organizations, including NPOs and third sector organizations, would receive little to no legal or policy support. Nevertheless, prior to the 1990s the government utilized social economy organizations, primarily cooperatives, for the achievement of developmental objectives, though these cooperatives were *de facto* government-controlled cooperatives (Jang, 2017). Following democratization and the subsequent opening to institutional pluralism, the notion that society should ensure that all households enjoy a decent standard of living became popularized and led to a rapid increase in social expenditure (Jang, 2017). A paradigm shift towards institutional pluralism and increase in social welfare expenditures since the late 1990s and in the 2000s thus led to a surge in social welfare service organizations (Jang, 2017). Social enterprises have arisen amid this setting.

The emergence of social enterprise in Korea should thus be understood as a consequence of this reconciliation between Korea's traditional productivist institutional tradition and emergent welfarist and participatory traditions. Although the NBLSA programs, implemented from 2000, were based on the notion of right-based assistance and reflected civil society's greater demand and accountability from the state for social welfare service provision, the productivist logic that stems from Korea's developmental period came to be incorporated into NBLSA programs in the form of 'self-help' workfare measures aimed at enhancing employability and promoting self-reliance through the creation of self-help solidaristic communities (Lim and Endo, 2016). The establishment of producer organizations and work

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<sup>35</sup> Citizens were not previously permitted to freely form their own cooperatives, thus cooperatives lacked the legitimacy of associational enterprises founded upon voluntariness and participation. Cooperative foundings notably increased rapidly after democratization and also led to the creation of a new class of cooperatives distinguished from 'old' cooperatives (Jang, 2017).

projects aimed at creating jobs for the vulnerable and poor but capable was thus integrated into NBLSA programs. Ministry of Health and Welfare-affiliated local-level ‘Self-Reliance Aid Centers’ (SRACs; *jahwal hugyeon gigwan*; 자활훈련기관), which facilitated the organization of the poor and vulnerable into ‘Self-Reliance Communities’ (SRCs; *jahwal gongdongche*; 자활공동체) and ‘Self-Reliance/Self-Help Enterprises’ (SREs) and voluntarily organized producer organizations-turned-SRCs, were the mainstays of this welfarist intervention. The state also provided payment for contracted services, preferential terms for public procurement and public project allocation, free lease of public assets, R&D financial support, education and training, and financial support (e.g. subsidies) in general. As a consequence of this intervention, many civil society organizations which were already supporting the unemployed and working towards poverty reduction morphed into SRACs and derived a substantial proportion of their budget from payments for NBLSA-related services. There was an increase from 90 to 242 SRACs from 2000 to 2003, covering all parts of the country. A central SRAC was subsequently established in 2007 to coordinate and support SRACs throughout the country. 1,760 SREs were established between 2000 and 2016, though 426 have ceased to exist or become dormant and 562 SREs were still being supported by SRACs as of 2016. Given the nature of these organizations and their focus on helping the poor and vulnerable, most of them have been involved in labor-intensive low-skilled sectors. Many SREs morphed into certified social enterprises, which is not surprising given that the majority of social enterprises in Korea, as mandated by the state, seek to create jobs. (United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, 2018)

This logic of self-help backed by various state support policies is nothing new. During the pre-democratic period, although the state, through various subsidies, heavily supported and invested in the rural sector in the 1970s, it still opted to promote the self-help promoting, Ministry of Home Affairs-administered *Saemaul Undong* (“New Community Movement”; 새마을운동), which was a rural infrastructure and income improvement program through selective, differentiated subsidization in the form of conditional cash transfers (Han and Claassen, 2017). The Ministry of Reconstruction-run Community Development programs introduced in 1958 that preceded *Saemaul Undong* can also be described as having been fundamentally based on a ‘self-help’ approach to welfare (Chung, 2010). As

explained by Reed (2010), these welfare initiatives were occurring within the context of sustained massive public sector investments in the rural sector which enabled ‘self-help’ village-led community development initiatives to succeed.

The emergence of social enterprise in Korea as an organizational form thus closely follows this model of solidaristic self-help productivist welfarism, supported through different state mechanisms and means, and is essentially a reflection and reconciliation of the institutional logics of pre-democratization productivism and post-democratization welfarism, with strong historical institutionalist and imprinting elements. This implies that social enterprise in Korea is not merely an artificial creation of the government, and neither is it especially vulnerable to rent-seeking behavior, given Korea’s relatively strong institutions, as measured by its relative success in controlling corruption<sup>36</sup> (Kalinowski, 2016). A top-down intervention without any basis in the institutions of society would likely result in ‘ghost’ enterprises<sup>37</sup>.

The implication thus follows that the utilization of similar forms of organization, so as to determine institutional legacies at the local level, is valid. It furthermore implies that a degree of institutional isomorphism (see DiMaggio and Powell, 1983) is to be expected in the organizational form of certified social enterprises in Korea. Notably, coercive isomorphism appears to be the most prominent force in explaining the organizational form of certified social enterprises in Korea; though it cannot only be attributed to the state’s SEPA-derived mimetic pressures, as it appears to have a cultural element as well. Furthermore, the large number of private sector-established inter-organizational networks (e.g. the Seoul Social Economy Network, a private organization) suggests that normative isomorphic pressures exist as well. It can be inferred that strong mimetic pressures exist as well, which derive from SEPA as a regulatory public sector intervention, the existence of a

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<sup>36</sup> Nevertheless, it needs to be mentioned that ‘crony capitalism’ has been cited as one of the explanatory factors of South Korea’s rapid development (Kang, 2002).

<sup>37</sup> ‘Ghost’ or heavily indebted cooperatives have been documented. Im (2018), by way of illustration, reported that in 2018 roughly half of the approximately 10,000 cooperatives in the country that receive government support funding are no more than ‘zombie cooperatives’ that conduct no business. This instance of failed Ministry of Strategy and Finance-affiliated cooperatives, including social cooperatives, does not imply failure for entire programs. It also has to be mentioned that the rate of business failure in South Korea is quite high - according to Jun et al (2019), the private business failure rate was 89.2 percent in 2018, up from 77.7 percent in 2016. Although speculative, this may be why a degree of coercive isomorphism through quality assurance measures can be a boon for social enterprises and their survival in South Korea.

public agency that grants certification, and interlinked public-private sector social economy networks dispersed throughout the country. These isomorphic pressures, importantly, are arguably not simply due to top-down pressures but also have their origin in civil society itself and explains various institutional dynamics, as well as institutional variation at the local level.

## *2.8 Hypotheses*

The hypotheses of this chapter derive from those of Chapter 3. This is largely because this chapter builds on the findings of Chapter 3 on a more theoretical level and aims to apply more rigorous, causal models to test the findings of Chapter 3. This chapter therefore restates the findings of Chapter 3, namely:

**Hypothesis 1:** There is a positive relationship between the number of NPOs and NGOs in a municipal district and the number of social enterprises.

**Hypothesis 2:** There is a positive relationship between local government demand for social enterprise and the number of social enterprises.

**Hypothesis 3:** There is a positive relationship between the percentage of welfare recipients and the number of social enterprises.

**Hypothesis 4:** Social enterprise foundings have no relationship with the political orientation of the local government head (i.e. social enterprises support at the local government level is not contingent on political orientation).

As is explained later in this chapter, the finding of the potential institutional legacy effect of cooperative foundings could not be tested here due to a lack of data for 2007. However, the findings of Chapter 3 do suggest that only using NGOs and NPOs as proxies for civil society prominence, while excluding cooperatives, may also be valid.

## **3. Data and Measures**

This chapter examines the impact, if any, of a range of variables on social enterprise agglomeration from 2007 to 2016. The series of variables that are tested fall into the broadly defined categories of ‘local government proactiveness’, ‘civil society

prominence’, and ‘social welfare demand.’ This chapter examines whether local government proactiveness, civil society prominence, and social welfare demand explain variation in social enterprise agglomeration levels at the metropolitan district level, as well as in small and medium-sized cities. It is expected that municipal districts where local government proactiveness, civil society prominence (as defined by the number of NGOs and NPOs as proxies for civil society proactiveness), and social welfare demand converge will see the highest levels of agglomeration. In particular, local government proactiveness and civil society prominence (i.e. proactiveness) convergence is expected to be a key factor that leads to agglomeration. This is because proactive local governments would aid NGOs, NPOs, and for-profit organizations in gaining certification as social enterprises, although it is not a given that these organizations will gain certification because local governments do not have the authority to grant certification. Furthermore, local governments that tend to outsource are also likely to attract more social enterprises or help organizations to gain certification. Nevertheless, it is expected that the degree of agglomeration largely depends on civil society prominence since local governments cannot themselves create social enterprises and the success of their efforts may depend on whether a municipal area is populated by NGOs and NPOs, which would imply that a municipal district is characterized by civil society prominence. As shown in Chapter 3, there is no correlation between a proactive local government and social enterprise agglomeration in municipal districts where NGOs and NPOs are relatively fewer in number. In this chapter this finding is tested more rigorously by measuring one of the main means of outsourcing, namely current transfer to the private sector amounts. Although NGOs and NPOs precede social enterprises in Korea, in Chapter 3 it could not be determined whether NGO and NPO numbers increased contemporaneously with those of social enterprises or whether social enterprise foundings occurred in municipal areas where large numbers already existed. If NGO and NPO numbers increased significantly alongside social enterprise numbers, it would suggest social enterprise foundings do not occur simply because more NPOs and NGOs exist in a given area, but rather due to local institutional conditions that make a certain municipal district favorable to social enterprise foundings (e.g. the nature of local civil society or local civic capacity). It may be suggested that civil society prominence and civic capacity can be interpreted as synonymous for this purposes of this chapter if the number of NGO and NPOs is shown to be increasing concurrently with the

number of social enterprises even in the absence of a proactive local government which tends to outsource. In this chapter, change in NGO and NPO numbers is measured over time, which allows this question to be answered. The inclusion of ‘social welfare demand’ is explained by the assumption that social enterprises will base themselves in municipal areas where there are significant social problems that creates a demand for them.

### *3.1 Data*

Panel data are derived from a variety of sources in this research design. In terms of data collection, the parameter selection of the urban administrative-geographic units in this chapter are based on the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport’s public administrative structure as it appears in the National Spatial Data Infrastructure Portal, as well as local election administrative units, which only includes the ‘*si*’ (small, medium and large cities) and ‘*gu*’ (autonomous metropolitan district) administrative units. This is the most natural administrative level for this analysis given Korea’s two-tier system of local government, which guarantees a significant degree of autonomy at the municipal level. This chapter’s panel data therefore uses the ‘*si*’ and ‘*gu*’ levels as the basis for the compilation of a dataset for this chapter. This tier of analysis includes 61 small and medium-sized cities, 15 large cities, and Jeju Special Self-Governing Province at the ‘*si*’ level and 69 autonomous metropolitan districts of Korea’s seven metropolises at the ‘*gu*’ level. The years 2007 and 2016 are used, first, because 2007 saw the enforcement of SEPA and, second, because 2016 was the latest year for which a complete dataset could be compiled using a variety of sources. Rural areas are excluded to preclude capturing urban-rural differences in this analysis; and doing so is furthermore justified by the fact that the vast majority of social enterprises are based in urban areas, as are the vast majority of the population. In terms of the population sizes of selected administrative units, the ‘*si*’ and ‘*gu*’ levels are largely comparable, as shown by the similarity of the means in both 2007 and 2016 in Table 4.1. Notably, the full population of metropolitan districts and cities in Korea is captured.

Table 4.1: Summary statistics for the population distribution of metropolitan districts, cities, and all urban areas for 2007 and 2016

Year	Population size	Number of observations (metropolitan districts, N = 69)	Descriptive statistics (metropolitan districts)	Number of observations (cities, N = 77)	Descriptive statistics (cities)	Number of observations (all N = 146)	Descriptive statistics (all)
2007	<100,000	5	Range: 50,004 - 623,876	12	Range: 37,775 - 1,082,843	17	Range: 37,775 - 1,082,843
	<200,000	10		25		35	
	<300,000	15	Mean: 324,933	16	Mean: 292,804	31	Mean: 307,988
	<400,000	15	Standard Deviation: 147,039	7	Standard Deviation: 251,026	22	Standard Deviation: 208,390
	<500,000	15		4		19	
	<600,000	7		3		10	
	<700,000	2		2		4	
	<800,000	0		2		2	
	<900,000	0		2		2	
	<1,000,000	0	2	2			
	>1,000,000	0	2	2			
	2016	<100,000	5	Range: 45,208 - 657,831	10	Range: 42,634 - 1,194,041	15
<200,000		12	22		34		
<300,000		12	Mean: 323,583	16	Mean: 323,810	28	Mean: 323,703
<400,000		16	Standard Deviation: 149,316	8	Standard Deviation: 272,221	24	Standard Deviation: 222,028
<500,000		15		5		20	
<600,000		8		3		11	
<700,000		1		6		7	
<800,000		0		0		0	
<900,000		0		2		2	
<1,000,000		0	2	2			

	>1,000,000	0		3		3	
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Although the range of both the ‘*si*’ and ‘*gu*’ administrative units are quite large, their means are similar, which makes them comparable. Furthermore, given the decision to utilize Korea’s local election administrative units to capture the role of local government proactiveness, a trade-off has to be conceded in terms of the range of the administrative units taken into consideration given that local government proactiveness at the local is a key explanatory variable in the chapter. To elaborate, large cities such as Suwon, Changwon, Goyang, Yongin, Seongnam, et cetera, all have multiple municipal districts (‘*gu*’) that are comparable in number and population size to the municipal districts of the metropolitan city of Ulsan and also are comparable to Ulsan in terms of total population, yet these large cities are not officially recognized as metropolitan cities even though some of them exceed the 1,000,000 threshold and therefore their municipal districts do not possess the autonomy of the municipal districts of metropolitan cities. Changwon, for instance, was formerly three distinct cities (Changwon, Jinhae, and Masan) that merged into a single large city with the aim of obtaining ‘metropolitan’ status, yet this never materialized. Similarly, data are aggregated for Cheongju and Cheongwon County, incorporated by Cheongju in 2014. Furthermore, typically, administrative divisions under the 50,000-population threshold would be considered counties, yet there is the case of Gyeryong in this dataset that is the only city that falls below this threshold. Gyeryong’s official classification as a city obliges this chapter to include it. It is also important to note that counties that transitioned into cities are included, namely Sejong Special Autonomous City and Yeosu City. To address these shortcomings, population density, in addition to total population, is introduced as a control variable.

In terms of the variables, data on social enterprises were collected from a list of certified social enterprises, which includes a complete address, published by the KOSEA, which is affiliated to the MOEL. NGO- and NPO-related data were collected from a list published by the Ministry of the Interior and Safety. Data on the number of healthcare and social service providers, the number of businesses, the number of employees, and the number of temporary and daily workers by administrative unit were gathered from the annual *Census on Establishments* published by the respective

'*si*' and '*gu*' governments. Demographic, GRDP, and social expenditure data were obtained from the Korea Statistical Information Service, which is affiliated to the Ministry of Strategy and Finance. Data on apartment mean price were obtained from Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport-affiliated Korea Appraisal Board's Real Estate Statistical Information System. Data on the number of NBLs recipients were obtained from the Ministry of Health and Welfare and Social Security Informative Service-run welfare portal *Bokjiro*. Wealth distribution data at the '*si*' and '*gu*' levels were obtained from the annual *Community Health Survey* published by the Ministry of Welfare and Health-affiliated Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. Budget expenditure data were obtained from the Ministry of the Interior and Safety's Local Finance Integrated Open System. Verification on whether a social economy promotion ordinance had been enacted at the local level was obtained from the Ministry of the Interior and Safety's Enhanced Local Laws and Regulations Information System; while a report published by the Land and Housing Institute, affiliated to the state-owned Land and Housing Corporation, was referred to in order to determine the existence of a social economy support center. Finally, local election results from 2006, 2010, and 2014 were obtained from reports published by the National Election Commission. In cases where data for 2007 were not available, data for 2008 were reported as indicated. Certain variables were logged, as is indicated; though, it is important to note here that the outcome variable is not logged, as this chapter aims to identify the determinants of agglomeration in primarily the outlier cases where high degrees of agglomeration can be observed, although the proliferation of social enterprise throughout the country is noted with great interest.

### 3.2 Variables

The number of social enterprises in a municipal area is the outcome variable, or the dependent variable. It is aggregated and kept it an absolute, discrete number, as opposed to proportion, given the very limited number of social enterprises in Korea relative to the total number of businesses. A number of explanatory variables are taken in consideration to measure the following determinants, namely: *local government proactiveness* as it relates to social enterprise promotion is captured through (a) social expenditure, (b) the existence of a social economy promotion ordinance, (c) the creation of a social economy center, and (d) current transfer to the

private sector amount. The lattermost explanatory variable captures how much a local government spends on outsourcing. Local government can play an important role in the certification process of social enterprises, and therefore this variable is highly relevant. Some local governments play an active role in helping organizations attain certification as social enterprises. Nevertheless, social enterprise certification does not necessarily depend on local government aid. *Civil society prominence* is measured through the number of NGOs and NPOs; *social welfare demand* through (a) the number of temporary and daily workers, (b) elderly population as a proportion, and (c) the number of NBLS welfare subsidy recipients; *political context* through consideration of local election results; and, *environmental factors*, which serve as control variables, are captured by taking into account (a) real gross regional domestic product, (b) real GRDP per capita, (c) the total number of businesses, (d) the number of businesses per capita, (e) apartment mean price, (f) the ratio of wealth distribution between the upper and lower two income groups, and (g) population.

In identifying proxies for *civil society prominence*, the following are considered: the total number of NGOs and NPOs; the total number of universities; the number of university students as a proportion of the total population; and the total number of organizations and associations, as well as derivative variables, including the number of professional organizations (including cooperatives), the number of labor unions, and the number of other types of organizations and associations (primarily religious) as well as the number of people associated with these organizations and associations. Notably, as an important measure of *civil society prominence* in the Korean context, the number of cooperatives in a municipal area is excluded from consideration given the absence of data. Although data on registered cooperatives, including the full address, are available for 2016 and published by Korea Cooperatives, an affiliate organization of the KOSEA the organization was only formally established in 2014 and does not offer data for 2007 - it is also important to note that it does not contain the data of all cooperatives in Korea. An effort was made to include this variable, as the research of Greve and Rao (2012; 2014) would suggest that municipal areas with a legacy of cooperative organization establishment would also be more likely to see the establishment of other social economy organizations. The high level of social enterprise agglomeration in Wonju, known nationwide for its cooperative movement, would suggest this finding could be true for the Korean context. This limitation does not undermine the findings of Chapter 3 though, given that cooperatives have a long

history in Korea. Given the political and civic nature of NGOs and NPOs as representatives of civil society, it was ultimately decided to select the number of NGOs and NPOs to serve as a proxy for local civil society prominence (i.e. proactiveness).

It is theorized that: first, the greatest agglomerations of social enterprises will be in municipal areas where local government and civil society have a collaborative relationship; second, areas where only civil society is prominent will also have significant degree of social enterprise agglomeration; and, third, areas where only the local government is proactive do not see any significant degree of agglomeration. That is to say, it is argued that social enterprise agglomeration is not merely the result of government promotion and has both top-down and bottom-up characteristics. To test this typology, the *Z*-score of both *civil society prominence* and *local government proactiveness* are calculated so as to create a dichotomous categorical variable which interacts the two and highlights whether a municipal area has both a proactive local government and civil society, only one dominant institutional actor, or is entirely dormant.

Both population and population density are controlled for in the models, given the wide range of population sizes of the municipal units that comprise the analysis conducted in this chapter. Furthermore, market and socio-economic environmental factors are also controlled for by including real GRDP, per capita GRDP, the total number of businesses, the number of businesses per capita, apartment mean price, and the ratio of wealth distribution between the upper and lower two income groups. By including measures of local economic performance, it can be assessed whether social enterprise agglomeration in a municipal area is merely the result of the size or vitality of the local market in a given municipal area. In terms of socio-economic control variables, by including variables that measure affluence and inequality it is possible to not only control for local circumstantial factors, but also gain an understanding about social enterprises as organizations in the Korean context. In this sense it is important to note that some of these control variables could also be seen as demand- or supply-side variables. The unemployment rate is also excluded, given that unemployment data are not available at the district level for Korea's biggest metropolis, Seoul. Relying on aggregate data for the metropolis in its entirety would potentially distort the results of this chapter, given that Seoul and the surrounding

Seoul Capital Area (*Sudogwon/ 수도권*), which includes Gyeonggi Province and Incheon Metropolitan City, had both the greatest density of social enterprises and also features several sizable district-level agglomerations. Nevertheless, a municipal-level analysis of both the distribution of social enterprises by organizational type show that in the majority of districts social enterprises are predominantly ‘job creation type’ social enterprises, which may imply that they have been responding to demand-side pressures from either the government or public to create jobs. However, the fact that ‘social enterprise’ is a legal category bestowed upon a hybrid organization by the state complicates this measurement.

#### 4. Methods

Given that the number of social enterprises in a given municipal area is being measured with the knowledge that a disproportionately high level of agglomeration of social enterprises exists in certain areas only, the outcome variable can be described as a continuous variable that is right-skewed. This chapter’s panel data has two time periods ( $T = 2$ ,  $t = 2007, 2016$ ) which were selected for the purposes of analyzing factors that led to differences in the levels of agglomeration of social enterprises from the enforcement of SEPA in 2007 to 2016. The outcome variable is therefore skewed, given that, initially, by the end of 2007 social enterprises were only present in 41 out of the 146 municipal areas included in this chapter’s analysis. By the end of 2016, social enterprises were present in 144 municipal areas. Data are reported at the urban municipal level in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Summary statistics for the distribution of social enterprises in metropolitan districts, cities, and all urban areas for 2007 and 2016

Year	Number of social enterprises	Number of observations (metropolitan districts, N = 69)	Descriptive statistics (metropolitan districts)	Number of observations (cities, N = 77)	Descriptive statistics (cities)	Number of observations (all, N = 146)	Descriptive statistics (all)
2007	0	49	Range: 0 - 2	56	Range: 0 - 2	105	Range: 0 - 2
	<5	20	Mean: 0.39	21	Mean: 0.34	41	Mean: 0.36
	<10	0		0		0	

	<15	0	Standard Deviation: 0.67	0	Standard Deviation: 0.60	0	Standard Deviation: 0.63
	<20	0		0		0	
	<25	0		0		0	
	<30	0		0		0	
	<35	0		0		0	
	<40	0		0		0	
	<45	0		0		0	
	>=45	0		0		0	
2016	0	0	Range: 2 - 30	2	Range: 0 - 45	2	Range: 0 - 45
	<5	9	Mean: 10.41	23	Mean: 10.18	32	Mean: 10.29
	<10	28	Standard Deviation: 6.05	24	Standard Deviation: 10.04	52	Standard Deviation: 8.73
	<15	17		9		26	
	<20	10		10		20	
	<25	1		3		4	
	<30	3		1		4	
	<35	1		1		2	
	<40	0		0		0	
	<45	0		3		3	
	>=45	0		1		1	

Two types of panel models are constructed to test this chapter's hypotheses: cross-sectional, pooled conditional negative binomial models and two-time period conditional negative binomial models, which serves as a means for a "before and after" comparison for this chapter's selected years. This chapter's hypotheses are tested by measuring effects conditional on the geographic municipal area (*si*, *gu*). Conditional negative binomial models are used given that this chapter is modeling for

a count outcome variable which is over-dispersed. Furthermore, zero-inflated conditional negative binomial models are fitted because there is a relatively large number of zeros in the year 2007 given that the program was introduced in that year. To check for robustness for 2007, logit and probit models are used.

## **5. Results**

### *5.1 Descriptive Statistics*

The descriptive statistics of all variables are reported in Table 4.3, with all reported data being municipal level data. It is important to note how rapidly social enterprise has scaled, with there being a 10-point increase in the mean. Explanatory variables related to the expansion of the welfare state in Korea also show significant increases. On average, there has been an increase of 11.54 percentage points in social expenditure and a 342-point increase in the number of healthcare and social welfare organizations. Notably, there has also been a slight increase in current transfers to the private sector by local government, which is an instrument which local governments use to ‘outsource’ to private healthcare and social service providers. However, capital transfers to the private sector have decreased, though it is important to note that current transfers to the private sector on average constitute a much larger component of a local government’s budget than capital transfers to the private sector, which renders this second category irrelevant for this chapter’s analysis<sup>38</sup>. There has been a negligible increase in the number of NBLS (i.e. welfare) recipients, though. The scaling of social enterprise is therefore clearly occurring within the context of the expansion of welfarism, partially via third-party governance. It is also noteworthy that there has been a significant increase in the number of NGOs and NPOs during the measured period. On average, municipal districts had 34 more NGOs and NPOs in 2016 than in 2007, and 10 more social enterprises. Both variables have high standard deviations though, which suggests that levels of agglomeration vary significantly from municipal district to municipal district. This also suggests that social enterprise foundings are not merely the result of high numbers of NGOs and NPOs already existing in an area, and rather that NGOs and NPOs can legitimately be considered

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<sup>38</sup> An analysis of local government budgets showed that both current transfers to the private sector and capital transfers to the private sector, listed as separate categories, are used as instruments to support social enterprises.

proxies for civil society prominence in terms of collective action taken by local civil society in responding to social problems (i.e. these organizations tend to be founded in areas where civil society has the proclivity to establish them, or at least a demand for them). This suggests that equating civil society prominence to civic capacity is valid.

Table 4.3: Summary statistics for outcome and explanatory variables for 2007 and 2016, with differences over time

Variable	Mean	SD	$\Delta$ 2007-2016
Social enterprise (total count)	5	8	10
Gross domestic regional product (real, unit: 1 million KRW)	8,324,448.5 KRW <sup>39</sup>	8,569,385.3 KRW	1,221,981.2 KRW
Gross domestic regional product per capita (real, unit: 1 thousand KRW)	29,960.5 KRW	35,943.9 KRW	5,060.4 KRW
Apartment mean price (real, unit, unit: 1 thousand KRW)	224,067.8 KRW	170,281.5 KRW	39,972.3 KRW
Temporary and daily workers (% of workers)	12.1	3.3	1.8
Ratio of wealth distribution between the upper and lower two income groups (2008-2016)	0.953	0.549	-0.087
GINI coefficient	0.224	0.061	-0.027
Total population	315,845	215,091	15,715
Population density	6145	7025	-131
Non-governmental organizations/nonprofit organizations (total count)	57	57	34
Association and organizations <sup>40</sup> (total count)	522	307	62
Social economy promotion ordinance	Y: 90   N: 202	Y: 0.31   N: 0.69	90

<sup>39</sup> 1208.94 KRW equaled 1 USD on December 29, 2016, and in 2016, the KRW per 1 USD had a range of max 1237.92 to min 1093.52.

<sup>40</sup> Includes industrial and professional organizations, labor unions, religious organizations, political organizations, civic groups, and various other types of organizations and associations.

Social economy support center	Y: 29   N: 263	Y: 0.10   N: 0.90	29
Current transfer to private sector (total, unit: 1 thousand KRW)	92,323.3 KRW	74,349.0 KRW	66,528.6 KRW
Current transfer to private sector (% of local government budget)	19.01	6.46	1.65
Capital transfer to private sector (total, unit: 1 thousand KRW)	17428.0 KRW	24958.6 KRW	809.2 KRW
Capital transfer to private sector (% of local government budget)	3.23	2.90	-1.58
Social expenditure <sup>41</sup>	32.68	13.43	11.54
Business (total count)	22,467	14,536	4,230
Elderly population	12.24	4.65	1.51
NBLS welfare recipients (total & percentage)	8,857 (3.29)	5,371 (1.64)	993 (0.06)
Healthcare and social service providers (number)	692	530	342

Furthermore, the data confirm that certain local governments have proactively sought to foster the formation of social economy organizations through the enactment of a social economy ordinance or the creation of a social economy support centers. Approximately 31 percent of local governments had enacted a social economy promotion ordinance by the end of 2016 and roughly 10 percent had established a social economy support center.

The data also show that there has been a significant increase in the number of businesses, which may be due to difficulty in finding stable, long-term employment. The high failure rate of SMEs has been well documented, and serves as an indication of the competitiveness of the market. This finding also implies that some districts may have higher rates of entrepreneurship or business failure, which may be an important indicator of how conducive to business a certain geographic area is. A substantial

<sup>41</sup> Calculated for 2008 and 2016 given that there was a change in budget categories in 2008, resulting in a lack of equivalence.

increase in gross regional domestic product, although not proportionate to the number of businesses, lends credence validity to this observation.

Finally, inequality decreased as measured by both local Gini coefficient and the ratio of wealth distribution between the upper and lower two income groups, which is a counterintuitive finding. This is an important finding given that inequality at the local level may adversely affect social capital (Longhofer et al, 2019).

## 5.2 Cross-sectional Models

In Table 4.4, the full population of metropolitan districts and cities in Korea (N = 146) for both 2007 and 2016 (N = 292) are used to estimate this chapter's models, in which effects for the following are estimated: (a) local government proactiveness, including third-party governance dynamics, (b) civic capacity (i.e. civil society prominence), social capital, (c) social welfare demand, and (d) various environmental factors that serve as control variables.

**Table 4.4: Cross-sectional pooled conditional negative binomial models predicting social enterprise agglomeration in urban areas with year dummy**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
(Intercept)	-11.27***	-10.52***	-9.25***	-51.78***	-548.23**	-565.02**	-6.19***	-578.26**	-574.44**	-579.91**
	(1.75)	(1.41)	(1.27)	(3.93)	(44.29)	(43.21)	(1.83)	(43.48)	(43.54)	(46.70)
Gross regional domestic product, per capita (logged)	0.79***	0.43***	0.46***	7.03***	1.60	0.13		0.10	0.16	0.19*
	(0.15)	(0.13)	(0.11)	(0.89)	(0.83)	(0.08)		(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.09)
Population density (logged)	0.20**	0.11*	0.09	-0.87*	-0.04	0.00		-0.06	-0.04	-0.04
	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.40)	(0.33)	(0.04)		(0.04)	(0.04)	(0.06)
Inequality (logged)	0.19	0.05	-0.02	-0.12	-0.13	-0.13		-0.09	-0.11	-0.10
	(0.21)	(0.18)	(0.16)	(0.13)	(0.10)	(0.10)		(0.11)	(0.12)	(0.15)
Elderly population, %	0.11***	0.12***	0.10***	0.09***	0.01	0.01		0.01	0.01	0.01
	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)		(0.01)	(0.02)	(0.02)
Temporary and daily workers, %	0.14***	0.04	0.01	0.03	-0.02	-0.02		-0.02	-0.02	-0.02
	(0.03)	(0.03)	(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.01)	(0.01)		(0.01)	(0.01)	(0.01)
NGOs/NPOs (logged)		1.18***	0.88***	0.87**	2.02***	0.48***		0.43***	0.47***	0.44***
		(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.33)	(0.28)	(0.08)		(0.08)	(0.07)	(0.09)
Social economy promotion ordinance, yes/no			0.88***	0.36***	0.12	0.10		0.06	0.08	0.08
			(0.15)	(0.10)	(0.08)	(0.08)		(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)

Social economy support center		0.66***	0.40***	0.22**	0.20*		0.23**	0.23**	0.24**	
		(0.18)	(0.11)	(0.08)	(0.08)		(0.08)	(0.08)	(0.08)	
Social expenditure (logged)			1.83***	0.35	0.01		0.52*	0.51*	0.46	
			(0.21)	(0.20)	(0.01)		(0.21)	(0.21)	(0.24)	
Current transfer to private sector (logged)			12.08***	4.58***	0.31*		0.00**	0.00**	0.00*	
			(1.24)	(1.15)	(0.14)		(0.00)	(0.00)	(0.00)	
Year dummy (2007, 2016)				0.26***	0.28***		0.28***	0.28***	0.29***	
				(0.02)	(0.02)		(0.02)	(0.02)	(0.02)	
Healthcare and social service providers (logged)					0.10					
					(0.17)					
Gross regional domestic product (logged)						0.02				
						(0.16)				
Total population (logged)						-0.84***		0.13		
						(0.25)		(0.13)		
Total businesses (logged)						1.80***	0.21			
						(0.32)	(0.12)			
Associations and organizations (logged)									-0.01	
									(0.17)	
Total universities									0.01	
									(0.02)	
Apartment mean price (logged)									0.02	
									(0.15)	
Welfare recipients, total (logged)									0.21	
									(0.16)	
Welfare recipients, %									-0.05	
									(0.06)	
AIC	1495.51	1382.98	1333.79	1171.50	1044.98	1044.30	1475.91	1040.48	1042.36	1047.86
BIC	1521.24	1412.39	1370.56	1215.62	1092.78	1095.78	1494.30	1091.96	1093.83	1114.05
Log Likelihood	-740.75	-683.49	-656.89	-573.75	-509.49	-508.15	-732.96	-506.24	-507.18	-505.93
Deviance	308.46	314.71	321.33	326.41	282.19	281.21	312.12	279.96	281.05	281.44
Num. obs.	292	292	292	292	292	292	292	292	292	292

\*\*\*p < 0.001, \*\*p < 0.01, \*p < 0.05

Model 1 suggests that environmental factors, such as GRDP per capita and population density, may have an effect, that inequality is not a significant explanatory variable, and that social welfare demand variables as measured by the proportion of elderly and the number of temporary and daily workers may be valid explanatory variables. The lack of explanatory value for the independent variable inequality may be due to the low variation in inequality across the country, as shown by the standard deviation of both the variables employed as proxies for within-municipal area inequality. In Model 2, an important proxy of civic capacity is added, namely the number of NGOs and NPOs. Notably, the number of NGOs and NPOs not only serves as an indicator of civil capacity and possibly institutional legacy effects, but it also hints at a proactive local government which encourages the progress of NGOs and NPOs into social enterprises or a local government which prefers to outsource, although this is only speculative and interpretive. The inclusion of NGOs and NPOs renders the effects of population density and the number of temporary and daily workers insignificant. In Model 3, indicators of local government proactiveness are added that gauge the political will of a local government to enable social economy organizations, as measured by the enactment of a local social economy promotion ordinance and the establishment of a social economy support center, which are both shown to be highly significant. In Model 4, indicators of local government's promotion of welfare and the degree of third-party governance are added, as measured by social expenditure and the current transfer to the private sector amount, both of which are shown to be highly significant. However, the effect of the number of NGOs and NPOs is decreased. In Model 5, year is controlled for by introducing a year dummy, which is, unsurprisingly, found to be highly significant. Adding a year dummy renders the proportion of the elderly, social expenditure, and the existence of a social economy promotion ordinance insignificant, slightly decreases the significance of the existence of a social economy support center, and makes the number of NGOs and NPOs highly significant again. In Model 6, the impact of the number of healthcare and social welfare organizations in an area is considered, which is shown to be insignificant. The finding that the number of healthcare and social service organizations in an area has no significant effect implies, however, that the effect of third-party governance is limited and that institutional legacies may have an impact, although the latter cannot be measured given the absence of data on cooperatives for the year 2007. Furthermore, the lack of a significant impact for the

social expenditure variable, in conjunction with that of the number of healthcare and social service organizations, implies that the current transfer to private sector amount is, in part, directed towards social enterprises. In Model 7, the impacts of the following are tested for: GRDP, total population, and the number of businesses, which shows that both total population and the number of businesses are highly significant. In Model 8, the effect of the total number of businesses is tested for as an addition to Model 5, which shows that this explanatory variable is insignificant. In Model 9, a total population variable is integrated into Model 5, which is also shown to be insignificant and suggests that municipal size as measured by population size is not a significant driver of agglomeration. Finally, in Model 10, the effects of the following are tested for: the number of associations and organizations and universities as indicators of civil society, apartment mean price as an environmental factor, and also the number and proportion of NBLs welfare recipients, all of which are shown to be insignificant; an important implication of Model 10 is that civil society broadly has no effect, yet civil society in its NGO/NPO organizational form geared towards welfare does, which also implies that there may be an institutional legacies effect; alternatively, this could be indicative of a collaborative relationship between local government and NGOs and NPOs, such as through third-party governance mechanisms. The finding that areas with more NBLs recipients who may be liable to participate in work integration programs do not necessarily have relatively high levels of social enterprise agglomeration, in contrast with the findings of Chapter 3, also implies that social enterprises may not be responding to area-specific demands for employment (i.e. either they do not necessarily aim to recruit from their specific municipal area or local demand for regular employment is not a key placement factor). Models 6-10 essentially serve as robustness checks for Model 5. These models collectively suggest, as discussed in the overview of the Korean literature, that environmental demand-side factors at the local level do not drive social enterprise agglomeration, although this finding should not be understood to imply that social enterprises are founded only due to government demand given that only a portion of their budgets are derived from state support. These findings rather accentuate the role of local government, and suggest that social enterprises have a broad scope in terms of their business models.

Model 5 represents the most substantive model. It suggests that environmental factors and social welfare demand do not have a significant impact on social

enterprise agglomeration, that local government proactiveness as measured by the establishment of a social economy support center is significant at the 5 percent level, and that both the number of NGOs and NPOs and third-party governance as measured by the current transfer to private sector amount are highly significant determinants. The finding that the year dummy is highly significant confirms the rapid scaling of social enterprise in Korea, and suggests that social enterprises scaled in areas where NGOs and NPOs did and areas where local government tends to outsource welfare and social services. Current transfer to private sector amount is shown to have the biggest effect. Importantly, social enterprise agglomeration is shown to not only be government, top-down driven and is, evidently, conditional on civic capacity. It may be suggested that the relationship between social enterprises and the government will have parallels to the relationship between the government and NGOs and NPOs (Kim and Lee, 2009). This would suggest that a resource-dependent model is a valid analytical tool (Kim and Lee, 2009). It also suggests that social enterprises emerge where arrangements exist with local government that are NGO- and NPO-friendly.

Evidence cannot be found for the effect of institutional legacies at the local level, though this was to be expected given that data on the number of ‘new’ cooperatives in a municipal area for the year 2007 could not be located. In order to gauge the impact of cooperatives, it may therefore be suggested that a qualitative comparative analysis be performed in areas with a history of cooperative organization and areas lacking such a legacy.

This chapter’s findings suggest that social enterprise agglomeration in Korea is primarily supply-side driven and that social enterprise formation is a result of government demand-side opportunity signaling. The findings that social expenditure and the number of healthcare and social service organizations in a municipal area have no effect implies that social spending and competition, or the absence thereof, do not influence social enterprise agglomeration. There is only a highly significant effect when third-party governance as measured by current transfer to private sector amount with the intent to promote social entrepreneurship can be inferred. This cannot serve as a pronouncement as to how social enterprises interact with their local communities, and therefore a series of social network analyses are suggested (see Kim and Kim 2014) to gauge their interaction.

### 5.3 Longitudinal Models

The conditional negative binomial models shown in Table 5.5 confirm the findings in Model 5 of this chapter's cross-sectional pooled conditional negative binomial models. Nevertheless, this chapter's longitudinal models show that the number of NGOs and NPOs has a bigger effect than current transfer to private sector amount. This implies that social enterprise agglomeration is conditional on participation from civil society organizations, and, by virtue of such, on civic capacity.

**Table 5.5: Negative binomial models predicting social enterprise foundings in urban areas for years 2007 and 2016**

	(1) 2007	(2) 2016
(Intercept)	-7.24 (6.99)	-7.78*** (2.00)
Gross regional domestic product, per capita (logged)	-0.19 (0.29)	0.19* (0.08)
Population density (logged)	0.27 (0.15)	-0.04 (0.04)
Inequality (logged)	-0.03 (0.32)	-0.15 (0.11)
Elderly population, %	0.05 (0.07)	0.01 (0.01)
Temporary and daily workers, %	-0.04 (0.06)	-0.02 (0.02)
NGOs/NPOs (logged)	0.35 (0.25)	0.50*** (0.07)
Social economy promotion ordinance, yes/no		0.11 (0.08)
Social economy support center		0.24** (0.08)
Social expenditure (logged)	-0.20 (0.59)	0.51* (0.21)
Current transfer to private sector (logged)	0.50 (0.35)	0.40*** (0.10)
AIC	233.49	817.67
BIC	263.32	853.48
Log Likelihood	-106.74	-396.84
Deviance	124.10	153.77
Num. obs.	146	146

\*\*\*p < 0.001, \*\*p < 0.01, \*p < 0.05

Figures 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 illustrate the effects of civic capacity, as measured by the number of NGOs and NPOs, as well as local government proactiveness as illustrated by the effects of a social economy support center and current transfer to private sector amount. In order to calculate the x-axis of Figure 4.1, data on NGOs and NPOs are normalized by municipal area. Figures are from 2016, given that only the year 2016 was found to be significant.

Figure 4.1: Civic capacity as a predictor for social enterprise agglomeration

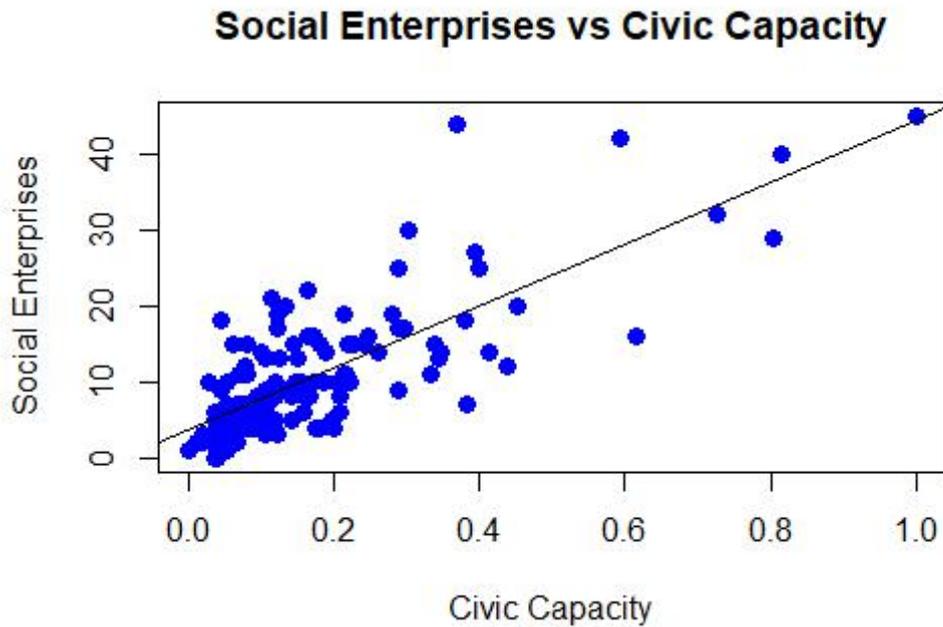


Figure 4.2: The existence of a social economy support center as a predictor for social enterprise agglomeration

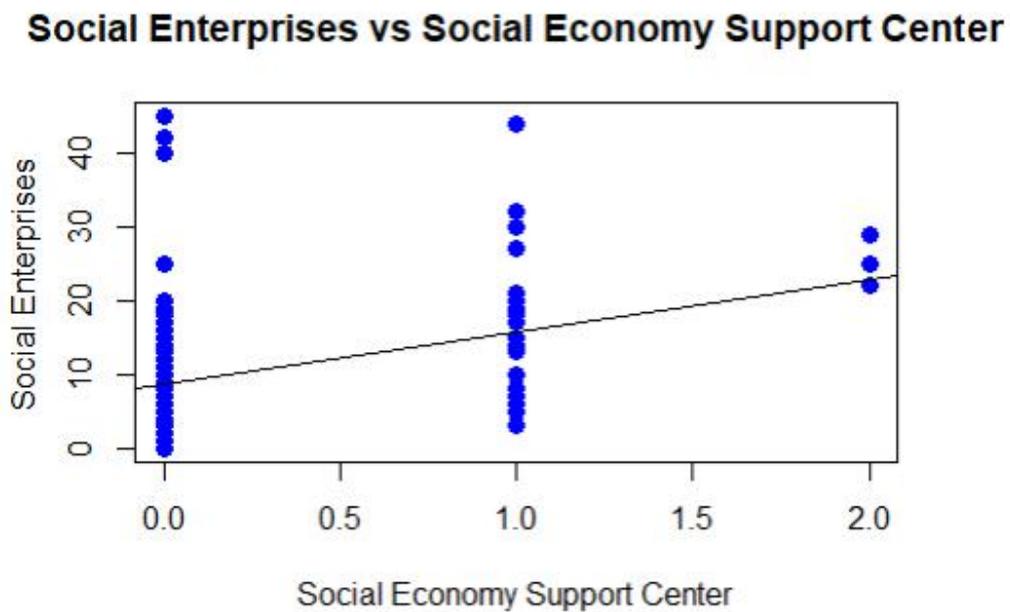
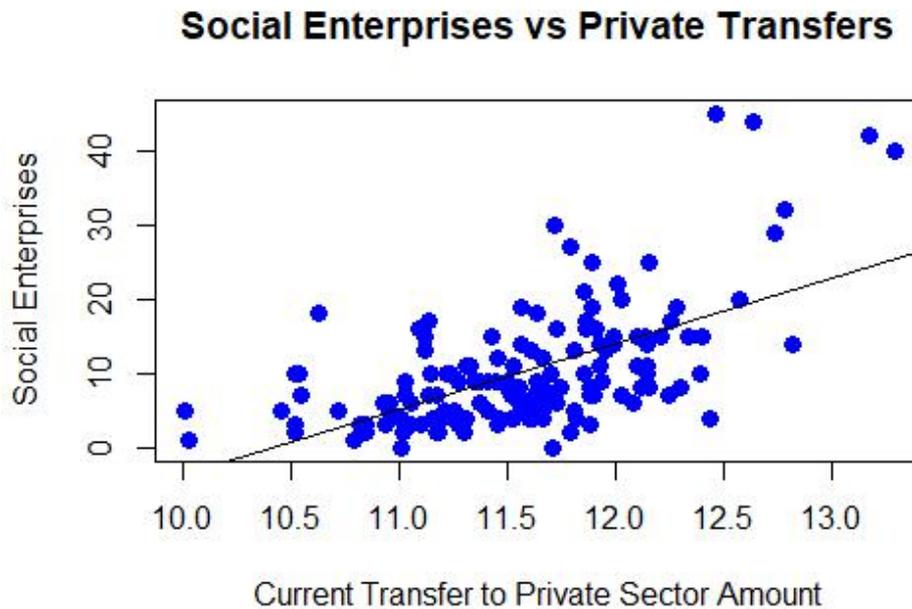


Figure 4.3: Local government current transfer to private sector amount as a predictor for social enterprise agglomeration



From the figures, we can draw the conclusion that the effect of NGOs and NPOs as a proxy for civic capacity is stronger than that of local government spending on social enterprises, although both are important predictors for social enterprise agglomeration. Furthermore, as shown in Figure 4.2, the existence of a social economy support center does lead to some agglomeration, although the effect is less pronounced than that of civic capacity (i.e. civil society prominence) as measured by the number of NGOs/NPOs and local government spending (e.g. subsidization or outsourcing) as measured by current transfer to private sector amount. Civic capacity also has a stronger effect than local government spending. This finding is important because it suggests that, as shown in Chapter 3, high numbers of NGOs and NPOs do not necessarily base themselves solely in areas where they may be able to benefit from local government spending, although it is an important factor. It is also interesting to note that the municipal area with the highest number of social enterprises has no social economy support center. There are, similarly, areas with low civic capacity but high agglomerations of social enterprises (i.e. there are areas with relatively low numbers of NGOs and NPOs but relatively high numbers of social enterprises), whereas such outliers are not observed in Figure 4.3. The results of this chapter confirm the findings made in Chapter 3 that civil society prominence is an

important driver of social enterprise agglomeration, and that agglomeration is not merely the result of top-down government intervention. Although, the highly significant relationship between social enterprises and local government spending does imply a degree of dependence, which is to be expected. As discussed in Chapter 1, WISEs in Europe also show a degree of dependency on the public sector (see Gardin, 2006) and Korean social enterprises are no different. The finding that the number of businesses in a municipal area proves significant though in that it shows that the number of social enterprises is not merely a function of the number of local organizations.

To further discuss these findings, it is important to add that the correlation between government spending, as measured by the current transfer to the private sector amount, and the number of NGOs and NPOs is significant at the 5 percent level, as shown in Appendix 12. This suggests that third party governance is a significant driver of NGO and NPO agglomeration in municipal areas as well. This coupled with the findings in Chapter 3 and the current chapter that local government social expenditure is only significant at the 10 percent level, implies that only local government spending in terms of third party governance policies (i.e. current transfer to private sector amount) establishes the local arrangements that allow social enterprises, NGOs, and NPOs to flourish. This underlines the important role of local government as an enabler.

To restate earlier findings, Chapter 3 shows that there is also a strong correlation between cooperatives, on the one hand, and the number of social enterprises and NGO and NPOs. This finding suggests that local civil societies defined by a proclivity for establishing third sector organizations, or which have a demand for such organizations, possibly see the emergence of local arrangements such as those defined by third party governance as a result of the capacity of local civil society to form these types of organizations, or lure them, and also enter into collaborative arrangements with local governments. Cooperative forms of organization precede democratization and the enactment of third-party governance arrangements. KBIZ Korea Federation of SMEs (see Johap, n.d.), for instance, was founded in 1962, and among its current list of 941 member cooperatives and member cooperative federations, 215 gained membership before democratization and 403 before the Asian Financial Crisis and the ascension of third-party governance arrangements that resulted as a consequence. Importantly, many cooperatives acted

independently of the state even during the pre-democratic era when the state had a 'repressive' relationship vis-à-vis social economy organizations. That social enterprises and NGOs and NPOs tend to agglomerate in the same municipal districts as cooperatives gives credence to the notion of civic capacity as a driver of agglomeration, and also NGOs and NPOs being proxies of civic capacity.

It is important to point out that this longitudinal analysis suffers as a result of the relatively short time span of the social enterprise promotion initiative. The initiative only started in 2007, at a time when there was very low awareness of 'social entrepreneurship' itself. Thus, no significant findings could be made for 2007, as the initiative was still in its infancy and later interventions, such as the creation of KOSEA, had not yet occurred. The amendments made to SEPA in 2010 made the intervention more comprehensive and it may thus be justifiably speculated that 2011 represents a significant inflection point that fundamentally altered the social enterprise landscape.

## **6. Conclusion and Discussion**

This chapter combined web scraping, spatial analysis, as well as conditional panel negative binomial models (e.g. Dutta, 2017) of social enterprise foundings from 2007 to 2016 to rigorously, in a causal manner, test Chapter 3's findings, which were only correlative. Although it was not possible to prove the results of Chapter 3 through this chapter's causal models due to the relatively short period that has passed since public sector social enterprise promotion started, this chapter did test and refine the results of Chapter 3 by introducing more refined variables (e.g. current transfer to private sector amount), that could better explain the mechanisms and dynamics associated with social enterprise foundings. This chapter also expanded on Chapter 3 by analyzing the results of Chapter 3 from more theoretically refined perspectives. Through the utilization of these perspectives, this chapter furthermore also extended the research on public sector-social enterprise interactions, on how alternative forms of organization have become more prevalent and legitimated in certain institutional contexts, as well as how issue salience interacts with local-level institutional actors and domains. Significantly, it was found that there is much variation in social enterprise numbers at the local level as a result of local institutional features. The theoretical approach used within this chapter, which built on the largely empirical

Chapter 3, also potentially provides a theoretical framework for future research.

This chapter's findings confirm, as was found in Chapter 3, that municipal areas where the local government and civil society are both proactive institutionalist actors tend to have relatively higher levels of social enterprise agglomeration, and that agglomeration is not merely accidental (e.g., Room, 2011) nor due to environmental factors or spatial spillover effects. The success of state regulatory intervention in legitimizing this novel form of organization has thus been evidently contingent upon participation from local civil society actors, which can be taken as a measure of local civic capacity or the prominence of civil society.

King and Pearce (2010: 258) write that the production of new organizational forms "involves reimagining the possibilities to which markets may be put to use." It is suggested here that the state's vision of social enterprises as social welfare-oriented organizations that have market capabilities has largely materialized in municipal districts defined by institutions that facilitate the emergence of new forms of social economy organizations. The emergence of significant social enterprise agglomerations reflects the institutions of municipal districts. This also suggests that social enterprises, in turn, possibly further engender and legitimate these institutions. As argued in this dissertation, cooperatives may have engendered institutions within certain municipal districts that increased their propensity to found social economy organizations such as social enterprises. This implies that social enterprises have gained legitimacy that exceeds nominal legitimacy granted by the state, and have gained substantive legitimacy as organizations that populate municipal districts diffused with entrenched social economy cultures. The transformative potential of the state's capacity to induce the founding of new forms of private organization that exceed mere nominal legitimacy is thus mediated by local institutional settings, although this chapter does provide evidence that the state can indeed induce substantive social innovation by legitimizing new private organizational forms.

This chapter confirms that the state can induce the founding of new private organizations, and even if they're somewhat dependent on the state there is still a value added component because social enterprises only derive a portion of their budget from the state and the rest from the market and elsewhere. Social enterprises are not fully dependent on the state and state support is also not indefinite (Choi and Kim, 2014). As highlighted in Chapter 1, government subsidies have been decreasing while the number of social enterprises has continued to increase. This suggests that

social enterprise dependence on government subsidies has been decreasing.

The main limitation of this chapter is that it, as with Chapter 3, defines legitimacy in terms of the number of social enterprises, yet such an analysis does not allow us to draw any conclusions about the quality of social enterprises in a given municipal area or their interactions with their environment and other institutional actors. The success of the state's initiative to promote social enterprises cannot purely be assessed by measuring the number of social enterprises, although it certainly is a valid indicator. The analysis of a series of individual districts by means of network analyses or other methods to measure more qualitatively the impact of social enterprises is therefore proposed. This suggestion builds on the experimental and exploratory research undertaken in Chapter 2. As it relates to Chapter 2, it may be suggested that public sentiment of social enterprises should be measured at the local or regional levels by examining local or regional newspapers, which would contribute significantly to measuring the receptivity to social enterprises by local civil societies from municipal district to municipal district. This would be a useful measure of legitimacy at the local level and may be able to capture local institutional features that are conducive to social enterprise foundings.

This analysis, along with that of Chapter 3, suffers from other shortcomings as well. First, examining social enterprise agglomeration at the municipal district level may, by default, impose a bias towards local government. However, given that social enterprise is being promoted by the public sector, it is important to account for the role of local government. Nevertheless, it may be suggested that a future analysis should examine agglomeration at the sub-district level in order to account for environmental variables in a more fine-grained manner (e.g. in some districts the indicators of affluence vary significantly from neighborhood to neighborhood). Similarly, given that significant agglomerations do exist in some rural areas, it is important to study these areas as well.

Furthermore, given that unemployment data could not be incorporated due to its absence for Seoul's districts, this important demand-side variable could not be accounted for. In future studies, metropolitan areas which have data for all districts should be analyzed given that the majority of social enterprises in Korea aim to create jobs. In this chapter this approach was not adopted because Seoul has more social enterprises than any other metropolitan city.



## Conclusion and Discussion

### *The State-Induced Scaling of a New Organizational Form in Korea*

The catalyst of this dissertation was the emergence and rapid scaling, through the instruments of the state, of a new organizational form in the Korean context, namely social enterprise. The Korean state has in the past promoted various organizational forms to confront different forms of vulnerability, though income vulnerability (i.e. precarity) has traditionally been the most salient policy issue. One notable example of this during the pre-democratic era was the state-led promotion of rural organizations that sought to facilitate village infrastructure improvement and to raise rural household income. Likewise, corporate-sponsored welfare programs and organizations as well as privately run welfare organizations also have a long tradition in Korea, partly due to the underdevelopment and dualistic nature of the Korean welfare state.<sup>42</sup> Self-help communities and self-help enterprises preceded social enterprises as state-promoted welfare organizations. At the same time, Korea has seen the concurrent state promotion and rapid scaling of other social economy organizations alongside social enterprises, including self-help enterprises (see Ministry of the Interior and Safety, 2019), social cooperatives, and community businesses (see Ministry of Health and Welfare, 2018). These organizational forms have been promoted by the state as measures to respond to persistent and widespread job precariousness and entrenched labor market duality. These complex, interlinked and intractable social issues resulted from the structural reforms and changes to the economy enacted by the state in response to the 1997 Asian Financial Crisis and have been aggravated by an underdeveloped welfare state. The Korean state has thus responded to social welfare needs by contracting out welfare service delivery and job creation obligations to organizational forms benchmarked and promoted by itself: the Korean dirigiste model of social enterprise, inspired by a combination of the British and Italian models. The Korean state has conceived of welfare in productivist terms and has sought to promote primarily work integration-oriented organizations, such as self-help enterprises and self-help support centers (Bidet, 2006; Noh and Lee, 2018).

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<sup>42</sup> Korea's social expenditure is comparatively low (7.6 percent of GDP in 2007) and has traditionally been tied to social insurance programs, such as healthcare and pensions which account for 70 percent of total social expenditure. By contrast, social service programs that support families and employment are underdeveloped. (Yang, 2013)

In other words, the logic of welfare has permeated the Korean state's approach to welfare, while there has been a general aversion to increasing social expenditure. The scaling of social enterprise in Korea should be framed within this context. That the vast majority of state-certified social enterprises identify as "job creation" social enterprises serves as a compelling illustration of the manifestation of this logic.

Social enterprise promotion has been the flagship program of the Korean state's promotion of private welfare-oriented organizations, and certified social enterprises outnumber, in terms of individual categories, social cooperatives, self-help enterprises, and community businesses. They also represent an intriguing organizational innovation in the Korean context because the notion of a hybrid organization that espouses and reconciles both profit and social motives was foreign to Korea until recently. In Korea, social contribution and profit were seen in dichotomous terms when the government opted to enact legal support for the promotion of social enterprise. Although cooperatives, as another type of social economy organization, have a long tradition in Korea, there is a stark distinction between 'old' and 'new' cooperatives, with the former having been government-directed and having rigid top-down structures that existed only for the benefit of their members, as opposed to organizations defined by autonomy and driven by voluntary membership (Kim, 2013). The Korean state's strong support of social enterprise as an autonomous self-help organizational form is itself founded upon a long tradition of organization promotion. It is also consistent with the state's desire to address unemployment and employment precarity without incurring high levels of public expenditure through public schemes and public works programs that would necessarily be sponsored by the Ministry of Employment and Labor or local governments (Bidet, 2006). Yet, social enterprise as promoted by the state is novel in the sense of how the relationship between the state and these organizations has been framed as complementary and egalitarian and, consequently, the greater degree of flexibility social enterprises enjoy (see Kim, 2013). The same is true for 'new' cooperatives (see Kim, 2013). 'New' organizations are thus relatively unbounded.

Considering the phenomenon of a state-led promotion of social enterprise in a context where this organizational form has been sparse and largely obscure, the question is then whether social enterprises have attained legitimacy and become mainstreamed after more than a decade of state-led promotion. This dissertation has sought to investigate this question through an empirical analysis of the diffusion of

social enterprises and their support organizations and other organizations that constitute their ecosystem(s).

Chapter 1 framed the empirical analyses of the succeeding chapters. In this chapter, a historical institutionalist analysis was conducted to contextualize the institutional environment within which social enterprise has emerged and to investigate the relationship between the state and the entry of social enterprises into the market as new entrants that would benefit from limited state support. I have shown that the emergence of social enterprise in Korea has largely been driven by the state's desire to respond to demand-side pressures to create employment opportunities. This historical institutionalist analysis conducted in this chapter suggests that, although historical institutionalism is often used to analyze the constraints imposed by history on subsequent possibilities (see Thelen, 1999), the path dependencies that history imposes can also conjure particular capabilities that may be deployed in novel and strategic ways by social and political actors to open up and forge new possibilities. The emergence of new possibilities or the emergence of a certain possibility amongst a plethora is subject to and predicated upon the power differentials and strategic-political agility that define these actors. This chapter argues that the emergence and rapid diffusion of social enterprise in Korea, an environment in which it was previously virtually absent and obscure and almost unknown, is inextricably linked to the state's patronage; the Korean state being an actor that wields significant power and enjoys popular legitimacy owing to its developmentalist legacy. This chapter illustrated the processes that underpin the emergence of state-backed social enterprise in Korea are traced by means of a historical institutionalist analysis. Through this approach, the Korean setting was contextualized and framed within Korea's legacy of developmentalism and its history of state-led productivist interventions aimed at producing welfare outcomes.

Chapter 2, a largely experimental chapter, investigated whether the state has been able to imbue social enterprise with legitimacy by two broadly interlinked ways. First, a preliminary analysis of discourse was conducted on social enterprise by identifying key themes and measuring sentiments and opinions from a variety of different outlets, broadly categorized into academic, journalistic, and miscellaneous. Measuring sentiment was construed as a measure of legitimacy. Secondly, an ecosystem of social enterprise support organizations was constructed by means of web scraping and crawling techniques. In this chapter it was shown that both

measures suggest that social enterprise is recognized as a legitimate organizational form, despite being a new entrant in the Korean environmental setting. This is suggested by: (i) the relative absence of derogation in public discourse from across the political spectrum, and (ii) the growth of a social enterprise support ecosystem that is now constituted by a constellation of public as well as private actors. The existence of a plethora of private actors, from conglomerates to associations to think tanks, that actively support social enterprises suggests that civil society views these organizations as legitimate. It furthermore suggests that new configurations of actors have emerged to collectively address specified social issues. It is also worth noting that social enterprise promotion has spawned regional social economy associations throughout the country. It is evident from the inter-organizational network analysis conducted in this chapter that social enterprises tend to be members of well-integrated support networks, typically constituted both by public and private sector actors. It can be deduced that these support networks may bestow a degree of institutional legitimacy and also aid them, through the dispensing of various types of resources, as they integrate into a new cultural context and navigate their institutional environment(s). The discourse analysis revealed that the government is still the key actor in availing support to social enterprises, as confirmed by the inter-organizational network analysis, and that employment provision, social service provision, vulnerable social groups, and local and regional community are motifs that characterize the operations of social enterprises in Korea. The inter-organizational network analysis revealed that local government tends to also be an important actor in the social enterprise ecosystem. These findings suggest that there is variation at the local level in terms of how successful social enterprises have been in entering novel local environments and managing to sustain themselves. Furthermore, this chapter thus presents two means of measuring the legitimacy of social enterprises as new organizational forms: (1) legitimacy measured via sentiment, and (2) legitimacy measured via the presence of interorganizational networks populated by both public sector and non-public sector actors.

Based on the findings in Chapter 2 that suggested geographic variation in the relative presence or absence of social enterprises, in Chapter 3, it was assumed that (3) agglomeration at the local level is an indicator of legitimacy given that it is a valid measure of how receptive the public has been towards this organizational form as local governments cannot establish or certify social enterprises by themselves. This

indicator of legitimacy measures from whether social enterprises have been able to successfully establish themselves in a local environment and reconcile their goals with the demands of that given environment, although admittedly this is not an infallible indicator. This chapter therefore adopted a decidedly quantitative approach to measuring the supply- and demand-side and environmental factors that may explain variations in levels of agglomeration, standard for 2016. It was shown that social enterprise agglomeration is greatest in urban municipal areas where the local government is proactive in promoting social enterprises and where NGOs, NPOs, and cooperatives are relatively prominent as measured by their relative number in relation to other urban municipal areas. These organizations were collectively categorized as proxies for civil society prominence. Control variables were incorporated to ensure that differences were not due to size-related variables, such as the size of the local market or differences in population. Significantly, it was found that social enterprise numbers are low in municipal areas where only the local government is proactive in promoting social enterprise in the absence of a relatively significant number of civil society organizations, yet that the converse is not true. Significant levels of agglomeration were found in areas with a relatively strong presence of civil society organizations but a passive or disinterested local government. It was also found that there is a significant positive correlation between the total number of welfare recipients in a municipal district expressed as a percentage and the total number of social enterprises, and, furthermore, that social enterprise agglomeration is not influenced by political ideology or party politics. These findings suggest that social enterprises have achieved organizational legitimacy in certain institutional environments both characterized by public sector and private sector collaboration and those devoid of public sector collaboration. This suggests that the notion of legitimacy via presence in the form of agglomeration is a valid measure of legitimacy given that social enterprise presence was not contingent upon public sector support and endorsement at the local level in the year 2016, nearly a decade after the Social Enterprise Promotion Act was enforced.

This development echoes the earlier successes of civil society organizations following the democratization of Korea, with NGOs and NPOS managing to successfully integrate into the institutional mainstream as important social and political organizations. They also attained comparatively high levels of credibility, though not untarnished, as measured by public perception surveys, despite Korea

having a relatively short history of such organizations in comparison to Western societies (Chang, 2011). Although the democratic transition in the 1980s created an institutional environment within which these organizations could be founded, it is an institutional reconfiguration (e.g. the enactment of supportive policies and laws) that manifested in increased government funding in the 1990s and 2000s that accelerated the pace of NGO and NPO foundings (Chang, 2011). The Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs, as well as provincial and local governments, were delegated with administering grants to NGOs and NPOs in a competitive manner (Chang, 2011). The share of government funding of these civil society organizations in the revenue sources of these organizations came to resemble that of major industrialized countries (Chang, 2011). The 2000 Law on Support of Nonprofit Civic Organizations mandated these public sector entities with these responsibilities (Chang, 2011). NGOs came to enjoy a positive public perception and were successfully integrated into Korea's institutional mainstream, although their reputation would later be tarnished by financial impropriety scandals (Chang, 2011). The scaling of new type cooperatives was similarly, in part, enabled by local government support (Kwon et al, 2016). This public sector-infused mechanism of inducing the founding and scaling of civil society organizations and social economy organizations necessarily has implications in terms of 'imprinting' (See Marquis and Qiao, 2018; Marquis and Tilcsik, 2013) vis-à-vis the organizational character of these organizations. A detailed analysis of the characteristics that reliance of government funding imparts, though, is beyond the scope of this dissertation. It can be justifiably postulated, though, that social enterprises benefited from an institutional legacy effect in municipal areas where institutional configurations emerged, particularly as they relate to collaboration between local government and these civil society organizations, that allowed for the scaling of civil society organizations.

Chapter 4 tested the findings of Chapter 3 in a more rigorous manner by means of two time-period (2007, 2016) longitudinal, conditional negative binomial models. Moreover, it further theoretically framed this dissertation by incorporating institutionalist, organizational ecology, and political economy perspectives. In this chapter these perspectives were employed to examine why some municipal districts are more successful in attracting, legitimizing, and promoting social enterprise as an organizational form than others from a more theoretical perspective, as opposed to the exploratory, empirical approach that was adopted in Chapter 3 and which was

informed by Korea's historical institutionalist legacy as elaborated upon in Chapter 1. This chapter included a more refined analysis of local government proactiveness in promoting social enterprise by incorporating data from local government budgets. This data indicate that there is a highly significant and positive relationship between the budget item "Current transfer to private sector" and the number of social enterprises. This implies that local governments that actively employ third-party governance mechanism policies to promote and outsource to private organizations are more likely to attract (aspiring) social enterprises; for that matter, the same may be true with regard to NGOs and NPOs, as the two latter organization types have a longer history of being beneficiaries of outsourcing than social enterprises. However, the findings in this chapter also confirmed, as was revealed in Chapter 3, that there is no relationship between either social expenditure or the number of social service and healthcare providers and social enterprise agglomeration, which suggests that there is not a substitution effect that drives agglomeration, nor any form of complementarity. Rather, in terms of local government proactiveness, social enterprise agglomeration is the direct result of targeted promotion by means of the allocation of a portion of a local government's budget for the fostering of social enterprises. The finding that there is a significant positive relationship between the existence of a social economy support center, which is typically the creation of a local government, and the number of social enterprises lends credence to this finding. Nevertheless, the findings of Chapter 3 that social enterprise agglomeration is contingent upon civil society and that the local government plays an enabling role, are confirmed by studying the effects of both proxies for local government proactiveness and civil society prominence, which reveals that civil society prominence has a stronger effect than local government proactiveness. Thus, social enterprise agglomeration in Korea has primarily been supply-side driven and has sought to attract entrepreneurs who are responsive to the state's demand-side opportunity signaling. Importantly, this process is contingent upon civil society responsiveness, and the empirical findings of this chapter confirm that civil society has been receptive. As shown in Chapter 3 and confirmed in Chapter 4, not all local governments are successful in their endeavor to attract or foster social enterprises, which underlines the importance of civil society prominence in a given urban municipal district. Urban municipal districts with a deeply ingrained tradition of collaboration between local government and civil society organizations, particularly those with a strong social motive, are thus more likely to

see social enterprise agglomeration. Notably, environmental attributes in general and environmental features such as GDP, mean apartment price, level of inequality, the total number of businesses, and population density were found to be insignificant predictors, which implies that affluence and the distribution of wealth or the size of the market in a given municipal district are not valid explanatory factors. In other words, local governments with larger budgets via taxation and therefore a greater degree of financial independence or self-reliance do not necessarily foster or attract more social enterprises. Local institutions and the conditions that define them appear to be the most powerful predictor; while local government support does accelerate the scaling process of a local social enterprise sector, the agglomeration of social enterprises is nevertheless not contingent upon local government support and is more strongly affected by the presence of civil society organizations. This suggests that the erstwhile formation of civil society or social economy organizations in certain municipal districts induced the formation of certain institutional configurations and legacies that are conducive to the founding of other civil society organizations (e.g. Greve and Rao, 2012, 2014), even in the absence of local government support. The finding in Chapter 3 that there is a significant positive correlation between the number of cooperatives in a municipal area and the number of social enterprises lends credence to the findings of Chapter 4 given that cooperatives predate democratization in Korea, and are thus a valid indicator of local civic capacity for social economy organization formation. By extension, the significant positive correlation between the number of cooperatives and NGOs and NPOs implies that the latter two are also valid proxies for local civic capacity to attract or form civil society organizations and social economy organizations and also forge collaborative arrangements with local government.

The outlined analytical approaches provided a panoramic view of how Korea's social enterprise sector has matured since the state-induced 2007 inflection point. The following findings resulted from this research. First, there are significant parallels between pre-democratic era self-sufficiency-oriented welfare programs and the current social enterprise promotion policy, although the democratization of Korea has demanded that this relationship be more egalitarian. Secondly, more than a decade after legislation was enacted that mandated the promotion of social enterprises, a rich, complex ecosystem populated by various overlapping communities and private and public sector actors has emerged. Thirdly, there has been an explosion in discourse on

social enterprise, even when controlling for political orientation. Furthermore, public discourse on social enterprise tends to be mostly neutral in tone, and more positive than negative. Social enterprise in Korea thus appears not to be politically polarized, although this may change in the future. Fourthly, most discourse on social enterprise has been on the motives of social enterprise, as well as the job creation mandate assigned to social enterprises by the state. There has also been much discourse on state support of social enterprises, the outcomes of this support, and geography as it pertains to social enterprise. Finally, social enterprise agglomerations tend to emerge in communities, defined as municipal districts, with relatively prominent civil societies<sup>43</sup> and proactive local governments<sup>44</sup> and also in communities with relatively prominent civil societies but apathetic local governments that lack interest in promoting social enterprise. In municipal districts where the local government is proactive but civil society is relatively dormant, there tended to be no significant agglomerations of social enterprises. These findings imply that the social enterprise sector in Korea has matured to such an extent that it is no longer solely reliant on state support. These findings show that civil society and the private sector have both accepted social enterprise as a legitimate organizational form. The social enterprise sector has become characterized by public sector-social enterprise partnerships, largely autonomous social enterprise networks, and social enterprises that are decreasingly dependent on public sector support. Social enterprises in Korea are thus not artificial manifestations of rent-seeking organizations that aim to exploit state resources; to the contrary, the evidence suggests that these organizations are perceived of as legitimate organizations in the Korean landscape and are becoming increasingly popular.

This dissertation provides the empirical foundations for more theoretical research, as well as more fine-grained and granular empirical research on the interaction between institutional environments and organizations and into the creative and enabling properties of institutions. This dissertation is theoretically relevant in that it employs Korea as a case study to examine how political and social actors, as proxies of ‘agency’, can draw on institutions, despite the constraints imposed by them, and the capabilities endowed by these institutions to explore new possibilities.

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<sup>43</sup> Municipal areas marked by relatively high numbers of civil society and social economy organizations, although social enterprises are excluded from consideration as a proxy due to possible measurement bias.

<sup>44</sup> Local governments which seek to promote social entrepreneurship.

Schneiberg (2007: 48) notes that much energy has been devoted to documenting “how established established institutional paths contain within them possibilities and resources for transformation, off-path organization and the creation of new organizational forms.” In Korea, this phenomenon manifested in the promotion and legitimization of a previously obscure welfare-oriented organizational form by a powerful, strategic, and agile actor, namely the state. Room (2016) defines the ‘agility’ of actors as the capability of actors to confront precarious and complex problems thoughtfully by actively reshaping and recalibrating, in part, the institutional landscape on which social interactions occur to create new options. Room (2016) argues that implicit to such “thoughtful” action are mental models that anticipate how the world will unfold and what possibilities exist, within the context of social institutions, to steer projections in directions, sometimes conflicting, actors wish. This notion is particularly pertinent to the findings of this dissertation. Agency, in the form of agile actors, can thus steer a given geographic community, here defined as an urban municipal district, towards the formation of certain institutional arrangements by strategically crafting new possibilities, here social enterprises as organizational forms, that redefine their local institutional arrangements. In this dissertation, it is shown how the state can induce the founding of new private, market-friendly organizational forms that act in its interests, although whether these organizational forms flourish depends on the institutional settings of a given municipal district.

This case study of Korea shows what can happen under developmental states, or states defined by the legacy thereof, that managed to build strong democratic institutions. Albeit, this also affects the expected role that social enterprises, at least those affiliated to the state via certification, are then prescribed to play. These states, which were typically authoritarian until the late 20th century, have to navigate settings defined and shaped by the interests of a variety of actors, who themselves continuously shape these institutions, in steering society in strategic ways. This shapes the habitat in which social enterprises are cultivated and imprints certain characteristics, as shown in the overwhelmingly work integration orientation of social enterprises in Korea.

The findings of this research contribute to different literatures. First, they contribute to the literature on the welfare state by detailing the processes and results of the state-induced popularization of social economy organizations, such as social enterprises. This has implications for ‘third-party governance’ as a system in which

elements of public authority are delegated to non-governmental actors. In particular, this research highlights how the state succeeded in popularizing potentially self-sufficient welfare-oriented organizations, as opposed to imposing such organizations. Second, this research contributes to, *inter alia*, the fields of Korean studies, institutional theory, organizational ecology, political economy, and urban studies by utilizing the Korean context to determine whether a national government can induce the founding, evolution, and legitimation of private organizations that serve its interests. Finally, this research contributes to the narrative on public sector and social enterprise interactions by explicating the dynamics that have defined the relationship between state support and social enterprise popularization and empowerment.

### *Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research*

This dissertation endeavored primarily to gauge, both qualitatively and quantitatively, the legitimacy of the Korean state's certified social enterprises through empirical means at the macro and meso levels. The limitations of this research stem from this approach and calls for future research.

First, the Korean experience ought to be set within a wider theoretical debate. Doing such would open an array of possible research avenues that warrant attention. First, Korea's experiences with the developmental state echo earlier contrasts drawn between Germany and countries in the Anglosphere. The Korean case highlights the capabilities of a developmental state that manages to build strong democratic institutions, which allows for comparison to a developmental state such as Germany which failed to facilitate the emergence of strong democratic institutions due to its domination by conservative forces in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Secondly, it is imperative to situate Korea within the wider international context by comparing and contrasting the Korean experience of fostering social enterprises to that of political regimes that have had similar experiences owing, it can be speculated, to their shared developmental state heritage, such as Hong Kong (Ho and Chang, 2010; Chui et al, 2019; Leung et al, 2019) and Taiwan (Wu et al, 2018). The government is a key actor in social enterprise promotion in both Hong Kong and Taiwan; and in Hong Kong there has been, as is the case with Korea, a rapid proliferation of work integration social enterprises, which account for 70 percent of all social enterprises

(Chui et al, 2019; Leung et al, 2019). Future research should aim to situate, categorize, and systematically analyze the commonalities and differences between them and also situate this approach to leveraging and stimulating social enterprises within the wider international context of European and North American interfaces between the state and social enterprise. Conducting comparative research may contribute to the literature on state engagements with social enterprise and vice versa.

In terms of shortcomings and suggestions for further research as it pertains to the study of social entrepreneurship, it is important for future research to be conducted in a number of domains. First, in this dissertation, rural as well as certain peri-urban social enterprises were largely ignored, particularly in the third and fourth chapters. This is because a spatial mapping of social enterprises in Korea revealed that they are predominantly located in urban areas and also because I wanted to avoid capturing urban-rural differences, as opposed to the actual drivers, mechanisms and dynamics of agglomeration at the local level, in the econometric models utilized in this dissertation. With that being said, it is not surprising that social enterprises tend to be based in urban locales as Korea is a highly urbanized country. Nevertheless, this is a blind spot that does merit further research.

Secondly, it was beyond the scope of this dissertation to qualitatively analyze micro-level and district-level dynamics, mechanisms, and drivers of social enterprise agglomeration. Given the purpose of this dissertation to survey agglomeration across Korea, this dissertation could not say anything about how local governments, local civil society (organization), and social enterprises interact and how social enterprises interact with their local communities and beneficiaries and benefactors. In future research, it is important to go beyond regression methods and agent-based *in silico* models because these methods and models are unlikely to suffice in fully capturing the agglomeration-through-synergies mechanisms that have been driving social enterprise agglomeration in Korea. In such prospective research it would be important to establish what institutional conditions and organizational actors constitute social enterprise egocentric networks and wider networks to determine the nature of the interactions that define these networks. Such research would both determine what local actors social enterprises engage with (e.g. other social enterprises, local government, civil society actors, for-profit businesses, consumers, and the local community) and to what degree and whether interactions are antagonistic or cooperative, if interactions exist at all. By delineating networks and identifying their

organizational patterns of behavior, it could be determined whether social enterprises are meeting their social value creation imperatives or displaying rent-seeking behavior and excessive dependence on public sector support (e.g. subsidies). Furthermore, it is suggested that Seoul, the hub of social entrepreneurship in Korea, should be the natural locus of this research endeavor. By perusing the 2019 certified social enterprise physical address data made available by the Ministry of Employment and Labor-affiliated Social Enterprise Promotion Agency, it is possible to establish patterns of social enterprise concentration in Seoul at the district level. The most notable finding is that social enterprises tend to be more concentrated in certain municipal districts than others. Variance in the distribution of social enterprises underlines the need to conduct comparative case studies so as to construct a social network-based typology that explains social enterprise agglomeration as well the behavior of these organizations and the actors they interface with. To this end, several municipal districts can be identified for in-depth analysis based on the degree of social enterprise concentration within the district and also a district's environmental features. First, Mapo-gu and Yeongdeungpo-gu should be selected given that they have the two highest agglomerations of social enterprises in Seoul, yet these areas are very dissimilar in terms of their environmental settings. Secondly, Gangnam-gu and Nowon-gu should be included in such a study. These two districts have been nominated as areas of interest given that Gangnam-gu has a relatively high concentration of social enterprises and is considered to be Seoul's most affluent municipal area, whereas Nowon-gu has a low concentration of social enterprises and is also much less affluent than Gangnam-gu. Given the official state mandate for social enterprises to create jobs and deliver social services, incorporating these two municipal districts allows for an outcome-oriented analysis of social enterprise networks and to control for wealth. Finally, although far away from Seoul, Jeju Island should be studied given its high number of social enterprises and their distribution throughout the island, including rural areas. This would incorporate an important rural element into this research. By conducting such a series of social network analyses, it would be possible to control for environmental factors or local peculiarities, something which a single-district case study cannot achieve. A qualitative research designed based on interviews and surveys is suggested. The adoption of this methodology is based on the rationale that measuring both the formal and informal relationships between organizational actors within the context of local institutional

settings and configurations that define the relationships and interactions between social enterprises as well as other actors<sup>45</sup> is important to establish the social impact of certified social enterprises as well as the sustainability of their operations.

There is an existing Korean language Korea Citation Index study on social enterprise social networks in Gwanak-gu (Kim and Kim, 2014) that found that social enterprises tend to cluster with other social enterprises, administrative agencies, intermediary organizations, NGOs and NPOs, not for-profit businesses, funding agencies, consumers, and universities and think tanks. No other network analyses have been conducted on social enterprise social networks in Korea. This research would suggest that social enterprises have been largely ineffectual. Yet, this study can be considered flawed given that it does not control for environmental factors, social enterprise type, and other possible factors due the absence of comparator cases. This undermines the external validity of its findings. It, furthermore, does not take into consideration that organizational and institutional actors may behave differently in different municipal districts (e.g. local government capacity will vary by district; some local governments have enacted ordinances and established social economy support centers whereas others have not, and others spend significant portions of their budget on supporting social enterprises and others do not). However, the biggest flaws of this study are, arguably, that it does not propose an adequate way to measure interaction and also does not take into consideration the business plans or proportion of social enterprise budgets constituted by subsidies (several interviewees, for instance, during the exploratory phase of this research indicated that subsidies constitute a small part of their budget). According to Choi et al (2020), government funding amounts to an average of 4.87 percent of social enterprise revenue. In a personal interview with a social enterprise executive based in Gangnam-gu, it was found that the given social enterprise has a number of for-profit business partners and rarely interacts with other social enterprises; the same social enterprise also regularly interacts with its consumers through active feedback channels. Finally, it has to be noted that the aforementioned study was published in 2014 and that the social enterprise ecosystem has changed greatly since then. It is therefore important to conduct a series of comparative social network analyses with an improved methodology, especially in terms of how ‘interaction’ is measured. This would serve

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<sup>45</sup> Such as local government, non-profit organizations, for-profit businesses, civil society actors, customers, and the local community.

as an an additional test of legitimacy, especially so if social innovation clusters are detected (see Tanimoto and Doi, 2007).

Derived from this suggestion, other possible research avenues would be to research the role of local government, given that it is still ambiguous and in this dissertation local government proactiveness is simply assumed to imply both involvement and capacity. Similarly, the quality of social enterprises ought to be researched as well. This relates to the fact that one of the assumptions of this research was that quantity equates to success, which is not necessarily true. By extension, quantity is not necessarily a valid measure of legitimacy. Although, the existence of social enterprise agglomerations in areas with disinterested or dormant local governments with reference to social enterprise promotion does suggest social enterprises are legitimate organizations that are not solely dependent on government support. Furthermore, if it is assumed that quality assurance measures are in place that social enterprises have to comply with in order to maintain certification, then an adequate level of quality can be assumed (i.e. social enterprises are not merely rent-seeking ghost enterprises). However, as previously stated in this dissertation, negative perceptions about the quality and the services and goods delivered by social enterprises are not insignificant.

On a related point, it is important to study how the contexts, defined by both formal and informal institutions, within which social enterprises in Korea operate, affect them at an organizational level. The SEFORIS project, which adopts a systems theory thinking (e.g. Praszkiar and Nowak, 2012) approach to analyze social entrepreneurship, encapsulates this line of research, through this research avenue.

A third avenue that warrants research relates to the experimental research design in Chapter 2. Although not fully developed in Chapter 2 given the experimental nature of this chapter, the purpose of combining social network analysis and critical discourse analysis techniques was to create a platform for a refined analysis of sentiments expressed about social enterprises and the organizations that populate their ecosystem(s). It can also capture the themes that are commonly associated with social enterprises in Korea. This chapter lays the groundwork for a more developed analysis of what is being said by whom about certain topics as they relate to the social enterprises and their networks and the organizations that populate these networks. Such an analysis would involve a more detailed categorization of outlets (e.g. public vs private sector, progressive vs conservative, specialist vs generalist, ordinary people,

et cetera). A social network analysis would be conducted for the purpose of refining the discourse analysis by measuring opinions about key organizations within the network as well as common themes as they relate to individual types of organizations. For instance, sentiment about social enterprises might be very different from sentiments about KOSEA; that is, social enterprises might be seen as legitimate whereas KOSEA might be seen to be lacking credibility. Moreover, these organizations likely have different themes and issues that characterize their operations. Including both types of organizations in a single sentiment analysis has likely skewed the results in Chapter 2, and thus in a future analysis a more refined combination of these two different methods is necessary.

A fourth shortcoming of this dissertation is the assumption that social enterprises and their operations are geographically delimited and non-local elements are ignored. Non-locality could have distorted the findings of the third and fourth chapters. For instance, technological effects may make geography less important. Typically, reasonable efforts would need to be made to account for possible omitted variables related to non-locality in order to ensure the robustness of econometric models in the face of excessive distortion. Yet, in the case of Korea local governments are typically associated with certified social enterprises located within delineated municipal districts, which significantly reduces the possibility of this shortcoming distorting results excessively. Nevertheless, it may be important to research whether this is true in practice.

A fifth shortcoming of this dissertation is that only certified social enterprises are analyzed, yet not all social enterprises in Korea are certified. Uncertified B Corporations exist, as well as social enterprises affiliated to corporate conglomerates and not to the state. Furthermore, it is unknown how many social enterprises there are in Korea given that not all social enterprises seek certification or are successful in gaining it. Future research should take uncertified social enterprises into consideration. A related shortcoming is that not all social economy organizations were considered, some of which resemble social enterprises (e.g. social cooperatives).

Finally, owing to the predominantly empirical goals of this dissertation, much theorization still needs to be conducted about what these findings mean. This research has laid the empirical and theoretical groundwork for future theoretical contributions about interactions between power-differentiated actors and their interactions with their institutional environments (see DiMaggio, 1988). This dissertation did not

consider how social enterprises may shape their local institutional environments, but rather assumed that certain institutional environments and configurations tend to be associated with social enterprise agglomeration.

### *Concluding remarks and policy implications*

This research is the result of a deep interest in the ability of the state to both enable and empower organizations to make a social contribution and address complex social issues. Social enterprises are the epitome of such organizations. Electing to study the relationship between the Korean state and its certified social enterprises was therefore intuitive, although it has to be recognized that other similar types of social economy organizations exist in Korea and social enterprises constitute but one part of Korea's social economy - albeit a very significant part. Whether the interactions between social enterprises and the Korean state imply a paradigm shift in terms of how issues of welfare and precarity are approached in Korea is still debatable. Yet, the empowerment of social enterprises in Korea within the broader context of a movement towards more egalitarian structures and forms of governance, specifically as they relate to welfare and social responsibility, hints at such a shift.

This strain of thought has policy relevance in that it suggests that major policy actors, specifically the government and local governments, ought to carefully consider how to mobilize local resources to induce social entrepreneurial activity in a world where employment precarity has become an intractable issue and where the welfare state has come under pressure. Governments can contribute significantly to this process by mobilizing the resources of the state to induce social entrepreneurship. Setting up a platform for entrepreneurs to engage as equals is imperative for this process of empowerment. The question might be posed: "Why should we care about Korea's social enterprises?" The Korean case reveals what an actor as powerful as the state can do to induce social innovation, therefore making it globally relevant.



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## Appendices

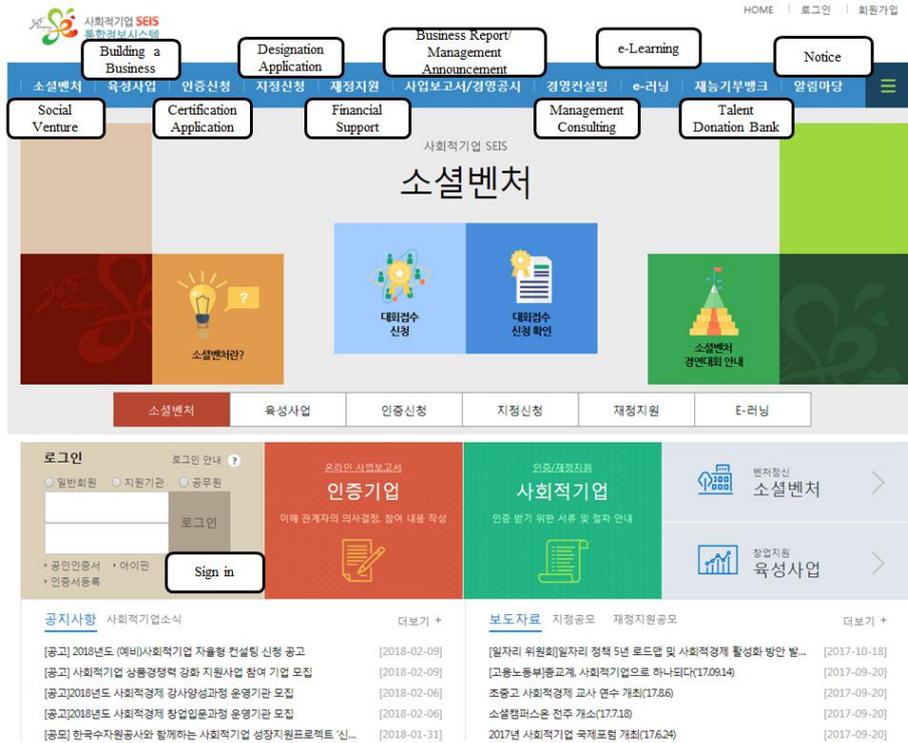
### Appendix 1. A Standard 30-Day, 64-Hour Training Programme (Social Entrepreneur Academy, 2009)

#	Content	#	Content
1	Orientation	16	Organisational Assessment
2	Entrance Ceremony	17	Organisational Innovation (Corporate Governance and Communication)
3	Social Entrepreneur and Community Culture	18	Internal Control and Taxation
4	Social Enterprise: Definition, Vision, Mission	19	Accounting and Efficient Financial Management
5	Social Enterprise Types, Legal Status, and the Social Entrepreneur	20	Special Lecture: CEO of Industrial Bank of Korea
6	The Social Enterprise Promotion Act and Understanding the Government's Promotion Policy	21	Financing Strategies (Social and Private Capital)
7	The Social Entrepreneur's Role and Function	22	Performance Measurement: SROI (Social Return on Investment)
8	Site Visit: Dure Village (Social Enterprise)	23	IT and E-Business (Fundamental Concepts and Utilisation)
9	Strategies for Success (Strategy Process and Competitive Advantage Strategy)	24	Start-up Methodology (Business Plan Composition, the Process of Starting a Business, and Important Points)
10	Performance Management: Balanced Scorecard (BSC)	25	Workshop: Regional Community Social Enterprise
11	Marketing	26	Production and Quality Control (Manufacturing Business, Service Business)
12	STP (Segmentation, Targeting, and Position) and 4P (Product, Price, Place, and Promotion) Strategy	27	Change Management and Ethical Management (Corporate Social Responsibility CSR), et cetera)
13	New Personnel Management System	28	Presentation I: Individual Social Enterprise Start-up Idea Contest
14	Labour Management	29	Presentation II: Individual Social Enterprise Start-up Idea Contest
15	Site Visit: Business Enterprise	30	Graduation Ceremony

(Source: 2009 Social Entrepreneur Academy, 2009)

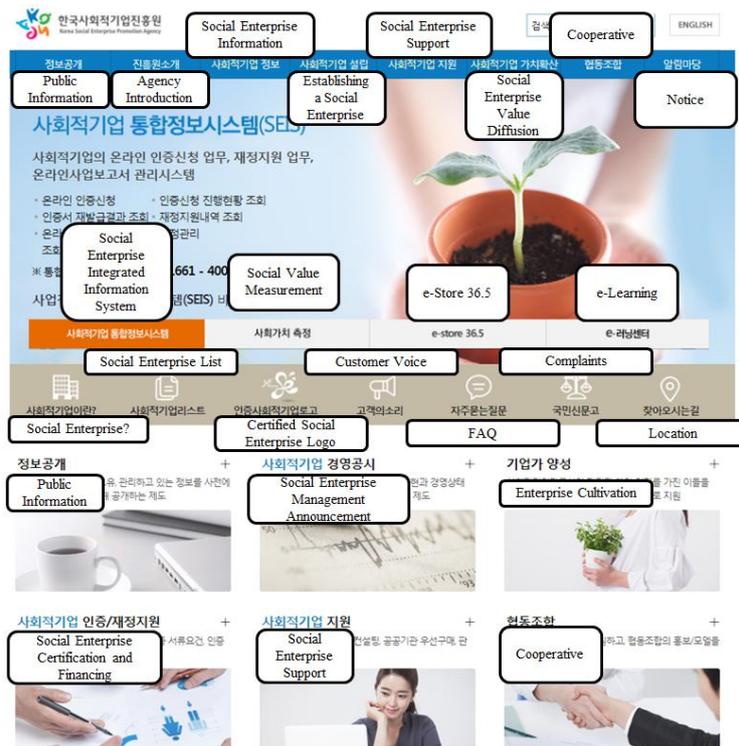
Appendix 2. Annotated Websites of the Social Enterprise Promotion Agency and its Platforms, including e-Store 36.5, as well as its Smartphone Application

*(a) The Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency's Social Enterprise Comprehensive Information System*



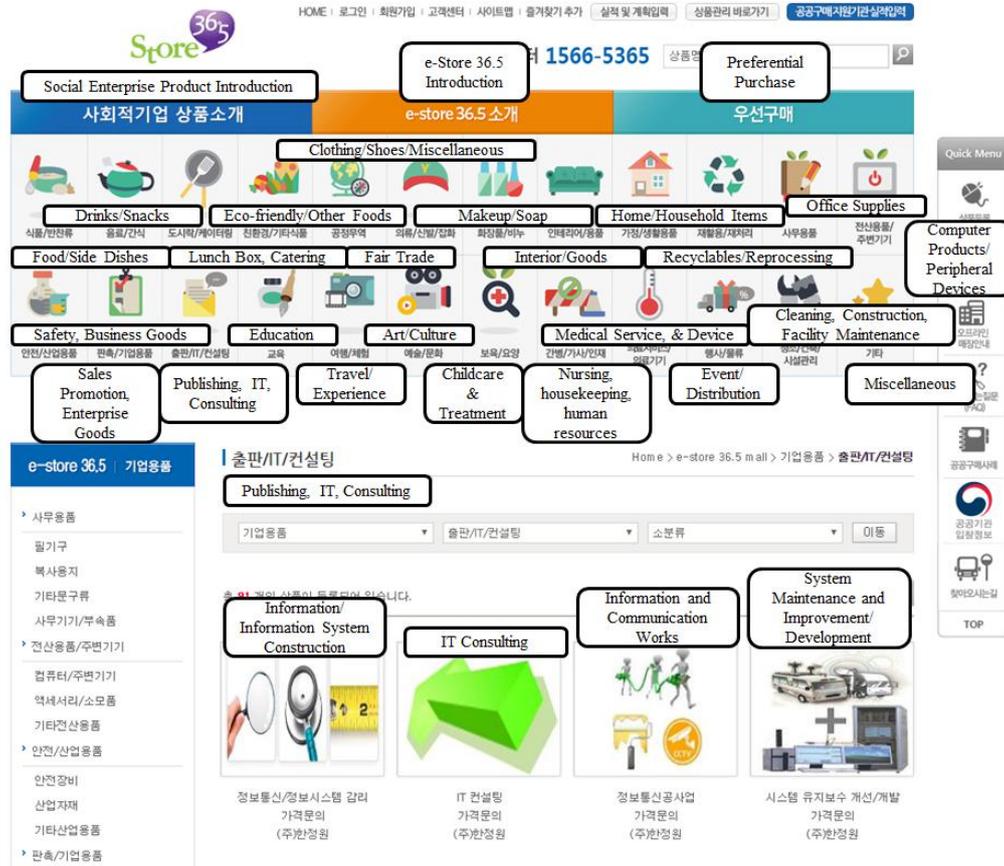
(Source: <http://www.seis.or.kr/index.do>)

(b) The Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency's Website



(Source: <http://www.socialenterprise.or.kr/index.do>)

(c) The Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency's Online Market Platform



(Source: <http://www.e-store365.or.kr/web/introMain.do>)

(d) The Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency's Smartphone Application



Appendix 3. The 4<sup>th</sup> Outstanding Social Enterprise Award Selection Result

(National Social Enterprise Invigoration Network, 24.11.2017)

*(a) Social Enterprises*

<b>Prize Details</b>	<b>Area</b>	<b>Social Enterprise Name</b>
Grand Prize	Seoul	Tpot
Most Excellent Award	Daejeon	Pumasi Village Social Cooperative
Most Excellent Award	North Gyeongsang	Sungsuwol Village Farming Association Corporation
Excellence Award	South Gyeongsang	Good Morning Corporation
Excellence Award	Jeju	Clean Service Nest
Excellence Award	Ulsan	Elephant Factory
Encouragement Award	Incheon	Memories Theatre Mirim
Encouragement Award	Gyeonggi	BR Info Tech
Encouragement Award	South Jeolla	Happy Lock
Encouragement Award	North Jeolla	Dream Doorae Disabled Association
Encouragement Award	Gwangju	Menfurs
Encouragement Award	North Chungcheong	Winion
Encouragement Award	Daegu	ODS
Encouragement Award	Gangwon	Reading Korea
Encouragement Award	South Chungcheong•Sejong	Jetter Coop

(Source: Social Enterprise Information Service, n.d.)

*(b) Support Organizations*

<b>Sector</b>	<b>Sort</b>	<b>Details</b>	<b>Agency Name</b>
Local Government	Regional	Grand Prize	South Chungcheong Provincial Government
	Foundational	Grand Prize	Gwangju Metropolitan Area, Seo-gu Office
Public Agency	None		
Private Organisation	None		

(Source: Social Enterprise Information Service, n.d.)

## Appendix 4. Certification Criteria

<b>(1)</b> 기업 현황 <b>(1)</b> Enterprise's Current State of Affairs	기관명	대표자 (남/여) (1000년명)					
	소재지	연락처	전화 팩스 대표e-mail				
	인증번호	상업과 등록번호					
	인증유형	일자리제공형 [ ] 사회서비스제공형 [ ] 혼합형 [ ] 지역사회공헌형 [ ] 기타형 [ ]					
	조직형태	상법에 따른 회사 [ ] 상법에 따른 합자조합 [ ] 민법에 따른 법인 [ ] 민법에 따른 조합 [ ] 공익법인 [ ] 비영리민간단체 [ ] 사회복지법인 [ ] 소비자생활협동조합 [ ] 농(어)업회사법인 [ ] 영농(어)조합법인 [ ] 협동조합기본법에 따른 (사회적)협동조합 - (사회적)협동조합연합회 [ ] 그 밖에 다른 법률에 따른 법인 또는 비영리단체 [ ]					
	업종/업태	주된 사업내용					
	출급 근로자수	명	정관 변경여부 변경 없음 [ ] 변경 [ ]				
	기업 소유구조	지분보유자		기타 계			
		지분율(%)					
	<b>(8)</b> Social Service Provision <b>(8)</b> 사회 서비스 제공 <b>(9)</b> Local Community Involvement <b>(9)</b> 지역사회 공헌	제공유형 (중복체크가능)	교육 [ ] 보육 [ ] 사회복지 [ ] 환경 [ ] 복지 [ ] 보육 [ ] 안락 [ ] 간병가원 [ ] 문화예술 [ ] 관광운동 [ ] 문화재 [ ] 교육 [ ] 기타 [ ]				
구분		서비스 내용	대상	제공 인원 명			
위탁계종				명			
일반인				명			
사업지역		( ) 시/도 ( ) 구/군					
<b>(10)</b> 연계 현황 <b>(10)</b> Partnerships	공헌내용						
	구분	계정 지원	상품 구매	사업 위탁	강연 지원	기타1	기타2
연계기업	1.						
	2.						
연계 지방자치단체	1.						
	2.						
<b>(2)</b> Democratic Decision-Making Structure <b>(3)</b> Social Purpose Reinvestment <b>(4)</b> Expenditure <b>(5)</b> Financial Support Breakdown <b>(6)</b> Financial Performance <b>(7)</b> Employment	주요의사결정기구	참여 범위	개회 회수	주요 안건			
	(2) 민주적 의사결정 구조	총회					
		이사회					
	(3) 사회적 목적 재투자	운영위원회					
		기타( )					
	(4) 지출	구분	내용	금액			
		일자리 창출					
	(5) 지원 내역	사회서비스 제공					
		구상된 성과급					
	(6) 재정 성과	지역사회 재투자					
기타							
(7) 고용	매출원가	판매비와관리비	영업외비용	노무비			
	구분	내용	금액				
(8) 인건비	인건비						
	전문인력						
(9) 정부지원	사업개발비						
	사회보험료						
(10) 기타	기타						
	계						
(11) 기업 후원	기업 후원						
	모기관 지원						
(12) 일반 기부	일반 기부						
	기타						
(13) 계	계						
	매출액		공공시장				
(14) 영업이익	영업이익		민간시장				
			당기순이익				
(15) 구분	구분	총 인원	자체 고용 근로자수	사회적 일자리 사업 참여 근로자수	평균 임금	평균 근로 시간 (주 단위)	
	위탁계종 근로자						
(16) 일반인 근로자	일반인 근로자						
	총유급 근로자						

(Source: Social Enterprise Information Service, n.d.)

## Appendix 5. Social Network Analysis Actor Acronyms

#	Acronym	Name (English)	Name
1	KOSEA	Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency	사회적기업진흥원
2	MOEL	Ministry of Employment and Labor	고용노동부
3	SEIS	Social Enterprise Information System	사회적기업 통합정보시스템
4	COOP	Korea Cooperatives	협동조합
5	SEPP	e-Store 36.5+	e-store 36.5+
6	EPEOPLE	e-People	국민신문고
7	HIPOLICY	Korea Policy Briefing	대한민국 정책브리핑
8	HRDB	Human Resources Database	국가인재데이터베이스
9	OMC	OhMyCompany	오마이컴퍼니
10	JU	Joyful Union	신나는조합
11	GWSE	Gangwon Social Economy Center	강원도 사회적경제지원센터
12	RISE	Research Institute for Social Enterprise	사회적기업연구원
13	SESCOOP	Social Cooperative Ulsan Social Economy Support Center	사회적협동조합 울산사회적경제지원센터
14	DJSE	Social Economy Institute	사회적경제연구원
15	H&E	Humans & Economy	사람과 경제
16	SECHUNGN	Chungnam Social Economy Network	충남사회경제네트워크
17	SEFUND	Korea Central Council of Social Enterprise Mutual Aid Fund	한국사회적기업중앙협의회 공제사업단
18	HAMKKE	Work Together Foundation	함께일하는재단
19	CDLAB	Community Design Laboratory	공동체디자인연구소는
20	IACF	Daegu University Industry-Academic Cooperation Foundation	대구대학교 산학협력단
21	GWJUNI	Gwangju University	광주대학교
22	JEJUSEN	Jeju Social Economy Network	제주사회적경제네트워크
23	DCB	Design Council Busan	부산디자인진흥원
24	MODUCP	ModuCoop	모두의경제 사회적협동조합
25	INNOGOV	Government Innovation	정부혁신 1 번가
26	POOL	The Grassroots	플뿌리 사람들
27	SAJA	Daejeon Social Capital Support Center	대전광역시 사회적자본지원센터
28	DSI	Daejeon Sejong Research Institute	대전세종연구원
29	DAEJEON	Daejeon	대전

30	SEJONG	Sejong	세종
31	DM	Daejeon Maeul	대전마을
32	CNI	Chungnam Institute	충남연구원
33	DSM	Ddasum Mall	충청남도 사회적경제쇼핑몰
34	ASJ	Asjahwal	충남아산지역자활센터
35	JAHWAL	Korea Self-Sufficiency Center Association	한국지역자활센터협회
36	CNMAEUL	Chungnam Village Creation Support Center	충남마을만들기지원센터
37	CHUNGNM	Chungnam	충남
38	KSENET	Korea Social Economy Solidarity Congress	한국사회적경제연대회의
39	JEJUHRD	Jeju Human Resources Development Commission	제주지역인적자원개발위원회
40	JEJU	Jeju	제주
41	GJSEC	Gwangju Social Economy Support Center	광주사회적경제지원센터
42	GJSE	Gwangju Social Enterprise Council	광주사회적기업협의회
43	GWANGJU	Gwangju	광주
44	IKOSE	Korea Central Council of Social Enterprise	한국사회적기업중앙협의회
45	CNE	Community & Economy	커뮤니티와 경제
46	DAEGU	Daegu	대구
47	BSS	Social Solidarity Bank	사회연대은행
48	DGSE	Daegu Social Economy Center	대구사회적경제
49	GJNGO	Gwangju NGO Support Center	광주 NGO 지원센터
50	SALLIM	Gwangju Social Economy Support Center	사회적협동조합 살림
51	SEHUB	Seoul Social Economy Center	서울특별시 사회적경제지원센터
52	SEOUL	Seoul	서울
53	GREENGJ	Gwangju Council for Sustainable Development	광주광역시 지속가능발전협의회
54	P&S	People & Society	사람과 세상
55	C&AI	Citizen & Alternative Institute	시민과 대안 연구소
56	INCHEON	Incheon	인천
57	ICOSE	Council of Social Enterprise in Incheon	인천광역시 사회적기업 협의회
58	INSEHUB	Incheon Social Economy Support Center	인천광역시 사회적경제지원센터
59	JBSE	Jeonbuk Social Economy Forum	전북사회경제포럼
60	SEBIZ	Local & Social Biz	지역과 소셜비즈
61	JEWC	Jeonju Employment Welfare Center	전주고용복지플러스센터

62	GEWC	Gunsan Employment Welfare Center	군산고용복지플러스센터
63	IEWC	Iksan Employment Welfare Center	익산고용복지플러스센터
64	SMF	Sustainable Management Foundation	지속가능경영재단
65	GG	Gyeonggi	경기도
66	HM	Hope Makers	희망 만드는 사람들
67	GDSE	Gangdongu Social Economy Center	강동구사회적지원센터
68	GDG	Gangdongu	강동구
69	JSOCIAL	Jeonju Social Economy Support Center	전주시 사회적경제지원센터
70	SKH	SK Happiness	SK 행복나눔재단
71	SK	SK Group	SK 그룹
72	CSES	Center for Social Value Enhancement Studies	사회적가치연구원

## Appendix 6. Word Frequency Analysis Dataset

### (a) List of Newspapers

#	Newspaper (Korean)	Newspaper (English)	Number of Articles
1	조선일보	Chosun Ilbo	150
2	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	101
3	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	180
4	한겨레	Hankyoreh	262
5	중앙일보	JoongAnd Ilbo	171
6	국민일보	Kookmin Ilbo	302
7	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	210
8	문화일보	Munhwa Ilbo	233
9	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	254
10	연합뉴스	Yonhap News	43

### (b) List of Journals

#	Korean	English	Certification Status	등재 정보
1	벤처창업연구	Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Venturing and Entrepreneurship	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
2	BDI 정책포커스	BDI Policy Focus	Not Certified	없음
3	부산발전포럼	Busan Development Forum	Not Certified	없음
4	기업법연구	Business Law Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
5	경영관리연구	Business Management Research	Not Certified	없음
6	시민과세계	Citizens & the World	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
7	문화와 사회	Culture & Society	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
8	장애와 고용	Disability & Employment	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
9	사회과학 담론과 정책	Discourse and Policy in Social Science	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
10	환경사회학연구 ECO	ECO	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
11	경제와사회	Economy and Society	KCI Excellence Certification	KCI 우수 등재
12	Entrepreneurship Korea	Entrepreneurship Korea	Not Certified	없음
13	사회과학연구논총	Ewha Journal of Social Sciences	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
14	한양법학	Han Yang Law Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
15	보건사회연구	Health and Social Welfare Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재

16	보건복지포럼	Health and Welfare Policy Forum	Not Certified	없음
17	한국혁신학회지	Innovation Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
18	국제경영리뷰	International Business Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
19	국제노동브리프	International Labor Brief	Not Certified	없음
20	Issues & Policy	Issues & Policy	Not Certified	없음
21	여성우리	Journal of Busan Women and Development Institute	Not Certified	없음
22	한국지역사회복지학	Journal of Community Welfare	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
23	기업과혁신연구	Journal of Corporation and Innovation	Not Certified	없음
24	창조와 혁신	Journal of Creativity and Innovation	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
25	비판사회정책	Journal of Critical Social Welfare	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
26	민주주의와 인권	Journal of Democracy and Human Rights	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
27	디지털디자인학연구	Journal of Digital Design	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
28	교육문화연구	Journal of Education & Culture	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
29	Asia-Pacific Journal of Business & Commerce	Journal of Environmental Sociology: ECO	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
30	환경논총	Journal of Environmental Studies	Not Certified	없음
31	산업경제연구	Journal of Industrial Economics and Business	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
32	국제개발협력	Journal of International Development Cooperation	Not Certified	없음
33	한국산학기술학회 논문지	Journal of Korea Academia-Industrial Cooperation Society	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
34	디자인지식저널	Journal of Korea Design Knowledge	Not Certified	없음
35	국토계획	Journal of Korea Planning Association	KCI Excellence Certification	KCI 우수 등재
36	서비스경영학회지	Journal of Korea Service Management Society	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
37	한국경제연구	Journal of Korean Economics Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재

38	한국사회복지행정학	Journal of Korean Social Welfare Administration	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
39	한국지방자치학회보	Journal of Local Government Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
40	동북아 문화연구	Journal of North-East Asian Cultures	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
41	한국동북아논총	Journal of Northeast Asian Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
42	공공사회연구	Journal of Public Policy	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
43	복지행정논총	Journal of Public Welfare Administration	Not Certified	없음
44	지역사회연구	Journal of Regional Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
45	사회과학연구	Journal of Social Science	Not Certified	없음
46	특수교육재활과학연구	Journal of Special Education & Rehabilitation Science	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
47	전략경영연구	Journal of Strategic Management	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
48	한국지리학회지	Journal of the Association of Korean Geographers	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
49	인문연구	Journal of the Humanities	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
50	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	Journal of the Korea Contents Association	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
51	한국산업정보학회논문지	Journal of the Korea Industrial Information Systems Research	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
52	한국지역지리학회지	Journal of The Korean Association of Regional Geographers	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
53	한국지적정보학회지	Journal of the Korean Cadastre Information Association	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
54	한국실내디자인학회 논문집	Journal of the Korean Institute of Interior Design	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
55	한국지역개발학회지	Journal of The Korean Regional Development Association	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
56	한국디자인문화학회지	Journal of the Korean Society Design Culture	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
57	복식	Journal of the Korean Society of Costume	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
58	도시행정학보	Journal of the Korean Urban Management Association	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
59	정책연구	Journal of the Science and Technology Policy Institute	Not Certified	없음

60	관광레저연구	Journal of Tourism and Leisure Research	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
61	관광연구논총	Journal of Tourism Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
62	경영경제연구	Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
63	직업재활연구	Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
64	법학논총	Kookmin Law Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
65	한국산학기술학회 학술대회논문집	Korea Academy Industrial Cooperation Society Proceedings	Not Certified	없음
66	Korea Business Review	Korea Business Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
67	한국사회정책	Korea Social Policy Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
68	한국관광정책	Korea Tourism Policy	Not Certified	없음
69	한국거버넌스학회보	Korean Governance Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
70	한국갈등관리학회	Korean Journal for the Conflict Management Studies	Not Certified	없음
71	대한경영학회지	Korean Journal of Business Administration	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
72	한국기독교신학논총	Korean Journal of Christian Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
73	한국식품조리과학회지	Korean Journal of Food and Cookery Science	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
74	산업관계연구	Korean Journal of Industrial Relations	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
75	정책분석평가학회보	Korean Journal of Policy Analysis and Evaluation	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
76	한국사회복지질적연구	Korean Journal of Qualitative Research in Social Welfare	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
77	인적자원개발연구	Korean Journal of Resources Development	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
78	한국사회과학연구	Korean Journal of Social Science	Not Certified	없음
79	한국사회복지학	Korean Journal of Social Welfare	KCI Excellence Certification	KCI 우수 등재
80	특수교육학연구	Korean Journal of Special Education	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
81	한국체육과학회지	Korean Journal of Sports Science	KCI Certified	KCI 등재

82	경영학연구	Korean Management Review	KCI Excellence Certification	KCI 우수 등재
83	한국정책과학학회보	Korean Policy Sciences Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
84	한국행정과 정책연구	Korean Public Administration and Policy	Not Certified	없음
85	한국행정논집	Korean Public Administration Quarterly	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
86	한국행정학보	Korean Public Administration Review	KCI Excellence Certification	KCI 우수 등재
87	한국공공관리 학보	Korean Public Management Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
88	기업경영리뷰	Korean Review of Corporation Management	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
89	한국조직학회보	Korean Review of Organizational Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
90	한국사회와 행정연구	Korean Society and Public Administration	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
91	법학논고	Kyungpook National University Law Journal	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
92	노동리뷰 (한국노동연구원)	Labor Review (Korea Labor Institute)	Not Certified	없음
93	로고스경영연구	Logos Management Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
94	정신건강과 사회복지	Mental Health & Social Work	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
95	현대사회와 행정	Modern Society and Public Administration	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
96	OUGHTOPIA	OUGHTOPIA	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
97	극토	Planning and Policy	Not Certified	없음
98	공법학연구	Public Law Journal	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
99	노동정책연구	Quarterly Journal of Labor Policy	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
100	주거환경	Residential Environment: Journal of the Residential Environment Institute of Korea	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
101	서울법학	Seoul Law Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
102	서울도시연구	Seoul Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재

103	사회적경제와 정책연구	Social Economy & Policy Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
104	사회적기업과 정책연구	Social Enterprise & Policy Studies	Not Certified	없음
105	사회적기업연구	Social Enterprise Studies	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
106	사회와이론	Society and Theory	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
107	법과기업연구	Sogang Journal of Law and Business	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
108	법학논총	Soongsil Law Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
109	STEPI Insight	STEPI Insight	Not Certified	없음
110	인문과학연구	Studies in Humanities	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
111	경영교육저널	The Business Education Journal	Not Certified	없음
112	아시아연구	The Journal of Asian Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
113	유럽연구	The Journal of Contemporary European Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
114	문화정책논총	The Journal of Cultural Policy	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
115	문화콘텐츠연구	The Journal of Culture Contents	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
116	인천학연구	The Journal of Incheon Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
117	한국정책연구	The Journal of Korean Policy Studies	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재 후보
118	한국학연구	The Journal of Korean Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
119	노동연구	The Journal of Labor Studies	KCI Candidate	KCI 등재

9				후보
1 2 0	한국심리학회지: 소비자광고	The Korean Journal of Consumer and Advertising Psychology	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
1 2 1	현상과인식	The Korean Journal of Humanities and the Social Sciences	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
1 2 2	한국심리학회지: 산업 및 조직	The Korean Journal of Industrial and Organizational Psychology	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
1 2 3	지방정부연구	The Korean Journal of Local Government Studies	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
1 2 4	한국행정연구	The Korean Journal of Public Administration	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
1 2 5	증권법연구	The Korean Journal of Securities Law	KCI Certified	KCI 등재
1 2 6	영상저널	Yeungsang Journal	Not Certified	없음
1 2 7	연세경영연구	Yonsei Business Review	KCI Certified	KCI 등재

(c) List of Journal Articles

#	Korean	English	Author (s)	Journal	Date
1	[지역재생을 위한 사회적 기업 육성방안] 지역 발전전략으로서 사회적 기업 관심 높아져	[Social Enterprise Promotion Directions for Area Revitalization] The Growing Interest in Social Enterprise as a means for Regional Development	이은애	부산발전포럼	2010.09
2	[사회적 기업가 정신] 열정과 창업무대 제공하고 세상의 변화를 일으키는 힘	[Social Entrepreneurship] A Stage that Offers Passion and Creation that can Change the World	조영복	부산발전포럼	2011.10
3	장애인 연계고용제도를 활용한 사회적 기업의 성공적 이윤창출: 베어베터의 사례	A Case Study of Social Enterprise using Linked Employment System for The Disabled: Bearbetter	이현정, 이창섭, 우소희	Korea Business Review	2017.02
4	비영리 사회적 기업 변화경험 및 운영에 관한 탐색적 사례연구	A Case Study on Change Experiences and Management of Nonprofit Social Enterprises	조삼미, 정선희, 이재희 외 1명	한국사회복지행정학	2012.05
5	사회혁신기업의 임팩트 투자와 비즈니스 모델에 관한 사례연구: 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Case Study on Impact Investing and Business Models of Social Innovative Enterprises: Focusing on Social Enterprise	장석인, 성연옥, 임상호	인적자원개발연구	2017.06
6	사회연결망 분석을 통한 사회혁신기업과 사회적 경영(Social Business) 사례 연구: 사회적기업, 사회적 협동조합 및 Community Business를 중심	A case Study on Social Innovative Enterprise and Social Business by Social Network Analysis : focusing on Social Enterprises, Social Cooperative Union, Community Business	장석인	기업경영리뷰	2017.02

	으로				
7	전북지역의 사회적 기업 육성에 대한 연구	A Case Study on Support A Social Enterprise For Social Entrepreneur In Chonbuk	이현상, 이창원, 김유상	Asia-Pacific Journal of Business & Commerce	2010. 08
8	지역형사회적기업 전략적 발전방향 설정에 관한 연구 전라북도 사회적기업 실태 분석을 중심으로	A Case Study on Support a Social Enterprise for Social Entrepreneur in Chonbuk	이현상, 형영주, 이창원	Asia-Pacific Journal of Business & Commerce	2012. 08
9	사회적기업과 취약계층의 평생교육 연계에 관한 탐색적 사례연구	A Case Study on the Linkage of Lifelong Education between Social Enterprises and the Vulnerable	이효영, 한상훈	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2017. 04
10	지역사회 일자리제공형 사회적기업의 운영 사례연구	A Case Study on the Operation of Job Offer Type Social Enterprises	이현주	한국사회복지행정학	2016. 11
11	사회적기업 사례연구 : 「공감만세」를 가다	A Case Study on the Social Enterprise: Lets GoFair Travel	이도희	사회적기업연구	2016. 06
12	사회적기업가의 창업의도 형성과정에 대한 사례연구 : 사회적기업가 양성교육을 중심으로	A Case Study on the Social Entrepreneur's Entrepreneurial Intention Formation Process: Focused on the Social Entrepreneurship Training	최윤주, 장지은	교육문화연구	2018. 06
13	경쟁적 요인을 고려한 사회적 기업 분류 모델과 적용	A Classification Model of Social Enterprises in Consideration of Competitive Factors	최무진	로고스경영연구	2011. 04
14	한국형 사회적기업의 주요 성공요인에 대한 차이분석	A Comparative Analysis of Critical Success Factors for Social Enterprise in Korea	안영규, 박의룡	국제경영리뷰	2011. 09
15	우리나라 사회적기업의 인증제도 및 인증현황의 비교분석 : 사회적기업과 서울형 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Comparative Analysis on the Accreditation System and the Situation of Social Enterprise: Focusing on Social Enterprise and Seoul-type Social Enterprise	홍성우	한국정책연구	2011. 06
16	비교론적 관점에서의 우리나라 사회적기업의 특성	A Comparative Analysis on the Characteristics of Social Enterprise of Korea	홍성우	사회적기업과 정책연구	2011. 08
17	사회적기업의 위험감수성 비교분석	A Comparative Analysis on the Intentional Vulnerability of Korean Social Enterprises	문병기	한국공공관리학보	2018. 09
18	사회적기업과 마을기업의 성과에 관한 연구 : 도시와 농촌 중심의 조직 간의 성과비교	A Comparative study of Performance between Social enterprise and Community Business	윤병권, 이재정	동북아 문화연구	2017. 06
19	일본, 홍콩, 한국의 사회적기업 지원체계 및 지원방법 비교연구	A Comparative Study on the Supporting Systems and Methods of Social Enterprises of Hong Kong, Japan, and Korea	조상미, 김진숙	한국사회복지학	2014. 06
20	사회적기업의 특성별 임금실태와 일반근로자와의 비교	A Comparison of the Wages and Employees of Various Social Enterprises	황덕순	노동리뷰	2016. 06
21	사회적 기업과 지역시민사회 : 전북지역 사례를 중심으로	A Critical Investigation about the Relationship between Social Enterprises and Local Civil Society in Jeonbuk Province	김정원	시민과세계	2009. 06
22	새로운 지역사회복지 제공조직으로서 사회적기업의 갈등경험 연구 : 한국 사회적기업의 1세대를 중심으로	A Exploratory Study on Conflict Experiences of Social Enterprise by New Organization Providing Community Welfare	오단이	한국사회복지행정학	2013. 08
23	지적재 조사사업의 사회경제적 타당성 제고에 관한 연구 : 사회적기업설립을 통한 고용창출 가능성 중심으로	A Feasibility Study on Socio-Economic Enhancement of Cadastral Renovation Project - Boosting Employment through Social Enterprises	장우진, 김영학	한국지적정보학회지	2010. 06
24	사회적 기업 개념의 범주화에 대한 법적 담론	A Legal Arguments on the Categorization of Social Enterprise Definitions	김종호	법학논고	2014. 08
25	살기좋은 지역사회 만들기를 위한 거대담론과 작은 실천 : 공동체 자본주의와 사회적 기업	A New Discourse and Practice for Making a Better Community: Community Capitalism and Social Enterprise	안치순	한국행정과 정책연구	2009. 12

26	사회적기업에 취업한 결혼이주여성의 삶 변화 체험에 관한 현상학적 연구	A Phenomenological Research on the Female Marriage Migrants Experience of Life Change with the Employment in Social Enterprise	황정은, 한송이, 김효진	사회적기업연구	2017. 06
27	결혼이주여성의 경제활동 경험에 관한 현상학적 연구 : 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Phenomenological Study on the Economic Activity Experiences of Marriage Migrant Women : Focused on Social Enterprises	이현주	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2018. 02
28	정신장애인의 사회적 기업 취업경험에 관한 현상학적 연구	A Phenomenological Study on the Employment Experience of the Mentally Ill in the Social Enterprises	조상미, 김경희, 최미선 외 1명	정신건강과 사회복지	2012. 12
29	사회적기업 육성을 위한 증장기 정책방향	A Policy Direction for Creating and Fostering Social Enterprise	조영복, 양용희, 김혜원	사회적기업연구	2008. 12
30	주거복지관련 사회적기업 육성을 위한 제도개선방안	A Policy Direction for Creating and Fostering Social Enterprise on Housing Welfare	여경수	법학논총	2014. 07
31	청년사회적기업가 육성 활성화 방안	A Policy Direction for Fostering Young Social Entrepreneurs	박찬주	사회적기업연구	2010. 12
32	사회적기업 등록제 도입 방안 연구	A Research on Introduction of Registration System for Social Enterprise in Korea	김혜원, 김성기, 강대성 외 3명	사회적기업연구	2018. 12
33	예비사회적기업의 균형성과측정 및 정책 지원방안 : 통일형 사회적기업에 대한 사례조사를 중심으로	A Research on Measures to Support Success Measuring Tools for Prep Social Enterprise Using BSC : Case Study of Prep Social Enterprise Designated by Ministry of Unification	김현정	사회적기업연구	2016. 06
34	사회적 기업 연구, 어디까지 왔는가? : 경향분석	A Review of Social Enterprise Research: What are Recent Trends?	조상미, 이재희, 간기현 외 1명	한국사회복지행정학	2013. 02
35	프로세스 관점의 사회적기업가정신	A Review of Social Entrepreneurship: Towards a Theory of Process Perspectives	고유상, 장인성, 문철우 외 1명	전략경영연구	2014. 08
36	사회적 기업의 지속가능한 발전에 관한 소고	A Review of the Sustainable Development of Social Enterprise	송태수	한국정책연구	2012. 12
37	사회적 기업 조세특례의 개선방안에 관한 검토	A Review on the Preferential Tax Treatments of Social Enterprises	이준봉	증권법연구	2013. 01
38	인천지역 사회적기업 참여여성들의 경험분석을 통한 여성대상 근로연계복지 정책 재검토	A Revision on Welfare to Work Policies Towards Women: A Qualitative Study on Experience of Women working at Social Enterprises in Incheon	최수영	한국정책연구	2010. 09
39	전략산업을 기반으로 한 사회적기업 연계 가능성 탐색	A Strategic Industry-based Investigation of the Linkage Possibilities of Social Enterprise	김학실	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2012. 02
40	사회적 증권거래소(사회적증시) 설립 방안 연구 : 주식시장을 통한 사회적기업 육성 방안을 중심으로	A Study for Launching a Social Stock Exchange to Support Social Enterprises	정은희	사회적기업연구	2009. 12
41	사회적 기업 육성을 위한 코넥스 (KONEX) 시장 활용 방안	A Study for Social Financial Market to Support Social Enterprises	이현상, 김일곤, 김유상	Asia-Pacific Journal of Business & Commerce	2013. 12
42	디자인 사회적기업에 대한 소비자 인식에 관한 연구	A Study of Consumer Awareness about Design Social Enterprise	은창익	한국디자인문화학회지	2017. 06

43	CSR 활동과 사회적 기업의 성과에 관한 연구 : 장기지향성의 조절효과를 중심으로	A Study of CSR Activity on Performance of Social Enterprise: Focused on Long-term Orientation	마윤주, 장성희	로고스경영연구	2016. 12
44	커뮤니티 비즈니스 지정 현황과 발전방안 제언 : 강원도 사회적기업과 마을기업을 중심으로	A Study of Growth Plan and the Existing Designed Community Businesses in Gangwon-do - Social Businesses and Town Businesses in Gangwon-do	배중남, 박노국, 지경배	벤처창업연구	2013. 06
45	국제개발협력에서 한국형 사회적기업 ODA 모델에 관한 논의	A Study of Korea Social Enterprise ODA Model in International Development Cooperation	김동욱, 조흥국	사회적기업연구	2016. 12
46	윤리적 패션 사회적기업의 지속가능 방안 연구 : 서울지역 패션 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Study of Measures for Sustainability of Ethical Fashion Social Enterprises - Focusing on Seoul	양용	복식	2016. 11
47	사회적경제 차원의 사회적기업과 기업의 사회적 책임의 비교연구	A Study of Social Enterprise and Corporate Social Responsibility Comparison on Socioeconomic	기영화	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2017. 10
48	다문화가족 근로자 고용요인이 사회적 기업 활성화에 미치는 영향분석 : 경기도 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Study of Social Enterprise Revitalization as Influenced by Multicultural Family Worker Employment Factors: Social Enterprises in Gyeonggi-do	금종래	한국정책연구	2014. 12
49	사회적기업 근로환경의 중점관리요인에 관한 연구	A Study of Social Enterprise Working Environment's Main Management Factors	장우진	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2012. 02
50	기술기반 사회적 기업의 기술혁신 특성에 관한 연구	A Study of Technological Innovation Characteristics in Technology-based Social Enterprises	손호성, 여예원, 이주성	사회적기업연구	2012. 12
51	사회적기업의 BSC 모형 개발에 관한 연구	A Study of the BSC Model Development of Social Enterprise	이용락	사회적기업연구	2008. 06
52	사회적 기업의 파트너십이 기업성과에 미치는 영향	A Study of the Effect of Social Enterprises' Partnerships on their Performance	김영욱, 이지만, 정승화 외 1 명	산업관계연구	2012. 12
53	사회적기업 목적달성 모형에 관한 연구 : 근거이론을 바탕으로 한 모범적 사회적기업가 특성분석을 중심으로	A Study of the Goal Achievement Model for Social Enterprise: An Analysis of Entrepreneur Characteristics Based on Grounded Theory	김정인	한국행정논집	2013. 03
54	사회적 가치 일치성이 사회적 기업에 대한 태도와 구매의도에 미치는 영향에 대한 연구 : 사회적 가치 일치성의 매개효과를 중심으로	A Study of the Impact of Social Value Congruence on Social Enterprises' Attitudes and Purchase Intentions: Mediating Effect of Social Value Congruence	최은정, 김수현	한국심리학회지: 소비자·광고	2013. 02
55	교육바우처제도의 운용과정 연구 : 사회적기업화 가능성을 중심으로 역할 확대	A Study of the Management of Education Vouchers: The Possibility of Role Expansion through Social Enterprization	장지현	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2012. 08
56	사회적 기업에 대한 학문적 연구경향에 관한 연구 : 학제적 측면을 중심으로	A Study on Academic Research Trends of Korean Social Enterprise: Focused on Interdisciplinary Aspects	이시원, 최희성	한국행정논집	2015. 09
57	사회적 기업 성과분석에 관한 연구	A Study on Achievement Analysis of Social Enterprises	김동철, 김정원	Korea Business Review	2016. 05
58	빅데이터를 활용한 관광분야 사회적기업 인식에 관한 연구 : 관광분야 사회적기업과 일반 사회적기업의 비교를 중심으로	A Study on Awareness of Tourism Social Enterprise Using Big Data : Comparison with Tourism Social Enterprise and General Social Enterprise	김민형, 황영현	관광레저연구	2018. 01
59	중증장애인 고용 사회적기업 사례 연구	A Study on Cases of Social Enterprises Employing Severe People with Disability	김승완	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2017. 06
60	사회적 기업 대표자 및 경영책임자의	A Study on Characteristics and Identity of	문순영	한국사회복지행정학	2010.

	특성과 정체성에 관한 연구 : 대구·경북지역의 사회복지단체에서 전환된 기관들을 중심으로	CEOs in DaeguKyungpook Social Enterprises: Originated from Social Welfare Agencies			09
61	기후변화와 기업의 사회적 책임, 사회적 기업 활성화 등에 관한 소고	A Study on Climate Change and Corporate Social Responsibility, Social Enterprise Activation	강영기	법과기업연구	2014.06
62	관광분야 사회적기업의 개념과 비즈니스 모델 유형에 관한 고찰	A Study on Concept and Business Models of Social Enterprise in Tourism	허문경	관광레저연구	2013.03
63	기업의 사회적 책임과 사회적 기업 발전방안에 관한 연구	A Study on Corporate Social Responsibility and Development of Social Enterprise	김태정	경영교육저널	2010.12
64	사회적기업에 대한 일반인 대상 인식조사 분석	A Study on Degree of Recognition of Social Enterprise	편집부	사회적기업연구	2008.12
65	2009년 사회적기업에 대한 일반인 대상 인식조사 분석	A Study on Degree of Recognition of Social Enterprise in 2009	편집부	사회적기업연구	2009.12
66	사회적 기업의 가치제고를 위한 디자인 활용 연구	A Study on Design to Boost Values of Social Enterprise	이현규, 이진호	디자인지식저널	2011.12
67	사회적기업 장애인 근로자의 직장근속 연수 결정요인에 관한 연구	A Study on Determinants of Workers Service Years of Disabled Persons in Social Enterprises	임상호, 서영건, 성연옥	기업경영리뷰	2018.02
68	지속가능경영을 위한 사회적기업의 발전방안	A Study on Development Directions for Sustainable Management of Social Enterprises	김숙연	사회적기업과 정책연구	2013.02
69	기업인수목적주식회사(SPAC)를 이용한 사회적기업의 생태계 구축 방안	A Study on Establishing an Ecosystem of Social Enterprises by Using the Special Purpose Acquisition Company(SPAC)	김지훈	사회적기업연구	2012.06
70	사회적 기업의 창업성과에 영향을 미치는 요인	A Study on Factors Affecting the Promotion of Social Entrepreneurship Start-ups	홍은표, 김진희	산업경제연구	2018.02
71	사회적 기업금융과 자본시장법적 검토	A Study on Financing Social Enterprises	김병연	증권법연구	2013.01
72	국내외 스포츠 사회적 기업 사례 분석을 통한 장기적 육성 방향에 관한 연구	A Study on Improvement Direction on Fostering Social Enterprise in Sport Through Analyzing Foreign and Domestic Cases	고경진, 석부길	한국체육과학회지	2014.04
73	사회적기업의 제도적 동형화에 대한 질적 사례연구 : 충북지역 자활기업의 사례를 중심으로	A Study on Institutional Isomorphism Experience in Social Enterprise: Focused on the Cases of Chungbuk Self-Sufficient Enterprises	이현주, 민윤경	보건사회연구	2015.09
74	지역사회문제 해결을 위해 창업한 사회적기업가가 바라본 한국 중간지원조직 연구 : 지속가능한 사회적기업 활성화를 위해	A Study on Intermediary Support Organizations in Social Entrepreneurs perspective Who is funding for solving Community problems in Korea : to activate Sustainable Social Enterprise	오단이, 정무승	한국사회복지행정학	2015.02
75	사회적기업 환경의 불확실성측면이 조직구성원의 사회공헌활동 인식 및 관계성과에 미치는 영향	A Study on Investigating the Effect of Social Corporations Environmental Uncertainty Aspects on Organizational Members Awareness Towards Social Contribution Activities And Relationship Performance	윤대홍	기업경영리뷰	2017.12
76	서울시 사회적기업의 사회적 네트워크 연구	A Study on Location Distribution and Social Network of Social Enterprise in Seoul	김찬미, 김경민	서울도시연구	2014.09
77	사회적기업육성법의 주요쟁점 및 개선방안에 관한 연구 : 지속가능한 사회적기업을 향하여	A Study on Major Issues of the Social Enterprise Promotion Act - Toward Sustainable Development of Social Enterprises	조상미, 선민정, 강대성	비판사회정책	2017.02
78	근거이론을 활용한 사회적기업 운영 인식에 대한 연구	A Study on Management Perception of Social Enterprise - Grounded theory Approach	이도희, 김현미	경영경제연구	2013.02
79	사회적기업의 경제적가치 측정에 관한 연구 : 전라북도 사례를 중심으로	A Study on Measuring Economic Return on Investment in Social Enterprise: Focusing upon	박승규, 배귀희,	한국거버넌스학회보	2014.04

		the Case of Jeollabuk-Do	Youn-Jai Lee		
80	사회적기업가의 사업기회 개발과정에 관한 연구	A Study on Opportunity Development Process of Social Entrepreneurs	박지훈, 배종태, 강신형	사회적기업연구	2018.12
81	사회적기업의 성과분석에 관한 연구	A Study on Performance Analysis of Social Enterprises	김희철	대한경영학회지	2015.07
82	사회적 기업에 대한 임팩트 투자 활성화 정책: 투자자에 대한 세제 혜택을 중심으로	A Study on Policies for Promoting Impact Investment for Social Enterprises: Focusing on Tax Incentives for Investors	강민정	사회적기업연구	2018.09
83	도시재생 참여 주체로서 사회적 기업의 가능성 : 연계사업 중요도 분석 결과를 토대로	A Study on Possibility of Social Enterprise as a Main Participant in Urban Renaissance - Based on the Analysis of the Importance of Business Links	장우진, 문수봉	한국지역정보학회지	2010.12
84	한국의 사회적기업 육성모델과 국제비교	A Study on Promote Model of South Korea's Social Enterprise and the International Comparisons	조영복	사회적기업연구	2011.06
85	종교계 사회적기업에 관한 연구 : 기독교와 불교를 중심으로	A Study on Religious Social Enterprise - Focusing on Christianity and Buddhism	장석인, Simon Fietze, 성연옥 외 1명	기업경영리뷰	2018.12
86	사회적 기업의 제품 재구매 의도에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	A Study on Repurchase Intention for the Products of Social Enterprise	김은정, 김종원	한국산업정보학회논문지	2012.03
87	지방대학 교육역량을 활용한 방과후 학교 활성화 방안 : 대학주도 방과후 학교 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Study on Revitalization Method for an After-School Using of Local University Education Competencie	배정환	사회적기업과 정책연구	2013.02
88	사회통합 측면의 취약계층 일자리 창출 및 지원을 위한 사회적 기업에 관한 연구 : 경상남도를 중심으로	A Study on Social enterprise for Job Creation and Support of Aspects of Fragile Layer of Social Integration - Focused on Gyeongsangnamdo	윤지수	한국갈등관리연구	2014.12
89	사회적기업 활성화를 위한 기독교의 과제에 대한 연구	A Study on Social Enterprise from the Perspective of Christian Ethics	조용훈	한국기독교신학논총	2013.01
90	키워드 네트워크 분석을 활용한 사회적 기업 연구동향 분석: 2000년~2017년 국내 학술지 논문을 중심으로	A Study on Social Enterprise Research Trends Based on Keyword Network Analysis: Based on the Publication of Korean Academic Journals from 2000 to 2017	이재희, 조삼미, 권소일	사회적기업연구	2018.09
91	지방정부의 공공자원과 연계한 사회적 기업 개발 방안 : 남양주시 예산 분석을 중심으로	A Study on Social Enterprises Development by Linking Local Government Resources: An Analysis on Namyangju Government Budget	김성기	사회적기업연구	2011.06
92	사회적 기업가 육성 방법론 연구 : 카이스트 사회적 기업가 MBA의 경험과 성과를 바탕으로	A Study on Social Entrepreneurs Education Method based on Experiences and Achievement of KAIST Social Entrepreneurship MBA	강민정	사회적기업연구	2017.06
93	사회적 기업가 정신에 영향을 미치는 요인에 관한 연구	A Study on Social Entrepreneurship	최지원, 김준기	지방정부연구	2014.05
94	정책환경 변화에 따른 사회적기업 전략에 관한 연구 : 경기도 예비사회적기업 조직유형별 IPA·IG 분석	A Study on Support Strategy for Social Enterprise: The Application of Importance-Performance Analysis and Importance Grid to the Cases of Gyeonggi Province	박현신, 최준규	정책분석평가학회보	2015.03
95	협동조합기반 지역형 예비사회적기업의 생존전략에 관한 연구	A Study on Survival Strategies of Regional Preliminarily Social Enterprise Based on Cooperatives	이현주	사회적경제와 정책연구	2016.02
96	캄보디아 지역사회를 위한 국제개발협력	A Study on Sustainability of the Social	오단이,	사회적기업연구	2016.

	력 사회적기업의 지속가능성 연구 : 한국 사회적기업을 중심으로	Enterprise as International Development Cooperation for Community in Cambodia : Focus on Korean Social Enterprises	전종근, 박철		06
97	사회적기업 세제 지원정책에 대한 고찰	A Study on Tax Benefits of Social Enterprises	최호윤	사회적기업연구	2010.06
98	협력 거버넌스 구축을 통한 사회적 기업 활성화요인 연구	A Study on the Activity Methods of the Social Enterprise based on Collaborative Governance in Local Autonomy Authority	안윤주	한국정책연구	2013.09
99	사회적기업의 성과와 지속가능성의 성공요인에 관한 연구	A Study on the Antecedent Factors of Performance and Sustainability of Social Enterprises	이진민, 이상식	한국산업정보학회논문지	2017.04
100	한국의 사회적기업 특성과 발전전략에 관한 연구	A Study on the Characteristic and Development Strategy of Social Enterprise in Korea	류만희	비판사회정책	2011.02
101	지역기반(Community-based) 사회적 기업(Social Enterprises)의 특성과 발전 과제를 중심으로 : 대구의 두 기관 사례를 중심으로	A Study on the Characteristics and Development Issues of Community-based Social Enterprises: Based on Two the Case Studies in Daegu	문승영	사회과학 담론과 정책	2013.04
102	기업과 사회적기업 연계 사례 및 활성화 연구 : 현대차그룹, SK 그룹 중심으로	A Study on the Collaboration Strategy between Corporate and Social Enterprise in Korea - Focused on Hyundai Motor Group and SK Group	최재호	사회적기업연구	2014.06
103	한국 사회적 기업의 지역공동체 지향적 성장 역량: Q 방법에 의한 유형화와 특성 비교	A Study on the Community Orientedness of Social Enterprises in Korea: Based on Q Method Survey Results	고형면	보건사회연구	2012.09
104	사회적 기업가정신(Social Entrepreneurship) 개념 구성에 관한 연구 : 구조방정식 모형을 중심으로	A Study on the Concept of Social Entrepreneurship: Using Structural Equation Modeling	배귀희	한국정책과학학회보	2011.06
105	사회적 기업의 개념과 유형에 관한 고찰	A Study on the Concepts and Types of Social Enterprise	유효선, 김생수	한국행정과 정책연구	2012.06
106	기업가정신과 사회적 기업가정신의 개념 통합에 관한 연구: 16 세기 종교개혁 정신 관점에서 재조명	A Study on the Conceptual Integration of Entrepreneurship and Social Entrepreneurship from the Perspective of the Spirit of 16th Century Reformation	이완형	로고스경영연구	2016.12
107	지방공기업과 사회적기업 연계모형 연구	A Study on the Connection Model of Local Public Enterprise and Social Enterprise	강병준, 최조순, 김태영	도시행정학보	2011.12
108	디자인 행동주의와 사회적기업의 상관관계에 대한 고찰 : 행동주의 관점에서	A Study on the Correlation between Design Activism and Social Enterprise - In the Point of View of Activism	은창익	디지털디자인학연구	2015.04
109	여성일자리 대안으로서의 사회적 기업	A Study on the Creating Jobs for Women through Social Enterprise	최조순, 김종수	한국정책연구	2010.06
110	사회적기업 투자 의사결정 모델 연구	A Study on the Decision Making Model for Social Enterprise Investment	서성무, 장대규	한국산학기술학회논문지	2013.03
111	지역사회에 기반한 사회적기업의 딜레마 : 충북을 사례로	A Study on the Dilemma of Social Enterprise: Case study of Chungcheongbuk-do	노영숙, 장지현	사회적경제와 정책연구	2018.02
112	사회적기업가 양성 교육프로그램 개발에 대한 연구	A Study on the Education Program for Training Social Enterprisers	강순화, 김동주	사회적기업과 정책연구	2014.02
113	사회적기업 구성원의 직무열의가 조직 성과에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	A Study on the Effect of Employees Work Engagement of Social Enterprise on Organizational Performance	최중석, 성상현	로고스경영연구	2017.06
114	정년퇴직자재고용이 사회적기업의 지속가능성에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	A Study on the Effect of Reemployment of Retired Persons on the Sustainability of Social Enterprises	이재준, 박송춘, 신주환	사회적기업연구	2016.12

115	사회적기업 유형이 성과와 지속가능성에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구 : 일자리 제공형을 중심으로	A Study on the Effect of Social Enterprise Types on Performance and Sustainability - Focused on Work Integration of Social Enterprise	이진민, 이상식, 김종원	한국산업정보학회 논문지	2018.12
116	사회적 기업 근로자의 교육훈련이 직무향상에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	A Study on the Effect of the Training and Training of Social Enterprise Workers on Job Improvement	임상호, 장석인, 성연옥	기업경영리뷰	2017.06
117	사회적기업에 대한 정부재정지원의 고용 창출 효과 : 사회적 일자리와 자체 고용에 대한 일자리창출을 중심으로	A Study on the Effects of Government Finance Support for Social Enterprise on Job Creation: Focusing on Job Creation of Social Jobs and Their Own Employment	최지혜, 이찬영	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2019.05
118	사회적기업의 경영특성이 사회적기업 성과에 미치는 영향	A Study on the Effects of Management Characteristic of Social Enterprise on the Performance of Social Enterprise	김진경, 한형서, 최영근	기업경영리뷰	2018.12
119	사회적기업의 서비스품질이 고객만족 및 재구매의도에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	A Study on the Effects of Social Enterprise Service Quality Customer on Satisfaction and Repurchase Intentions	강문실, 양성국, 김봉현	산업경제연구	2013.10
120	사회적기업가정신이 사회적·경제적 성과에 미치는 영향: 지역자산활용도 매개효과를 중심으로	A Study on the Effects of Social Entrepreneurship on Social and Economic Performance: Focusing on the Intermediation Effect of Regional Asset Utilization	최무현, 고은주	현대사회와 행정	2019.06
121	사회적기업 여성 근로자의 고용효과 인식에 관한 연구 : 충남 지역 인증사회적기업 여성 근로자를 대상으로	A Study on the Employment Effects of Female Workers Perceptions at Social Enterprises: Focused on the Certified Social Enterprises in Chungnam Area	안수영	지방정부연구	2013.08
122	고령자 맞춤형 사회적 기업의 창업 방안 : 경상북도 지역을 중심으로	A Study on the Establishment of Social Enterprises Customized for Aged-society - With Focus on Gyeongsangbuk-do Province	김상규	영상저널	2013.08
123	사회서비스 시장화와 사회적기업의 역할 확대	A Study on the Expansion of Social Enterprises from the Marketization of Social Services	배정환	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2011.08
124	사회적기업의 성과 영향요인과 상관관계에 관한 연구	A Study on the Factors Effecting Performance and Correlation in Social Enterprises	김희철	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2017.07
125	사회적 기업 장애인 근로자의 직무만족에 영향을 미치는 요인에 관한 연구	A Study on the Factors Influencing to Job Satisfaction for Disabled Workers in Social Enterprise	황정은, 정무성	장애와 고용	2011.05
126	사회적기업의 사회적 성과 요인에 대한 연구 : 부산·경남지역을 중심으로	A Study on the Factors that affect Social Performance of Social Enterprise - the Focus on Busan · Gyeongnam Province	박미경, 최승식, 이창희	특수교육재활과학연구	2012.03
127	사회적 기업의 거버넌스 심층 분석 : 신수동 행복마을(주)과 홍성유기농영농조합의 사례를 중심으로	A Study on the Governance Analysis of Social Enterprise: Focused on Comparing Cases of Sinsu Happy Village and Hongsung Lohas	신국현, 서순탁	도시행정학보	2014.03
128	노인의 사회적기업가 성장과정 사례연구	A Study on the Growth of Social Entrepreneur of Senior	김정진	사회적기업연구	2017.06
129	사회적 기업에 대한 재정지원 방안의 개선에 관한 연구	A Study on the Improvement of Financial Supporting Plans for Social Enterprises	이희종, 윤인하	한양법학	2018.11
130	사회적 기업 육성법제 및 기타 창업관련 법제 정비방안	A Study on the Improvement of the Social Enterprise Promotion Act and other Enterprise Establishment Act	곽관훈	증권법연구	2013.01
131	미시적 사회적 자본의 동태성이 사회적기업의 지속가능성에 미치는 영향 : '사랑의줄잇기' 사례를 중심으로	A Study on the Influence of the Dynamics of Micro-level Social Capital on the Sustainability of Social Enterprise: Case study on Empathy Shop	이희진, 유하나	사회적기업연구	2019.04
132	마을기업과 사회적기업의 일자리창출에	A Study on the Job Creation of Community	배성숙	기업경영리뷰	2017.

	관한 연구	Business and Social Enterprise			12
133	사회서비스 제공 사회적기업에서의 일 자리 경험 연구	A Study on the Job Experience in Social Enterprise for Social Service Provider	강현주, 임은의	한국지역사회복지학	2015. 09
134	한국의 사회적 기업 활성화를 위한 법 제도 및 정책적 개선방안	A Study on the Legal System and Policy for Invigorating Social Enterprises in Korea	권한용, 배광효	한양법학	2014. 11
135	지역성에 기반한 도시재생과 사회적기업 연계의 기대효과	A Study on the Locality-based Urban Renaissance and Social Enterprise Links, and its Expected Effect	장우진	한국지역정보학회지	2011. 06
136	사회적기업 관련 제도 고찰	A Study on the Operation System of the Social Enterprise	이도희	경영경제연구	2012. 08
137	사회적기업 인식에 관한 연구: 네이버 트렌드 데이터를 활용하여	A Study on the Perception of Social Enterprise: Using Naver Trends Data	이현진, 이승우	사회적기업연구	2018. 06
138	사회적기업의 특성 및 지원유형에 따른 성과차이 분석 : 자율경영공시 사회적기업을 중심으로	A Study on the Performance Difference depend on the Characteristics and Support Type of Social Enterprise: Focusing on the Social Enterprise Notifying Management Information Autonomously	김정인	한국사회복지행정학	2014. 05
139	사회적 기업에 대한 성과평가 지표의 개발 및 적용	A Study on the Performance Evaluation of Social Enterprises	김순양	지방정부연구	2008. 05
140	사회적기업의 성과에 관한 연구: 이론적 논쟁과 탐색적 실증분석	A Study on the Performance of the Social Enterprises: A Theoretical Discussion and an Exploratory Empirical Analysis	남승연, 이영범	현대사회와 행정	2013. 08
141	한국사회적기업진흥원의 정책공동체 수준과 정책 홍보 효과에 관한 연구 : 청소년의 사회적기업에 대한 인식과 창업 의지에 미치는 영향을 중심으로	A Study on the Policy Community networking level and Policy Public Relations Effect of the Korea Social Enterprises Promotion Agency: Focus on the Influencing about Social Enterprises Awareness and Entrepreneurial Intention of Teenagers	이재무, 이정우	사회적기업연구	2014. 12
142	한국 사회적기업 정책과 장애인고용에 관한 연구	A Study on the Policy of Social Enterprises and the Employment of People with Disabilities in Korea	강미리	특수교육재활과학연구	2012. 06
143	사회적기업과 주민자치센터의 연계 가능성에 대한 연구	A Study on the Potentials in Connecting the Community Autonomy Center With the Social Enterprise	김종수, 김태영	도시행정학보	2010. 03
144	사회적기업 인증이 직업재활시설의 고용의 질과 경영성과에 미치는 영향	A Study on The Quality of Employment and Business Performance of Certified Social Enterprises	송창근, 나운환, 이혜경	특수교육재활과학연구	2014. 06
145	결혼이주여성 고용에 대한 사회적 기업 운영자의 인식유형에 관한 연구	A Study on the Recognition Types of Social Enterprise Operator for Employment of the Female Marriage Migrants	황정은, 다와수랭	사회적기업연구	2018. 06
146	디자인 사회적기업의 사회적 책임, 기업이미지, 소비자태도 간의 관계 연구 : 기업이미지의 매개효과를 중심으로	A Study on the Relations between Social Responsibility, Corporate Image, and Consumer Attitude of Design Social Enterprises - Focusing on the Mediating Effect of Corporate Image	은창익	한국디자인문화학회지	2016. 06
147	대구·경북 사회적 기업들의 지역사회와의 관계에 관한 연구 : 지역밀착성을 중심으로	A Study on the Relationship of Social Enterprises and the Local Communities in DeaguKyungpook Areas Focused on the Locality	문순영	사회과학연구	2010. 12
148	물류 분야 사회적기업 활성화 방안에 대한 연구	A Study on the Revitalization Plan of Social Enterprise in Logistics Field	선일석, 전재현	기업경영리뷰	2017. 12
149	사회적기업의 전략적 제휴에 관한 연구 : (주)청밀의 사례를 중심으로	A Study on the Strategic Alliance of Social Enterprise Case of Cheongmil Inc	박진아, 박철	사회적기업연구	2016. 12
150	사회적 기업에 대한 이용자의 주관적 인식유형 연구 : Q 방법론적 접근을 중	A Study on the Subjective Recognition Types of User for Social Enterprise - Focused on Q	심미영, 염동문,	사회과학연구	2012. 12

	심으로	methodology	전재명 외 1명		
151	사회적 기업의 성공요인과 시사점 : 친환경 사회적 기업 사례분석을 중심으로	A Study on the Success Factors and Implications of Social Enterprise - Focusing on the Eco-social Enterprise	한세익	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2017. 02
152	공공임대주택 단지 내 사회적 기업의 공급실태 및 입주업체 특성 연구	A Study on the Supply Status and Characteristics of Social Enterprise in Public Rental Housing Sites	하승호, 안정근, 배민철	주거환경	2018. 09
153	도시재생 영역의 중요도 분석을 통한 사회적기업의 지속가능성 탐색	A Study on the Sustainability of Social Enterprise through AHP Analysis on the Urban Renaissance Program	홍성우, 장우진	한국지적정보학회지	2011. 06
154	사회적기업 이용실태와 구매의도에 관한 연구	A Study on the Use Realities and the Purchase Intention for Social Enterprise	조은미	경영관리연구	2013. 12
155	사회적 기업 구성원들의 일 가치감과 직무몰입에 대한 연구 : 심리적 소유의식과 직무열의를 중심으로	A Study on the Work Value and Job Commitment of Social Enterprise Employees - Focus on Psychological Ownership and Job Engagement	정동섭	기업경영리뷰	2018. 12
156	인천지역 사회적기업의 노동자 숙련형성 기능에 관한 고찰	A Study on Worker's Skill Formation as a Function of Social Enterprises; Focused on the Case of Incheon	양준호, 이혜정	인천학연구	2013. 08
157	사회적 기업의 현황 및 정책분석 : 한국, 일본, 유럽 및 미국의 노인고용 창출을 중심으로	A Study the Status and Policy Analysis of Social Enterprise to Creating the Elderly Job: Focused on Korea, Japan, Europe & U.S.A	김연정	아시아연구	2012. 09
158	사회적기업의 사회적 책임에 대한 주관성연구	A Subjective Study on the Social Responsibility of Social Enterprise	염성수, 이도희	사회적기업연구	2017. 06
159	사회적 기업 인증제도의 개선방안 고찰	A Suggestion for Improvement of the Authentication of Social Enterprises	김순양	사회적기업연구	2009. 06
160	지적장애인 관계자의 사회적기업에 관한 인식조사 : 충청도 지역을 중심으로	A Survey on the Perception of Social Enterprise for People Concerned with Intellectual Disabilities	강미라, 조인수, 落合俊郎	특수교육학연구	2013. 12
161	사회적기업의 지속가능성을 위한 지역 사회자본 형성전략에 대한 이론적 고찰 : 연결망 재구축과 지속가능성을 중심으로	A Theoretical Analysis on Social Enterprise's Formation Strategy on Local Community Resources - Focusing on Reestablishing Networks and Sustainable Development-	최석현, 조창현, 정무원	한국거버넌스학회보	2012. 04
162	사회적 기업가정신에 관한 이론적 고찰	A Theoretical Study on the Social Entrepreneurship	이용락	사회적기업연구	2009. 12
163	사회적기업의 지역사회 자원연계 활성화를 위한 사례연구 : 광주광역시. 제주특별자치도를 중심으로	Activating Local Society Resource Network of Social Business: Focusing on Kwangju and Jeju	최혁라, 김선명, 김기현	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2012. 01
164	사회적기업 인증 결과와 과제 : 2007년 10월부터 2008년 5월까지 인증된 84개 사회적기업을 중심으로	An Analysis of Certified Social Enterprise in Korea - Focused on the 84 social enterprises in Korea from October 2007 to May 2008	조영복, 강승화	사회적기업연구	2008. 06
165	사회적기업 활성화를 위한 지역자원유형 분석: 전남 22개 시·군을 중심으로	An Analysis of Local Area Resources for Social Enterprise Revitalization: Focusing on Jeonnam	유일, 김선명, 최혁라	현대사회와 행정	2009. 12
166	자료포락분석을 활용한 사회적기업의 효율성 분석	An Analysis of the Efficiency of Social Enterprise Using Data Envelopment Analysis	김숙경, 윤중상, 강태식	한국지리학회지	2017. 12
167	사회적기업에 대한 재정지원과 고용창출간의 관계 분석 : 2007~2011년 인증 사회적기업을 중심으로	An Analysis of the Relationship between Social Enterprise Financial Support and Job Creation with a Focus on Social Enterprises Certified between 2007 to 2011	도수관, 박경하	한국행정학보	2014. 09
168	대구·경북 사회적 기업의 지역밀착형	An Analysis on Local Community Relevance of	김성숙	지역사회연구	2011.

	적합성 평가	Daegu-Kyonbuk Social Enterprises			03
169	사회적기업의 경제적·사회적 성과분석 : 정부지원금의 효과를 중심으로	An Analysis on the Economic and Social Performance of the Social Enterprises in Korea: Focusing on the Effects of Governmental Subsidies	김재홍, 이재기	한국행정논집	2012. 12
170	사회적기업에 대한 정부지원금의 고용 창출 효과분석	An Analysis on the Job Creation Effects of Governmental Subsidies for Social Enterprises	김재홍, 이재기	지방정부연구	2012. 11
171	경남 사회적 기업의 운영 및 생태계 분석	An Analysis on the Operation and Ecosystem of Social Enterprise in Gyeongnam	권용덕, 김덕주	사회적기업연구	2011. 12
172	공감, 도덕적 의무감, 사회적 지지에 대한 인식이 사회적 기업가적 의도에 미치는 영향	An Effect of Compassion, Moral Obligation on Social Entrepreneurial Intention: Examining the Moderating Role of Perceived Social Support	이채원, 오혜미	벤처창업연구	2017. 10
173	사회적기업의 조직역량 (organizational competences)에 관한 실증 분석	An Empirical Analysis on the Organizational Competences of Social Enterprises in Korea	최무현	한국조직학회보	2014. 12
174	사회적 기업의 인증이 고용 및 사회복지서비스 성과에 미치는 영향분석 : 대구지역 사회적 기업 근로자를 중심으로	An Empirical Study on Determinants of Social Worker's Turnover Intentions	김정현	한국지방자치학회보	2014. 12
175	사회적기업의 구조화와 지속가능성 요인에 관한 실증 연구	An Empirical Study on Structuration and Sustainability Factors of Social Enterprises in Korea	이승용, 차재훈	사회적기업연구	2017. 06
176	사회적기업의 금융자원 획득에 관한 실증 연구	An Empirical Study on the Acquisition of Financial Resources by Social Enterprise	임창규, 이상윤	사회적기업연구	2017. 06
177	정부지원이 사회적 기업의 경영성과에 미치는 영향에 관한 실증연구	An Empirical Study on the Effect of Government Support on Social Enterprise Performance	강석민	사회적기업연구	2014. 12
178	사회적 기업가정신, 직업정체성, 사회적 기업의 성과간 관련성 연구	An Empirical Study on the Social Entrepreneurship : Occupational Identity and Performance of Social Enterprise	이수인, 문재승, 문계완	인적자원개발연구	2016. 09
179	조직생태학적 관점을 통한 사회적기업 생태계 탐색 : 밀도의존이론의 적용	An Exploration of Social Enterprise Ecosystem through the Organizational Ecology Perspective: An Application of Density Dependence Theory	장현주	한국공공관리학회보	2013. 12
180	사회적기업 규모화를 위한 탐색적 연구: 소셜 프랜차이즈 가능성 평가와 정책적 시사점	An Exploratory Case Study for Scaling Social Enterprises: Scalability Assessment and Policy Implication	전인, 김기근, 이윤재	사회적기업연구	2018. 09
181	사회적기업의 지속가능한 성공적 비즈니스 모델에 관한 탐색적 연구	An Exploratory Research on the Sustainable Successful Business Model in Social Enterprise	최호규	기업경영리뷰	2017. 06
182	사회적경제 조직의 리더십에 관한 탐색적 사례연구 : 사회적기업 사례를 중심으로	An Exploratory Study on Leadership of Social Economy Organization - A case study of Social Enterprise	오단이	한국사회복지행정학	2013. 11
183	사회적기업의 지역사회 내 사회적 가치 평가에 관한 탐색적 연구	An Exploratory Study on Social Value Evaluation of Social Enterprise in Community	이명진, 천희주	노동연구	2018. 06
184	전통적 기업과 사회적 기업의 연계전략에 대한 탐색적 연구	An Exploratory Study on Strategic Cooperative Models between Traditional and Social Enterprises	박정윤, 권영철	로고스경영연구	2010. 04
185	한국 상황에서의 사회적 기업의 개념과 유형에 관한 소고	An Exploratory Study on the Concepts and Types of Social Enterprise in Korea	김경휘, 반정호	노동정책연구	2006. 12
186	사회적기업의 성과모델에 대한 탐색적 연구 : 인증 사회적기업과 생활협동조합을 중심으로	An Exploratory Study on the Performance Models of Cooperatives and Certified Social Enterprises in Korea	최석현, 남승연	사회과학연구	2015. 01
187	사회적문제해결형 사회적기업 가능성에	An Exploratory Study on the Possibility of	배귀희,	한국거버넌스학회보	2015.

	관한 탐색적 연구 : 경기도 사회적기업 종사자들의 인식을 중심으로	Adoption and Development of Innovative Social Enterprise: Based on the Perception of Employees of Social Enterprises in Kyunggi-do	전성래		12
188	인증사회적기업의 고용의 질에 대한 탐색적 연구 : 공공부문 돌봄서비스 일자리와의 비교	An Exploratory Study on the Quality of Employment between Authorized Social Enterprises and the Job Creation Program	문순영, 방대욱	한국지역사회복지학	2010.06
189	사회적기업 관련법제에 관한 비교연구 : 영국, 이탈리아, 미국, 한국을 중심으로	An International Comparative Study on the Legislative System related to Social Enterprise	이희수	사회적기업연구	2011.12
190	교육분야에서 사회적기업의 활용 가능성 탐색	An Investigation of the Possibility to Utilize Social Enterprise in the Education Sector	김민희	사회적기업과 정책연구	2012.02
191	지역사회에서 사회적기업의 지속가능성 요인 탐색	Analysing the Sustainability of Social Enterprises in the Community	김학실	지방정부연구	2012.05
192	시스템다이나믹스를 활용한 사회적기업 지속가능성 시나리오 분석	Analysing the Sustainability of Social Enterprises using System Dynamics Approach	장지현	사회적경제와 정책연구	2017.02
193	일자리제공형 사회적기업의 DEA 모델을 통한 효율성 분석	Analysis Efficiency of Social Enterprises Using Data Envelopment Analysis: Focusing on the Type of Job Provision	이상연, 채명신	사회적기업연구	2015.12
194	사회적기업의 지역별 분포 특성 분석	Analysis of Regional Distribution Characteristics of Social Enterprise	김금환, 강영숙	벤처창업연구	2014.02
195	확률변경분석(SFA)을 활용한 사회적기업의 수익성과 효율성의 관계 분석	Analysis of Relationship between Profitability and Efficiency of Social Enterprise Using the Stochastic Frontier Translog Function	김용덕, 곽동철	사회적기업연구	2018.06
196	사회적기업 생태계 접근을 통한 연구경향 분석	Analysis of Research Trends in Social Enterprises with a Social Enterprise Ecosystem Approach	강민정, 강예원	사회적기업연구	2013.12
197	문화예술분야 사회적기업의 성공요인 분석 : 콘텐츠의 특징을 중심으로	Analysis of Success Factors for Social Enterprises in the Field of Culture and Arts: With Priority Given to the Characteristics of Contents	최유진	문화콘텐츠연구	2014.12
198	사회적기업 창업자의 개인성향과 창업 의지 간 영향관계 분석 및 공공부문 사회적기업 창업교육의 조절효과에 관한 연구	Analysis of the Relationship between Individualities of Social Enterprise Founders and Entrepreneurial Intentions and Moderating Effects of Social Enterprises Entrepreneurship Education in Public Sector	이재무, 김행열	한국동북아논총	2018.12
199	협동조합기본법 제정과 사회적 기업 환경변화 분석	Analysis on the Enactment of the Framework Act on Cooperatives and the Environmental Changes of Social Enterprises	이주호	사회적기업과 정책연구	2013.08
200	우리나라 근로연계복지사업의 제도적 연계성 분석 : 자활사업과 사회적기업 육성정책을 중심으로	Analysis on the Institutional Contexts of the Korean Welfare-to-Work Programs :Focusing on Self-Sufficiency and Social Enterprise Programs	홍성우	한국정책연구	2011.12
201	한국 사회적기업의 고용창출 효율성 분석 : 인증유형별 · 산업유형별 · 지역별	Analysis on the Job Creation Efficiency of Social Enterprises in Korea : Depending on Certification Type, Industrial Type, and Region	김창범, 이찬영	한국경제연구	2016.09
202	사회적 기업의 지역 내 확산 요인 분석	Analyzing Drivers of Social Enterprises in Korean Local Governments	최유진	지방정부연구	2016.11
203	가산자료 회귀모형을 이용한 사회적기업의 입지요인 분석	Analyzing the Location Factors of Social Enterprises with Count Data Regression Models	이민주, 박인원	국토계획	2013.08
204	논리모형(Logic Model)의 성과관리 적용 가능성 : 사회적 기업 정책을 중심으로	Applicability of Logic Model for Policy Analysis to Performance Management System: With A Special Reference to Social Enterprise Policy	최영철	정책분석평가학회보	2011.09
205	인증 사회적기업의 취약계층 고용 유형과 경제적 성과와의 관계	Association between Types of Employment for the Disadvantaged Populations and Economic	원지영	한국사회복지행정학	2016.08

		Outcomes in Certified Social Enterprises			
206	사회적기업 근로자의 사회적 가치와 경제적 가치에 대한 태도	Attitudes toward Social Values and Economic Values of Social Enterprise Workers	김은희, 이용재	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2017. 05
207	베어베터: 비즈니스 모델 혁신과 파트너십을 활용한 사회적 기업	Bear Better : A Social Enterprise Utilizing Business Model Innovation and Partnership	유승원, 박병진	Korea Business Review	2017. 05
208	사회적기업 연구역량 결집의 초석이 되기를	Becoming a Foundation for the Concentration of Social Enterprise Research Capacity	정종수	사회적기업연구	2008. 06
209	영국과 이탈리아의 사회적기업 그리고 법제도 : 한국 사회적기업의 이익배분과 재무시스템에 관한 시사점	British and Italian Laws on Social Enterprise Issues - Implications for the Korean Social Enterprise Law	김봉철	기업법연구	2018. 03
210	사회복지기관과 사회적기업 간 협력을 통한 가치네트워크 구축	Building a Value Network through Collaboration between Community Welfare Center and Social Enterprise The Case Study of Gireum Community	백희원, 조영정, 장승원	서울도시연구	2016. 06
211	사회적 기업가 교육을 위한 통합적 사회적 기업가정신 모델의 탐색	Building an Integrative Social Entrepreneurship Model for the Social Entrepreneur Education	민동원	로고스경영연구	2017. 03
212	사회적 기업의 개념규정적 특성 및 성과평가 : B-Corporation 기업유형 간 비교우위를 중심으로	Building the Performance Evaluation System of Social Enterprises based on Verification of the Relevancy of the B-Corporation Evaluation System to Korean Society	문병기	한국지방자치학회보	2012. 12
213	사회적기업의 성과평가체계 구축 : B-Corporation 평가인증체계의 한국적 적실성 검증과 연계	Building the Performance Evaluation System of Social Enterprises Based on Verification of the Relevancy of the B-Corporation Evaluation System to Korean society	문병기	한국행정학보	2015. 03
214	부산지역 사회적 기업의 여성인력활용 현황 및 사례	Busan Social Enterprises and Female Labor Participation's Current Status with Case Studies	구명숙	여성우리	2009. 09
215	부산형 사회적 기업이 이끄는 지역 활성화	Busan-type Social Enterprises Leading Area Revitalization	임호	BDI 정책포커스	2010. 12
216	사회적기업의 폐업경험: 과정은 어떠한고 그 요인은 무엇인가?	Business Closure of Social Enterprises: Process and Factors	조상미, 정선희, 김재신	한국사회복지행정학	2017. 02
217	정보소외계층의 복지 IT를 위한 사회적기업의 비즈니스 모델과 경영전략	Business Model and Strategy of Social Enterprise for Welfare IT of Information Alienated Groups	김희영, 조준서	Korea Business Review	2012. 02
218	사회적기업 육성을 위한 자본시장연구	Capital Market Research for Social Enterprise in Korea	최종래, 노희진, 조영복	사회적기업연구	2010. 12
219	Power Study 사례연구 : 사회적기업의 가치 창출과 성장을 위한 파트너십 전략	Case of Power Study - A Partnership Strategy for Value Creation and Growth of Social Enterprises	민동원, 유한나	로고스경영연구	2011. 08
220	기업사회공헌과 사회적기업 설립 지원 사례 및 쟁점	Cases and Issues of Corporate Social Responsibility and Social Enterprise Establishment Support	이은애	사회적기업연구	2010. 06
221	청소 분야 사회적기업 임금실태 및 개선방안	Cleaning Sector Social Enterprises: Wage Situation and Reform Directions	장원봉	노동리뷰	2016. 06
222	기후변화와 개발도상국의 재생에너지 개발 : NGO와 사회적 기업의 경험	Climate Change and Renewable Energy in Developing Countries: The Experience of NGOs and Social Enterprises	한재각	환경사회학연구 ECO	2010. 12
223	문화예술 조직 비교 연구 : 음성서(音聲署)부터 특수법인, 사회적 기업까지	Comparative Study of Arts and Culture Organizations - From Umsungsoh to Special Corporations and Social Enterprise	서민수	문화정책논총	2011. 02
224	한국과 일본의 사회적기업 지원체계 및 지원방법 비교 연구	Comparative Study on Support Systems & Ways for Social Enterprises in Korea and Japan	문주상, 김완민	동북아 문화연구	2019. 06

225	한국과 미국의 사회적 기업 평가·인증 제도 비교연구	Comparative Study on the Evaluation-Certification System for Social Enterprises in Korea and U.S.A	문병기	한국정책과학학회보	2012. 09
226	한국과 일본의 마을기업 비교 : 사회적 기업이 정신과 마케팅 전략을 중심으로	Comparison of Korean and Japanese Village Enterprises - Focusing on Social Entrepreneurship and Marketing Strategy	권주형, 서동관, 김운성	기업경영리뷰	2017. 12
227	커뮤니티 비즈니스의 개념정립에 관한 연구 : 사회적기업과의 구분을 목적으로	Constructing the Concept of 'Community Business': Differentiating from 'Social Enterprise'	김윤호	한국사회와 행정연구	2010. 05
228	사회적 기업 출자 활성화를 위한 회사법적 개선방안	Corporate Laws Approach to Promoting Investment in Social Enterprises	권재열	증권법연구	2013. 01
229	사회적기업을 통한 대안적 노동체제론 비판	Criticism on Discourse of Social Enterprise Labor System	정지승	사회과학연구	2014. 12
230	한국 사회적 기업의 실패와 과제 : 조례와 인증을 중심으로	Current Issues and Tasks on Regulations and Certifications with Korean Social Enterprises	정태일	한국동북아논총	2011. 09
231	사회적 기업 인지도와 사회적 자본의 사회적 기업 신뢰에 대한 효과 분석	Determinants of Public Attitudes toward Social Enterprise in Korea	한상일, 권소일	사회적경제와 정책연구	2019. 05
232	사회적기업 구성원의 혁신적 업무행동 선행요인에 관한 연구	Determinants of Social Enterprise Employee's Innovative Work Behavior	여예원, 이주성	사회적기업연구	2014. 06
233	사회적 기업가의 흡수능력 형성요인 : 경험과 사회적 네트워크를 중심으로	Determinants of Social Entrepreneurs Absorptive Capacity: Focusing on Experience and Social Network	박노윤	인적자원개발연구	2015. 09
234	스마트폰 애플리케이션을 이용한 혁신형 사회적 기업 비즈니스 모델 개발	Developing a Social Venture Business Model Using a Smart Phone Application: TREE PLANET	신지영, 문정빈, 문재윤	Korea Business Review	2013. 11
235	사회적기업가정신 척도 개발 및 타당화 연구 : 친사회성을 중심으로	Development and Validation of the Social Entrepreneurship Scale An Exploration of Prosociality	문남희, 김명소	사회적기업연구	2016. 12
236	소비문화 척도를 이용한 소비가치의 세분화 집단별 사회적기업의 제품 평가와 구매의도 차이분석	Difference Analysis between Consumer Segmentation Using Consumption Values for Social Enterprises Product Evaluation and Purchase Intension	오혜영	사회적기업연구	2015. 06
237	사회적기업 활성화를 위한 기초자치단체간 협력방안 : 경기도 11개 도농복합시를 중심으로	Directions for Cooperative with Local Government for Social Enterprise Revitalization with Reference to Eleven Urban-Rural Consolidated Cities in Gyeonggi-do	주성돈	한국공공관리학보	2014. 12
238	지역사회의 일자리 창출을 위한 사회적 기업 육성방안	Directions for Promoting Social Enterprises in Regional Society for Job Creation	박신영	극토	2010. 10
239	조직요인은 사회적기업에서 근무하는 장애인의 행복에 영향을 미치는가?	Do Organizational Factors Determine the Happiness of People with Disabled Working in Social Enterprises?	조상미, 권소일, 양준영	한국사회복지행정학	2017. 08
240	조직요인은 사회적 기업의 성과에 영향을 미치는가?	Do Organizational Factors Influence the Outcome of Social Enterprise?	조상미, 권소일, 김수정	한국사회복지학	2012. 08
241	사회적 기업에서 비전공유와 가치일치가 근로자의 조직시민행동에 미치는 영향	Effect for the Workers Organizational Citizenship Behavior of Value Congruence and Vision Sharing in Social Enterprise	이용재	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2012. 03
242	사회적기업의 조직문화가 조직의 사회적·경제적 성과에 미치는 영향	Effect of Organizational Culture in Social Enterprises	김미화, 이용재	한국지역사회복지학	2015. 06
243	사회적기업의 윤리경영이 조직성과에 미치는 영향	Effects of Ethical Management on Organizational Performance in Social Enterprise	이용재, 김은희	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2018. 05
244	사회적기업간 네트워크 특성이 조직성	Effects of Interorganizational Network	이재희,	한국사회복지행정학	2015.

	과에 미치는 영향 : 네트워크 중심성을 중심으로	Characteristics of Social Enterprises on Organizational Performance: Focusing on Network Centrality	조상미		05
245	한국 사회적기업의 경제적 성과와 사회적 성과에 대한 효율성 분석	Efficiency Analysis on Social and Economic Performance of Social Enterprise in Korea	김창범, 이찬영	산업경제연구	2015.08
246	지역별 한국 사회적기업의 사회적 성과에 대한 효율성, 생산성 및 효율성의 결정요인 분석 : SBM 기법, Malmquist 생산성 지수, 패널 Tobit 기법의 적용	Efficiency, Productivity and Determinants of Efficiency for Social Performance of Social Enterprises by Region in Korea : Applying SBM Analysis, Malmquist Productivity Index, and Panel Tobit Analysis	김창범	산업경제연구	2017.12
247	충남 사회적기업의 고용창출효과에 대한 실증분석	Empirical Analysis on the Job-Creation Effect of Chungnam Social Enterprises	김종수, 홍성호	도시행정학보	2013.06
248	장애인 사회적기업의 고용유인효과	Employment Effect on Social Enterprise for People with Disabilities	나윤환	특수교육재활과학연구	2013.06
249	사회적 기업에서 활동하는 결혼이주여성들의 역량강화 프로그램 개발 및 효과	Empowerment Program Development and Effects for Internationally Married Women in Social Enterprises	김효순	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2016.04
250	이혼숙려기간 중 통합적 부부치료에 있어서 사회적기업의 역할 제고 방안	Enhancing the Role of the Social Enterprise in the Integrative Couples Therapy during Careful Deliberation Period for Divorce	이현주	사회적경제와 정책연구	2016.10
251	관광분야와 연계된 문화·공연·예술 사회적기업 비즈니스모델 구축 : 광주광역시를 중심으로	Establishing a Business Model for Social Enterprises in the Fields of Culture, Performance, and the Arts Associated with the Tourism Industry : Gwangju Metropolitan City	김창범, 변장섭, 나주몽	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2016.09
252	사회적기업의 유형별 경영효율성 평가	Evaluation of Management Efficiency Social Enterprises Based on their Types	이상연, 전혜선, 채명신	기업과혁신연구	2017.04
253	한국 사회적기업의 노동통합 가치 평가: 생산함수 및 노동의 한계생산성 추정에 기초하여	Evaluation of the Labor Integration Value of Korean Social Enterprises: Based on the Estimation of Production Function and Marginal Productivity of Labor	최지혜, 이찬영	한국경제연구	2019.06
254	사회적기업의 공감적 반응에 대한 연구	Exploratory Research on Consumer Sympathetic Response of the Social Enterprise	육정원	사회적기업연구	2016.06
255	근거이론을 통한 사회적기업의 지속발전 모형에 대한 연구 : 서울지역 사회적기업을 대상으로	Exploring a Sustainable Development Model for Social Enterprises Based on the Grounded Theory: Focusing on Social Enterprises in Seoul	이영범, 박성우, 남승연 외 1명	한국사회와 행정연구	2012.02
256	사회적기업의 고용창출 영향요인 분석	Exploring Influential Factors of Social Enterprise on Job Creation	허만형, 양광석	한국행정연구	2015.09
257	사회적기업의 고용창출에 미치는 영향요인 분석 및 정책적 함의	Exploring the Determinants of New Employment Creation of Social Enterprise and Policy Implications	권상집, 박은일, 김희래	사회적기업연구	2013.12
258	광주시 사회적기업의 수출기업화 요인 : AHP 이용	Export Strategy Factors of Social Enterprises in Gwangju: Using AHP	임준형	산업경제연구	2013.04
259	AHP 를 이용한 전남 사회적기업의 수출기업화 요인	Export Strategy of Social Enterprises in Jeonnam: Using AHP	임준형, 오경숙, 모수원	산업경제연구	2014.10
260	사회적기업 사회적 성과의 영향요인 : 지방정부 공무원의 인식을 중심으로	Factors Affecting Social Performance of Social Enterprises - Focusing on Perception of Public Officials in Local Governments	원숙연, 임현지	사회과학연구논총	2018.10
261	사회적기업 여행사의 여행상품에 대한 구매의도 영향요인	Factors Influencing Purchase Intention for Travel Products of Social Enterprise	김민형, 황영현	관광레저연구	2017.07
262	사회적기업 육성을 위한 금융지원 방안	Financial Support for Promotion of Social Enterprise : Introduction of Social Impact	조영복,	사회적기업연구	2014.12

	안 : 사회성과연계채권(SIB)의 도입에 관한 연구	Bonds(SIB)	신경철		
263	AHP 를 활용한 사회적경제 활성화 요인에 관한 연구 : 협동조합과 사회적기업 비교의 관점에서	Finding Factors for Vitalizing the Social Economy in Korea : AHP Approach	최유진	사회적기업연구	2018.12
264	한국형 사회적 기업을 위하여	For Korean-style Social Enterprise	김혜원	국제노동브리프	2006.06
265	무엇을 위한 사회적기업인가: 한국에서의 사회적기업 형성과정	For What It Is Social Enterprise: Making Social Enterprise in South Korea	조용현, 장지호	현대사회와 행정	2013.04
266	공공성의 관점에서 사회적 기업의 발전 방향	From Perspectives of Publicness the Development Strategy of Social Enterprise in Korea	최무현	공공사회연구	2011.08
267	사회적 기업의 성장과 정부 지원 : 평가와 새 방향	Government Support to the Social Enterprises and their Development in South Korea	박찬임	시민과세계	2009.06
268	결혼이주여성의 사회적기업 근무경험에 관한 근거이론연구	Grounded Theory Study on the Social Enterprises Work Experience of Marriage Immigrant Women	이현주	한국사회복지학	2016.12
269	지방정부의 사회적기업 성장모델 탐색 : 제주지역 사회적기업 운영실태 분석을 중심으로	Growth Model for Social Enterprises in Local Government: Focused on Practices of Social Enterprises in Jeju	김재인	지방정부연구	2012.05
270	한국 사회적 기업가의 리더십이 조직문화와 조직효과성에 미치는 영향	he Effects of Korean Social Entrepreneurs' Leadership on Organizational Culture and Effectiveness	김행열, 김형수	한국동북아논총	2013.12
271	사회적기업의 성과, 무엇으로 보는가? : 경향연구	How Can We Define Performance of Social Enterprise: A Review	조상미, 선민정, 임근혜 외 1명	한국사회복지행정학	2018.05
272	공공기관의 사회적기업 지원을 통한 사회적 책임 제고방안	How to Increase the Social Responsibility of Social Enterprises	김지숙	보건복지포럼	2011.01
273	사회적기업 지원을 위한 과세제도 개선 방안	How to Revise Tax Laws to Support Social Enterprise	전병욱	사회적기업연구	2015.12
274	사회적기업의 사회적자본이 기업성과 및 맥락수행에 미치는 영향	Impact of Social Capital on Corporate Performance and Contextual Performance of Social Enterprises	강문실, 양성규	대한경영학회지	2016.01
275	사회적기업의 성과 결정요인 분석 : 사회적기업의 조직 특성을 중심으로	Impact of Social Enterprise's Organizational Character on Social Performance and Economic Performance	이수창, 정우열	한국거버넌스학회보	2014.08
276	스웨덴 사회적기업 삼할(SAMHALL)로부터 충남 장애인 사회적기업의 함의	Implications of Disabled Social Enterprise in Chungnam Province from Swedish Social Enterprise SAMHALL	장석인, 성연옥, 신종호	인적자원개발연구	2018.03
277	사회적 기업 형 카페 선택속성의 중요도 및 수행도 분석	Importance and Performance Analysis of Customers Selection Attributes for Social Enterprises Type Cafe	안혜영, 백진경, 홍완수	한국식품조리과학회지	2013.12
278	사회적기업에 대한 정부 지원 체계 개선 방안 연구	Improving Governmental Support System for Social Enterprise in Korea	김혜원	사회적기업연구	2011.06
279	사회적기업에 대한 재정·세제지원 개선방향 : 한국과 일본의 기부세제 비교를 중심으로	Improving Subsidy and Tax Deduction Policies for Social Enterprise: With a Focus on the Differences in Tax Deductible Donations in Korea and Japan	네모토 마사즈미, 장지호	한국사회와 행정연구	2012.05
280	우리 사회에 사회적기업이라는 새 살이 돋고 있습니다	In Our Society Social Enterprise has been Budding for Three Years	김신배	사회적기업연구	2008.06
281	국제개발협력과 한국의 사회적 기업	International Development Cooperation and	김동훈	국제개발협력	2009.

		Korean Social Enterprise			08
282	퍼지셋 이상형 분석을 활용한 사회적기업 일자리의 질 분석	Investigating the Quality of Work in Korean Social Enterprises - An Application of Fuzzy-set Ideal Type Approach	김보람, 문은하, 이승윤	한국지역사회복지학	2012.12
283	사회적 기업 인증제도 하에서의 사회적 기업가정신(social entrepreneurship)에 대한 인식프레임 분석	Investigation of Social Entrepreneurship under Certification System for Social Enterprise: Frame Analysis Approach	김학실, 심준섭	사회적기업연구	2018.09
284	교육분야 사회적기업 운영 방안 탐색 : 퇴직교원의 전문성 활용을 중심으로	Investigation on the Operating of Social Enterprise in the Area of Education: Utilizing the Expertise of Retired Teacher	김민희	사회적기업과 정책연구	2015.08
285	유럽의 사회적 기업 비교를 통한 한국형 사회적 기업의 방향	Korean Social Enterprise - A Critique and Future Direction Based on Comparing European Social Enterprise	주정	복지행정논총	2013.12
286	사회적기업가 성장과정에 나타난 실천 공동체 학습경험 : 중·고령자 사회적기업 '은빛둥지' 사례	Learning Experiences in the Community of Practice in the Growth Process of Social Entrepreneur : A Case Study on the Middle and Older Adult Social Enterprise "Silver Nest"	김정진, 최윤실	사회적기업연구	2014.12
287	사회적 기업에 대한 법적 고찰	Legal Issues on Social Enterprise	강정혜	서울법학	2013.02
288	사회적 기업과 기업의 사회적 책임에 관한 문헌연구	Literature Navigation on Social Enterprise and Corporate Social Responsibility	백유성, 김종길	사회적기업연구	2013.06
289	로컬푸드와 사회적 기업 : 대구경북의 사례를 중심으로	Local Food and Social Enterprises in Taegu and Kyungpook Province	김영철	경영경제연구	2010.02
290	사회적 기업에서 일하는 저소득 한부모 여성 가장의 노동경험	Low-Income Single Female-Parents Work Experiences in Social Enterprises	하춘광, 김효순	한국사회복지질적연구	2015.09
291	한국 사회적기업의 시장 경쟁 구조 현황 : 기업 규모 및 연령효과와 인증취소 영향요인 분석을 중심으로	Major Features of Competition Structure in Social Enterprise Market in Korea : Focusing on Firm Size/Age Effects and Determinants of Decertification	이정현	사회적기업연구	2015.06
292	자료포락분석 및 토빗회귀분석을 활용한 사회적기업의 상대적 효율성 분석	Measuring Relative Efficiency of Social Enterprises in Korean Using Data Envelopment Analysis and Tobit Regression Analysis	이재무, 이원영	사회적기업연구	2016.06
293	사회적 기업이 창출하는 가치의 SROI 기법에 의한 측정 : 경남 지역의 'A 간병 기업' 사례를 중심으로	Measuring Social Enterprise's Value Creation's Social Return on Investment: Focusing on a Nursing Social Enterprise in the Gyeongnam Region	김혜란	한국사회와 행정연구	2012.08
294	사회성과인센티브(SPC)와 사회적 기업의 사회적 가치 측정: 사회성과의 화폐 가치 환산	Measuring Social Performance of Social Enterprises in Social Progress Credit(SPC): Conversion of Social Performance into Monetary Value	라준영, 김수진, 박성훈	사회적기업연구	2018.09
295	사회적기업의 네트워크 활동과 사회적·경제적 성과의 관계 : 지역관계의 매개효과를 중심으로	Mediating Effects of Local Embeddedness on the Relationship between Social Enterprises Networking Activities and Their Social and Economic Performance	박현희, 박은영	한국조직학회보	2017.10
296	사회적기업 성공요인 분석을 통한 직업재활시설 활성화 방안	Methodology to Activate Vocational Rehabilitation Facilities by Analysing Success Factors of Social Enterprises	조성열, 김백수	직업재활연구	2011.08
297	소수자 보호정책과 사회적기업 : 북한 이탈주민을 중심으로	Minority Protect Policies and Social Enterprises: Focusing on North Korean Defectors	정석환	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2015.12
298	사회적 기업의 복합 이해당사자 구조와 사회적 기업가의 역할 : '재활용 대안기업 연합회'를 중심으로	Multi-stakeholder Structure of Social Enterprises and Social Entrepreneurs Roles - Focusing on Korean Recycling Federation of Social solidarity Enterprises	한상진	환경사회학연구 ECO	2009.06

299	사회적 기업 전환을 위한 욕구분석	Needs for the Conversion of Social Enterprise	이용재	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2010.04
300	사회적기업을 위한 새로운 법인격 : 쟁점과 대안	New Legal Personhood for Social Enterprise in Korea - Issues and Alternative	김혜원, 김성기, 박향희 외 2명	사회적기업연구	2018.01
301	한국 사회적 기업 발전방향에 대한 고찰 : 대안적 패러다임의 모색	New Strategy of Social Enterprise in Korea	노대명	시민과세계	2009.06
302	사회서비스 분야 사회적 기업은 지속가능한가	On the Sustainability of Social Service-type Social Enterprises	김혜원	노동리뷰	2007.03
303	사회적 기업과 시민사회운동'에 대한 의견	Opinion about Social Enterprises and Civil Society Movements	추경희	시민과세계	2009.12
304	사회적기업과 영리기업간 조직문화차이와 조직성과에 미치는 영향	Organizational Culture Difference of Social Enterprises and Commercial Enterprises, and Impact Relations on Social and Economic Outcomes	김미화, 이용재	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2016.12
305	사회적 기업의 조직특성과 제도화	Organizations and Institutionalization of Social Enterprises in Korea	이창순	현상과인식	2010.09
306	사회적기업 육성을 위한 민간기금 조성 과 금융지원 활성화방안	Organizing a Private Fund for the Promotion of Social Enterprise and Measures to Activate Financial Support	양용희	사회적기업연구	2011.06
307	청주지역 사회적기업의 발전과 사회적 가치 실현에 대한 인식 : 청주지역 사회적 기업 관계자 및 사회적 기업 삶과 환경 노동자들을 중심으로	Perception of Development of Social Enterprises and Realization of Social Values in Cheongju : Focusing on the Officials at Social Enterprises and Workers of Life and Environment in Cheongju	정헌근	사회적기업과 정책연구	2015.02
308	자활공동체의 사회적 기업으로의 발전 가능성 연구 : 구성원의 인식을 중심으로	Perception of Self-support Community Participants' on Social Enterprise	정아윤	사회적기업연구	2008.12
309	07 인증 사회적기업의 성과분석과 과제	Performance Analysis and Tasks of Social Enterprises Certified in 2007	곽선화	사회적기업연구	2009.06
310	2008 사회적기업 인증 분석	Performance Analysis and Tasks of Social Enterprises Certified in 2008	곽선화	사회적기업연구	2010.06
311	한국 사회적기업 인증 결과 분석 : 2007년부터 2011년 5월까지 인증 사회적기업을 중심으로	Performance Analysis of Certified Social Enterprises: 2007 to 2011 May	이나영	사회적기업연구	2011.06
312	공동체자산기반 접근을 활용한 사회적 기업 육성 정책 방향 모색	Policy Direction to Promote Social Enterprise through a Community Asset-based Approach	김종수, 전은호, 홍성효	도시행정학보	2012.06
313	사회적협동조합의 사회적기업 정착을 위한 정책과제	Policy Tasks for Settlement of the Social Cooperatives into the Social Enterprises	이현주, 조성숙	사회과학연구	2013.02
314	사회적경제에서 공동체운동의 가능성과 한계 : 광주지역 사회적기업, 마을기업, 협동조합을 중심으로	Possibilities and Limits of Community Movement in Relation to the Social Economy - Focused on social enterprises, community businesses and cooperative associations in Gwangju	김경례, 윤영선	지역사회연구	2015.06
315	사회적기업 중심의 복지기술 생태계 모델에 관한 서설적 연구	Preliminary Study on a Social-Enterprise-centered Model of Welfare Technology Ecosystem	안상훈, 김수완, 박종연	사회적기업연구	2018.01
316	사회적 기업의 육성과 사회적 기업가 양성 체계	Promoting of Social Enterprise and Training System for Social Enterpriser	이윤정	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2010.08
317	기술집약형 사회적기업 활성화 방안	Promoting Technology-based Social Enterprises	송위진, 성지은,	Issues & Policy	2013.02

			김왕동		
318	사회적기업과 영리기업의 조직문화와 조직성과에 관한 질적 연구	Qualitative Research on Organizational Culture and Organizational Performance of Social Enterprises and Commercial Companies	이용재	한국지역사회복지학	2018. 03
319	사회변화에 따른 사회적기업 개념의 재정립 : NIE 분석 방법론 중심으로	Rebuilding Social Business Concept based on Social Change - Focus on NIE	김창호	사회적기업연구	2012. 12
320	사회문제의 해결을 이끄는 최근 친사회적 기업경영의 흐름 : Warby Parker 와 바이맘의 사례를 중심으로	Recent Wave of Prosocial Management Leading on Social Problem Solving: Focusing on Warby Parker and Bymom	이경의, 민동원	Korea Business Review	2019. 02
321	경제적 합리성의 재해석 : 사회적 기업과 공유경제기업의 비교를 중심으로	Reexamined Economic Rationality: A Comparative Study between Social Enterprise and Economy of Communion Enterprise Rapid industrialization and Unplanned Urbanization in Korea	문병기	한국지방자치학회보	2010. 12
322	사회적기업 정착을 위한 한국 사회의 성찰: 베버와 하버마스의 합리성이론을 중심으로	Reflectiveness of the Korean Modernization in the Settlement of Social Enterprises - Based on Rationality of Weber and Habermas	김태근	인문연구	2013. 04
323	사회적기업 지원을 위한 법제도의 개선	Reform Proposal for the Support of the Social Enterprise in Korea	이광택	법학논총	2012. 02
324	사회적 기업에 대한 효율적인 정부지원 시스템 구축방안 : 정부지원을 위한 기준 설정 및 행정체계 확립을 중심으로	Reframing the Governmental Support System for Social Enterprises	김순양	한국사회정책	2010. 08
325	지역여성고용과 사회적 기업	Regional Female Employment and Social Enterprise	김경희	여성우리	2009. 09
326	사회적기업의 지속가능성을 위한 자금 조달에 관한연구 : 인천지역 사회적기업의 설문조사를 중심으로	Research on Social Finance and Fund-raising for the Sustainability of Social Enterprises - Based on the Survey of the Social Rnterprises in Incheon	장구보, 이혜정	인천학연구	2015. 02
327	장애인 고용 사회적기업에 관한 국내 연구동향	Research Trends on Social Enterprises Employing People with Disabilities in Korea	이경선, 이미숙	장애와 고용	2015. 08
328	사회적기업 자원연계 현황 및 활성화 방안	Resources Linkage and Activation Plan in Social Enterprise	이용재, 김봉환	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2013. 06
329	공유가치창출을 실천하는 사회적기업 : 정책분석을 통한 경쟁력 제고	Rethinking Competencies of Social Enterprises as a Way to Create Shared Value : Policy Analyses from a Perspective of Competitive Advantage	조상미, Erica Yoonkyung Auh, 정수정 외 1명	Korea Business Review	2014. 11
330	농촌지역 사회적기업 활성화 방안 : 전남 보성군 사례를 중심으로	Revitalization of Social Enterprise in Rural Areas : Focused on the Case of Boseong in Jeonnam	유일, 최현라, 김선명	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2013. 11
331	관광분야 사회적기업 활성화 방안	Revitalization of Social Enterprise in the Tourism Sector	신용석	한국관광정책	2009. 12
332	사회적 기업의 제도적 동형화 위험과 대안 전략	Risks of Institutional Isomorphism in Developing Social Enterprise and its Alternatives	장원봉	시민과세계	2009. 06
333	통합적 고용 경험이 장애인의 사회통합에 미치는 의미 탐색 : 사회적기업 '(재)행복그린넷'을 중심으로	Semantic Exploration of Integrated Employment Experience for Social Integration of the Disabled: Focusing on the HappyGreenNet Foundation, a Social Enterprise	김도영, 노수희	사회적기업연구	2015. 12
334	시니어의 사회적 기업 창업	Senior Social Enterprise Creation	신철호	Entrepreneurship Korea	2016. 12

335	지식정보사회에서 사회자본과 사회적 기업가정신의 관계 유형과 경제발전	Social Capital, Social Entrepreneurship, and Economic Development in the Knowledge-based Economy	도수관, 장덕희	한국행정학보	2017. 09
336	새로운 고용전략으로서 사회적 경제 : 노동통합사회적기업을 중심으로	Social Economy as a New Employment Strategy: Focusing on Work Integration Social Enterprise	장원봉	보건복지포럼	2008. 10
337	사회적 경제모델과 한국의 사회적 기업 정책	Social Economy Model and Social Enterprise Policy in Korea	송백석	공공사회연구	2011. 08
338	자본주의 4.0 시대의 사회적기업과 경영학	Social Enterprise and Business Administration Studies in the Age of 4.0 Capitalism	최종래	사회적기업연구	2011. 12
339	사회적기업과 영리성	Social Enterprise and Commerciality	이희종	한양법학	2013. 02
340	한국에서 사회적기업과 신자유주의 통치 : 사회적인 것의 통치 메커니즘을 중심으로	Social Enterprise and Neoliberal Governmentality in South Korea - Focusing on Governing the Social	김주환	경제와사회	2016. 06
341	사회적기업과 관광목적지 관리	Social Enterprise and Tourist Destination Management	심진범	한국관광정책	2012. 06
342	자활기업에서 성장한 사회적기업의 기업운영 경험 : 근거이론을 바탕으로	Social Enterprise Business Operations Experience Converted from Self-Sufficient Enterprise - Based on the Grounded Theory	이현주	한국사회복지학	2016. 03
343	지역 사회에서의 사회적 기업	Social Enterprise in Regional Society	안미숙	부산발전포럼	2009. 06
344	사회적기업의 지원정책 동향과 관광분야 적용사례	Social Enterprise Policy Support Trends and their Application to the Tourism Sector	정재민	한국관광정책	2019. 03
345	사회적 기업, 사회적 일자리를 통한 고용창출	Social Enterprise, Creating Jobs through Social Jobs	황덕순	국제노동브리프	2004. 10
346	의료분야에서의 사회적기업의 응용 물리치료사를 중심으로	Social Enterprise's Application to a Physiotherapist in the Healthcare Sector	이광석	사회적기업과 정책연구	2012. 02
347	사회적 기업의 위기와 기회	Social Enterprise's Crisis and Opportunity	도현명	환경논총	2015. 03
348	사회적기업이 저임금 개선에서 거둔 성과가 지속될 수 있도록 노력해야 한다	Social Enterprise's Efforts to Gain Sustained Results in the Improvement of Low Wages	황덕순	노동리뷰	2016. 06
349	사회적기업 인적자원개발의 실태와 과제	Social Enterprise's Human Resources Development's Reality and Tasks	장홍근	노동리뷰	2012. 02
350	혼종조직으로서의 사회적 기업 : 국가-시장-시민사회의 조직 내 충돌과 대응 방식을 중심으로	Social Enterprises as Hybrid Organizations: Focusing on State-Market-Civil Society Collisions	김수영	한국사회정책	2015. 03
351	고용 보장 제도로서의 사회적 기업:한국에서의 도입 가능성 탐색	Social Enterprises as the Schemes of Employment Security The Search for the Possibilities of the Introduction in Korea	오미옥	현상과인식	2005. 12
352	민선 5기 이후 자치구의 사회적기업 지원활동 강화 : 은평구와 성북구 분석	Social Enterprises Support Reinforcements of Autonomous Districts after 5th Local Government : Analysis of Eunpyeong-gu and Seongbuk-gu	홍순식	민주주의와 인권	2011. 04
353	사회적기업, 사회적 투자(Impact Investment)의 발전과 경영전략적 시사점	Social Enterprises, Impact Investment and Implications for Strategy Research	문철우	경영학연구	2012. 12
354	사회적 기업가정신과 기업가의 흡수능력 : 델라이트 사례를 중심으로	Social Entrepreneurship and the Absorptive Capacity of the Entrepreneur: The Case of Delight	박노윤, 이은수	사회적기업연구	2015. 06
355	사회적 혁신과 기술집약적 사회적 기업	Social Innovation and Technology-based Social Enterprises	장영배, 송위진, 성지은	정책연구	2009. 12

356	섬지역 사회적기업가에 의한 사회혁신과 지역활성화의 가능성에 관한 연구	Social Innovation by Social Entrepreneurship for Revitalization with the Local Assets at Depopulated Island Area	박성현, 임화진	한국지적정보학회지	2019. 04
357	사회적 서비스 공급 특성과 사회적기업 연계방안	Social Service Delivery Characteristics and Social Enterprises Linkage	김학실	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2014. 02
358	사회서비스 분야 사회적기업의 임금실태와 정책과제	Social Service Type Social Enterprise's Wage Situation and Role Expansion	길현종	노동리뷰	2016. 06
359	사회적 기업 제품의 사회적 가치 평가 : 관여도와 소구 방식의 영향 분석을 위한 탐색적 실험	Social Value Evaluation of Social Enterprise Products : An Experimental Study on the Effects of Involvement Level and Appeal Methods	민동원, 유한나	로고스경영연구	2014. 12
360	사회적 기업의 이해관계자 인식에 대한 탐색적 연구 : 중증장애인 다수고용사업체 '함께사는세상' 사례	Stakeholder Management of Social Enterprise: An Exploratory Case Study of the Enterprise Employing Severely Disabled Workers	장승권, 박윤규, 이상훈 외 2명	사회적기업연구	2008. 06
361	사회적기업의 행·재정지원제도 보완을 위한 전략적 마케팅	Strategic Marketing to Complement the Administrative and Financial Support System of Social Enterprise	김용호, 송경수	사회적기업연구	2009. 06
362	협동조합의 경험에 기초한 사회적기업의 성장전략과 민관협력 및 제도개선 방안	Strategy of Social Enterprise Based on Cooperatives Movement	최혁진	사회적기업연구	2010. 06
363	사회적기업의 책임활동에 대한 소비자 인식이 기업이미지와 제품 태도에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구 : 자아이미지 일치성의 조절효과를 중심으로	Study of the Corporate Image and Product Attitude in View of Consumer Perception of Corporate Social Responsibility - Focus on the Moderating Effect of Self-image Accordance	진용삼, 이재광	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2014. 12
364	이중멤버십 사회적기업가의 지원체계에 대한 경험 연구 : 자원의존이론의 관점으로	Study of the Experience on Dual Membership Support System of Social Entrepreneurs - Based on Resource Dependence Theory	민윤경	한국사회복지행정학	2016. 02
365	사회적기업가 아카데미 일반과정의 교육과정에 관한 연구	Study on Analysis of the Curriculum of Social Entrepreneurship Academy	김덕원, 김영순	인문과학연구	2011. 09
366	사회적기업의 사회적 가치 측정을 위한 지표개발에 관한 연구	Study on Development of Indicators for Measuring Social Value of Social Enterprise	조영복, 신경철	사회적기업연구	2013. 06
367	사회적기업 일자리 질과 결정요인에 관한 연구	Study on the Quality of the Job in the Social Enterprise and its Determinants	남윤철, 진정란, 김원섭	노동연구	2018. 06
368	대학주도 방과후학교 사회적기업의 지속가능성 연구	Study on the Sustainability of University-led Social Enterprise for After-school Education	김태근	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2014. 02
369	사회적기업 현황과 지속가능성을 위한 제언	Suggestions for Social Enterprise Status and Sustainability	이덕수	한국산업정보학회논문지	2016. 12
370	사회적 기업에 대한 국민들의 인식과 지불의사액에 대한 연구	Survey about Public Attitude and Willingness to Pay for Social Enterprises	이주석	한국혁신학회지	2016. 08
371	사회적기업의 지속가능성과 공동체 정신	Sustainability of Social Enterprise and Sense of Community	김태영	도시행정학보	2012. 09
372	지속가능한 관광과 사회적기업	Sustainable Tourism and Social Enterprise	변형석	한국관광정책	2010. 09
373	전환기에 선 사회적기업의 발전을 위한 과제	Tasks for the Development of Social Enterprises in Transition	황덕순	노동리뷰	2012. 02
374	지역사회복지 역할 제고를 위한 사회적기업의 과제	Tasks of the Social Enterprises For Enhancing the Roles of Community Welfare	이현주, 조성숙	한국지역사회복지학	2012. 09
375	사회적 기업 창출 및 육성을 위한 과제	Tasks Pertaining to the Creation and Promotion of Social Enterprise	박찬임	노동리뷰	2008. 07

376	사회적기업의 사회경제적 성과에 미치는 영향요인 분석	The Analysis of the Factors Effecting the Socio-economic Results of the Social Enterprise	선남이, 박능후	지방정부연구	2011. 08
377	한국 사회적기업의 지원체계 분석	The Analysis on Support System For Social Enterprises in Korea	박수경, 장동현	사회과학연구	2013. 10
378	제 1 차 사회적 기업 인증결과와 과제	The Certification Results and Tasks of the First Round of Social Enterprises	조영복	노동리뷰	2007. 11
379	지역 사회적기업의 실태와 정책과제 : 경남 진주시 사례	The Characteristics and Evaluation of Local Social Enterprises and Regional Development: The Case of Jinju City, Korea	이종호	한국지역지리학회지	2013. 11
380	한국 종교기반 사회적기업의 특성과 과제 지역사회복지 연구의 일환으로	The Characteristics and Tasks of Korean Religion-Based Social Enterprise: An Introductory Approach to Community Welfare	전명수	한국학연구	2014. 09
381	수도권 사회적기업의 공간분석을 통한 입지특성 연구	The Characteristics of Social Enterprises Distribution through the Spatial Analysis in Capital Area, Korea	임은숙, 이희정	국토계획	2016. 06
382	사회적 기업에 관한 비교법적 연구	The Comparative Law Study concerning to Social Enterprises	김영진	공법학연구	2011. 05
383	외식사회적 기업형 카페에 대한 소비자의 이용실태 및 대중화 발전방안	The Consumer's Current Use and Popularization Development Plan for Foodservice Social Enterprise Type Cafe	안혜영, 김수민, 황혜선 외 1 명	한국식품조리과학회지	2016. 02
384	한국의 사회적 기업의 현황과 과제	The Current Situations and Tasks of Social Enterprises in Korea	최영출	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2013. 08
385	한국의 인증 사회적 기업의 현황과 지역별 분포: 강원도 지역을 중심으로	The Current Status and Regional Distribution of Government-Sponsored Social Enterprise in Korea: Focused on Gangwon Area	한상일	창조와 혁신	2011. 02
386	사회적기업의 고용효과 및 결정요인	The Determinants and Employment Effects of Social Enterprise	윤윤규	노동리뷰	2012. 02
387	사회적기업의 지역개발 기능과 시장형성에 관한 연구 : 원주 협동사회경제네트워크를 중심으로	The Development of Regional and Market Formation of Social enterprise: Focused on Socioeconomic Cooperation Framework in Won-ju	류만희	비판사회정책	2012. 08
388	사회적 기업 성공담론의 구조와 신자유주의 헤게모니	The Discursive Structures of Social Enterprises Success and Neoliberal Hegemony in Korea	김주환	문화와 사회	2014. 05
389	사회적기업 제품에 대한 소비가치가 태도 및 구매의도에 미치는 영향 : 대학생들을 중심으로	The Effect of Attitude and Purchase Intention on Consumption Values of Social Enterprise Product Focus on University students	정수현, 김숙연, 김재환 외 1 명	서비스경영학회지	2013. 12
390	창립멤버 구성이 사회적기업의 성과에 미치는 영향	The Effect of Founding Teams on the Performance of Social Enterprises	김수한	노동연구	2018. 06
391	사회적기업가의 포용적 리더십이 조직몰입에 미치는 영향 : 심리적 안정의 매개효과	The Effect of Inclusive Leadership on Organizational Commitment : The Mediating Effect of Psychological Safety	조영복, 이나영, 박광휘	사회적기업연구	2018. 01
392	사회적기업 대표자의 리더십이 종사자 근로생활의 질에 미치는 영향 : 직장공동체 정신의 매개효과를 중심으로	The Effect of Leadership style of Social Enterprise's CEO on Worker's Quality of Work Life - Focused on the Mediating Effect of Sense of Community at Workplace	박해금, 이기영	한국사회복지행정학	2014. 11
393	사회적 기업 경영진의 경영역량이 조직 성과에 미치는 영향 : 사회적 기업가 정신의 조절효과 중심으로	The Effect of Management Competency of Social Enterprise Management on Organizational Performance of Social Enterprise - Focusing on the Moderating Effect of Social Entrepreneurship	김문준	기업경영리뷰	2018. 12
394	마케팅 지향성이 사회적 기업의 창업경영 성과에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	The Effect of Marketing Orientation on Social Enterprise Business Performance	김재호, 박재환	한국산학기술학회 학술대회논문집	2010. 05

395	네트워크 다양성과 강도가 사회적 기업의 발전에 미치는 영향	The Effect of Network Variety and Strength on the Development of Social Enterprise	정대용, 김민석	한국산학기술학회 학술대회논문집	2010. 05
396	사회적 기업의 성장과 보호된 시장의 역할 공공기관 우선구매제도의 효과	The Effect of Protected Market in the Growth of Social Enterprises	손동원, 허원창	사회적기업연구	2019. 04
397	사회적기업의 성과와 사회적기업의 지속가능성에 미치는 영향 : 지자체 공무원들을 중심으로	The Effect of Social Enterprise Performance and Sustainability of Social Enterprise : Focused on Local Government Employees	김문준	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2018. 10
398	사회적기업 성과와 정부지원금과의 관련성	The Effect of Social Enterprises Performance on Governmental Subsidies	김수연, 강수진	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2017. 06
399	사회적 기업가의 비전 리더십이 구성원의 성과에 미치는 영향 : 응집력의 매개효과	The Effect of Social Entrepreneurs Visionary Leadership on Workers Performance: The Mediating Effect of Cohesion	주규하, 김왕의	사회적기업연구	2015. 12
400	사회적기업가정신과 자기효능감이 사회적기업의 경영성과에 미치는 영향	The Effect of Social Entrepreneurship and Self-efficacy on the Performance of Social Enterprises	김문준	기업경영리뷰	2018. 10
401	사회적 기업구성원의 네트워크 다양성과 네트워크 강도가 기업발전모형에 미치는 영향	The Effect on Network Diversity and Network Strength of Social Enterprise Member with the Developmental Model	정대용, 김민석	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2010. 10
402	장기지향성이 CSR 활동과 사회적 기업의 경영성과에 미치는 영향에 대한 실증연구	The Effects Long-Term Orientation and CSR Activities on Business Performance in Social Enterprise	장성희, 마윤주	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2014. 05
403	사회적기업의 특성이 사회적기업의 성과에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Characteristics of Social Enterprise on the Performance of Social Enterprise	최수현	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2018. 02
404	사회적기업의 취약계층 고용이 재무적 성과와 사회적 성과에 미치는 영향 : 양적 그리고 질적 접근	The Effects of Employment for Hard-to-employ Populations on Financial Performance and Social Performance in Social Enterprise: Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches	정상훈, 정신모, 박세연	사회적기업연구	2015. 12
405	사회적 기업의 기업가 지향성과 시장 지향성이 경제적 성과와 사회적 성과에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	The Effects of Entrepreneurial Orientation and Market Orientation on the Economic and Social Performance of a Social Enterprise	장성희, 반성식	대한경영학회지	2010. 12
406	기업가지향성, 시장지향성, 기업의 사회적 책임이 사회적 기업의 성과에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Entrepreneurial Orientation, Market Orientation, and Corporate Social Responsibility on Performance in Social Enterprise	장성희	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2014. 06
407	기업가정신이 시장지향성 및 사회적 기업의 성과에 영향을 미치는 요인 성별 차이 분석을 중심으로	The Effects of Entrepreneurship and Market Orientation on the Social Performance of Social Enterprise : Focused on the Gender Differences	장성희, 마윤주	산업경제연구	2011. 10
408	기업가정신이 사회적 기업의 성과에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Entrepreneurship on Social Enterprise Performance	이준희, 김상욱	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2016. 04
409	내부 및 외부 환경요인과 기업가정신이 사회적 기업의 성과에 영향을 미치는 요인 : 네트워크 활동을 중심으로	The Effects of Internal, External Environment and Entrepreneurship on the Performance of Social Enterprise: Focused on the Network Activity	장성희	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2011. 11
410	사회적기업 근로자의 직무요구와 고용 불안정이 직장만족에 미치는 영향 : 사회적미션 지향성의 조절효과 검증	The Effects of Job Demands and Job Insecurity on the Job Satisfaction in Social Enterprise Workers: Focused on the Moderating Effects of Social Mission	강은나	보건사회연구	2011. 06
411	사회적 기업의 제품 편익 프레임과 공익 활동의 시간적 거리가 광고태도 및 구매의도에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Message Framing of product benefit and Temporal Distance on Advertising Attitude and Purchase Intention of Social Enterprise Product	곽재필, 전홍식	한국심리학회지: 소 비자.광고	2016. 02
412	조직특성이 사회적 기업의 성과에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Organizational Characteristics on Social Enterprise Performance	이준희	사회적경제와 정책 연구	2016. 02

413	조직구성원의 사회적 가치추구와 경제적 가치추구가 사회적 기업의 발전에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	The Effects of Pursuit of the Organizational Members Social & Economical Values on the Development of Social Enterprise	정대용, 김민석	산업경제연구	2010.10
414	사회적 자본이 사회적 기업의 성과에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Social Capital on Social Enterprise Performance	이준희	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2016.04
415	사회적 기업 CEO의 직무스트레스가 경영성과에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Social Enterprise CEO's Job Stress on Business Performance	조종현, 전인오	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2016.05
416	사회적기업 제품 구매의도에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Social Enterprise Product Purchase Intention	조은미	경영관리연구	2015.06
417	사회적기업 조직문화가 종사자의 조직몰입에 미치는 영향 : 제조업과 서비스업의 차이를 중심으로	The Effects of Social Enterprises Organizational Culture on the Organizational Commitment of Their Employees : Focused on the Difference between the Manufacturing Industry and the Service Industry	박해금	사회과학연구	2016.01
418	한국 사회적 기업가의 변혁적 리더십이 경영전략과 조직효과성에 미치는 영향	The Effects of Transforming Leadership of Social Entrepreneurs on Business Strategies and Organizational Effectiveness in Korea	박철훈, 김행열	한국동북아논총	2014.09
419	사회적기업의 노동통합 성과 분석 : 인건비 지원 종료 사건을 중심으로	The Effects of Wage Subsidy to Social Enterprises on Work-Integration Performance in Korea	김혜원	사회적기업연구	2018.01
420	사회적 기업가정신이 CSR 활동과 사회적 성과에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구	The Effects Social Entrepreneurship and CSR Activities on Performance of Social Enterprise	장성희	벤처창업연구	2014.04
421	사회적기업육성법 제정 및 시행 후의 발전방향	The Enactment of the Social Enterprise Promotion Act and Its Development	李光澤	법학논총	2008.02
422	낙후지역 발전을 위한 사회적 기업 육성	The Establishment of Social Enterprises for the Development of Depressed Regions	변필성	국토	2011.05
423	사회적 기업 활동을 통한 빈곤여성가족주의 취업경험에 관한 탐색적 연구 : 임파워먼트 과정을 중심으로	The Exploratory Study on Working Experience of Poor Female-Headed Families in Social Enterprise - Focusing on Empowerment Process	김효순	한국사회복지학	2013.03
424	더 나은 세상을 위한 사회적기업 육성, 새로운 패러다임으로	The Formation of Social Enterprise for a Better World, a New Paradigm Shift	조영복	사회적기업연구	2014.06
425	한국형 사회적 기업의 미래 방향과 전략 : 공유·협업의 시각과 연계 전략	The Future Directions and Strategies of Social Enterprise in Korea : From the Perspective of Coownership and Cooperation & Focused on the Collaboration Strategy	양길현	OUGHTOPIA	2016.11
426	사회적 기업에 거는 희망과 기대	The Hopes and Expectations Carried by Social Enterprise	김혜원	노동리뷰	2006.06
427	사회적기업의 특성이 성과와 지속가능성에 미치는 영향분석	The Impact of Characteristics of Social Enterprise on its Performance and Sustainability	전은영, 변병설	한국지역개발학회지	2017.06
428	사회적기업 및 일반기업 예비 창업가의 창업효능감이 창업의도에 미치는 영향	The Impact of Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy on the Entrepreneurial Intention of Preliminary Social Entrepreneurs and General Entrepreneurs: The Moderating Effect of Social Support	조영복, 손진현, 정기범 외 1명	벤처창업연구	2018.02
429	예비창업가 특성과 사회문화적 요인이 사회적기업 창업의지에 미치는 영향	The Impact of Entrepreneurs Characteristics and Socio-Cultural Factors on Entrepreneurial Intention of Social Enterprises	채준원, 김진건	사회적기업연구	2014.06
430	사회적기업의 조직문화가 종사자의 직무만족에 미치는 영향	The Impact of Organizational Culture on the Social Enterprise Workers Job Satisfaction	박해금, 신원식	지방정부연구	2014.08
431	사회적기업에서 조직구성원 참여가 이직의도에 미치는 영향 : 조직공정성 및 조직후원인식의 매개변수를 중심으로	The Impact of Participation of Organizational Members on Turnover Intention: Focusing upon a Mediating Role of Organizational Justice and Perceived Organizational Support	박시남, 배귀희, 이운재	한국사회와 행정연구	2015.02

432	사회적기업 조직구성원의 심리적 자본이 성과에 미치는 영향	The Impact of Psychological Capital on Organizational Performance in Social Enterprises	이용락	사회적기업연구	2013.12
433	사회적 기업의 정체성 형성과정에서 지역과 산업환경의 역할	The Impact of Regional and Industry Environments in Shaping the Organizational Identity of the Social Enterprises	최현도	벤처창업연구	2016.08
434	사회적기업의 공유가치창출이 조직성과에 미치는 영향	The Impact of Shared Value Creation of Social Enterprise on Organizational Performance	이용재, 업소영	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2018.04
435	사회적기업의 네트워크 활동이 경제적 성과 및 사회적 성과에 미치는 영향 : 업종별 차이를 중심으로	The Impact of Social Enterprise Network Activities on Economic Performance and Social Performance: Focusing on the Differences among Different Industries?	권소일, 이재희	사회적기업연구	2018.01
436	사회적기업의 지역경제 활성화에 관한 실증분석	The Impact of Social Enterprises on Local Economy in Korean Municipalities	최유진	지방정부연구	2018.05
437	재무적·사회적 성과를 결정하는 사회적 기업의 특성	The Impact of Social Enterprises on the Financial and Social Performance - An Empirical Analysis in Korea	황수영, 김용덕, 구인혁	벤처창업연구	2019.04
438	비영리조직 구성원의 사회적기업가정신이 가치일치를 매개로 협조적행동에 미치는 영향	The Impact of Social Entrepreneurship of the Members of Nonprofit Organizations on Cooperative Behavior -Focusing on the Mediating Effects of Value Congruence	정대용, 김태현	한국산학기술학회 논문지	2013.09
439	사회적 기업의 사회적 정체성과 사회적 협업 관계가 경제적 성과에 미치는 요인분석	The Impact of Social Identity and Social Alliance on Economic Performance in Social Enterprises	강혜영	벤처창업연구	2019.06
440	사회적기업의 기술혁신이 경제적 성과와 사회적 성과 미치는 영향	The Impact of Technology Innovation on the Economic and Social Performance of Social Enterprises - Based on SROI measurement	이유미, 홍아름	한국혁신학회지	2018.08
441	사회적 기업가정신에 대한 사회적 자본의 매개효과가 사회적 성과에 미치는 영향	The Influence of Mediating Effects of Social Capital on Social Entrepreneurship	김형주, 전인오	벤처창업연구	2017.10
442	과업-기술 적합성이 SNS 이용의도에 미치는 영향에 관한 연구 : 사회적 기업을 중심으로	The Influence of Task-Technology Fit on Usage Intention of SNS : Focused on Social Enterprise	장성희	벤처창업연구	2016.12
443	사회적 기업 종사자의 직무 만족 : 사회경제적 요인의 영향을 중심으로	The Influences of Socio-economic Factors on Job Satisfaction: Focused on the Employees of Social Enterprise	배병룡	한국정책연구	2010.09
444	사회적 책임 유형에 따른 사회적기업 제품 구매의도	The Intention to Purchase Goods of Social Enterprises by Social Responsibility Type	조은미	경영교육저널	2015.12
445	기업가의 특성과 사회적 자본의 사회적 기업 성과와의 연계에 관한 연구	The Linkages between Entrepreneurial Characteristics and Social Capital and Social Enterprise Performance	이준희	사회과학연구	2014.12
446	지역자원 활용형 사회적기업의 지역연계성과 존립기반 : 경남지역을 사례로	The Localness and Socio-Economic Foundation of Local Social Enterprises: The Case of Gyeongnam Province in South Korea	이종호, 채민수	한국지역지리학회지	2016.08
447	사회적기업에서 사회적 연대와 취약계층 참여구조의 의미	The Meaning of the Destitute Participatory Structure in Social Enterprises and its Possibility of Measuring	박성훈	사회적기업연구	2011.12
448	기업가정신과 사회적 기업 성과의 관계에 미치는 사회적 자본의 매개효과	The Mediator Effect of Social Capital in Relationship between Entrepreneurship and Social Enterprise Performance	이준희	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2016.05
449	사회적기업 종사자의 다차원적 직업만족도 : 규범적·가치론적 행위이론 접근	The Normative Value-based Theory of Social Action and Multidimensional Job Satisfaction of Employees in Social Business Companies in South Korea	심재만	노동연구	2018.06

450	사회적 경제의 과제와 농촌 사회적 기업의 실천 : 농업 연계 사회적기업을 중심으로	The Objective of the Social Economy and the Practice of Social Enterprises in Rural Area : Focused on Agriculture Related Social Enterprises	홍서연, 이상연, 김경희	공공사회연구	2015. 08
451	한국 사회적 기업의 운영상 특성과 법·제도 인식에 관한 연구	The Operational Characteristics and Legal-institutional Cognitions of Social Enterprise in Korea	채종현, 최준규	도시행정학보	2010. 06
452	장애인보호작업장의 문제점과 활성화 방안 : 사회적 기업의 특성을 중심으로	The Perceptions of the Social Enterprise toward on Activated Method of the Sheltered Workshop for the Disabled	박현숙	복지행정논총	2014. 12
453	사회적기업 성과평가에 있어 균형성과표 (Balanced Scorecard) 적용에 대한 탐색적 연구 : 들봄서비스 제공 사회적기업 도우누리 사례를 중심으로	The Performance Analysis Model of Social Enterprise Using Balanced Scorecard: A Dounuri Case	박지성, 류성민	서비스경영학회지	2016. 12
454	독일의 사회적 기업 장려 정책연구 : 한국에의 시사점	The Policy Research of Social Enterprise Promotion in Germany: Implications for Korea	신상우	유럽연구	2014. 09
455	사회적기업과 젠더 담론의 정치동학	The Political Dynamics of Gender Surrounding the Social Enterprises in South Korea	김주환	문화와 사회	2015. 05
456	한국의 사회적기업 지원정책의 개선 방안 연구 : 일자리창출 중심의 지원에 대한 비판을 중심으로	The Problems and Policy Recommendation on The Support Policy for Social Enterprises in Korea	김혜원	한국사회정책	2011. 04
457	기업의 의사결정구조와 일몰입, 업무성과, 이직의도 관계 : 사회적 기업, 대기업, 소기업 비교 중심으로	The Relationship between Enterprise Decision-making Structure and Work Flow, Job Performance, and Turnover Intention: Comparing Social Enterprises, Large Firms, and Small Firms	이나경, 황승택	한국정책연구	2010. 09
458	서울형 사회적 기업의 사회적 성과와 경제적 성과의 관계 및 조직형태의 조절효과	The Relationship of the Social and Economic Performance of Seoul Social Enterprise and Moderating Effect of Organizational Type	강병준, 최조순	정책분석평가학회보	2013. 06
459	행위자 특성에 따른 사회적기업 지원정책 우선순위 연구	The Research of the Actors' Characteristics in the Social Enterprise Support Policy Priorities	김학실	지방정부연구	2011. 08
460	청년들의 경제적 자립을 위한 사회적기업의 역할	The Role of Social Enterprises with Regard to Youth Economic Independence	박해금	사회적기업연구	2011. 12
461	장애인 직업재활시설 종사자가 인지하는 사회적 기업 지원에 대한 만족도 및 유용성	The Satisfaction and Availability of Social Enterprise Support Based upon the Perception of Workers at Vocational Rehabilitation Facilities	박서현, 임승희	사회과학연구	2013. 11
462	제2차 사회적기업 육성 기본계획 (2013~2017)	The Second Social Enterprise Formation Master Plan (2013-2017)	편집부	사회적기업과 정책연구	2013. 02
463	공유경제와 사회적 기업 : 우주 (WOOZOO) 사례	The Sharing Economy and Social Enterprises: A WOOZOO Case	라준영	서비스경영학회지	2014. 11
464	과학기술계 사회적 기업의 의의와 정책과제	The Significance of Science and Technology-based Social Enterprises and Policy Directions	장영배	STEPI Insight	2009. 06
465	노동통합사회적기업의 측면에서 살펴본 자활기업의 현실과 과제	The Situation and Tasks of Self-sufficiency Community Enterprises in terms of Work Integration Social Enterprises	김정원	경제와사회	2018. 06
466	우리나라 사회적 기업의 현황과 디자인 재능기부 방향	The Situation of Social Enterprises in Korea and Direction of Design Talent Donation	천정임, 김인철	디자인지식저널	2011. 12
467	사회적 기업 민와일 스페이스의 빈집 활용방안에 관한 연구	The Smart Utilization of Empty Spaces by the Company Meanwhile Space	김영주, 김미정	한국실내디자인학회 논문집	2018. 1
468	사회적 기업의 조직몰입에 대한 심리적 주인의식의 영향과 사회적 기업정신 및	The Social Enterprises Organizational Commitment: The Effect of Psychological Ownership and the Moderation Effects of Social	양현선, 한태영	한국심리학회지: 산업 및 조직	2018. 02

	조직지원의 조절효과	Entrepreneurship and Organizational Support			
469	사회적기업의 추진실태와 개선과제 : 서울시를 중심으로	The State of Social Enterprise Promotion and Reformation Tasks with a Focus on Seoul	금창호	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2012. 08
470	정책도구의 전략적 선택과 조합 : 사회적기업 육성정책을 중심으로	The Strategic Selection and Mix of Policy Instruments - Focused on the Social Enterprise Promoting Policy in Korea	김해란	사회적기업연구	2010. 06
471	노인 일자리사업 정착을 위한 사회적기업 활성화방안	The Study of the Plan to Vitalize the Senior Employment Program	지은구	한국사회과학연구	2009. 06
472	사회적기업 육성에 대한 역량 및 전망에 대한 연구 : 부산지역 사회적기업 관련업체들의 인식을 중심으로	The Study on Ability and Prospect of Social Enterprise Promotion - Focused on Perception of Social Enterprise in Busan	육정원, 강승화	사회적기업연구	2010. 12
473	사회적 기업의 경제적 · 사회적 성과에 관한 연구 : 충남지역(충남 · 대전 · 세종시)의 자율경영공시 자료를 중심으로	The Study on Economic Social Achievement of Social Enterprise: Focusing on Business Management Public Announcement Data of Social Enterprise Located in Chungnam Region (Chungnam, Daejeon, Sejong)	김문준, 이용탁, 최영근 외 1 명	인적자원개발연구	2018. 06
474	중증장애인의 사회적 기업 설립을 위한 논의	The Study on Model of Social Enterprise for Persons with a Significant Disabilities	나우환	직업재활연구	2006. 12
475	자활사업의 사회적 기업 전환에 관한 연구 : 안정적 이익 창출을 위한 사회적 자원의 활용 전략을 중심으로	The Study on The Conversion from Self-support Programs to Social Enterprises: Focused on The Strategy of Utilizing The Social Resources for Sustainable Profits	진재문	사회과학연구	2008. 12
476	사회적기업의 활성화를 위한 법제개선에 관한 소고	The Study on the Legislative Improvement for the Support of the Social Enterprise	김경석	법학논총	2013. 07
477	경력단절여성의 경제활동참여 활성화를 위한 실태분석과 정책함의 : 경기도 사회적기업의 경력단절여성 재취업을 중심으로	The Survey Research and Policy Implications for Reemployment of Career-Interrupted Women	류호상, 장인봉, 염영배	한국정책연구	2013. 03
478	사회적기업의 지속가능성: 개인특성 관점의 사회적 기업가정신	The Sustainability of Social Enterprise : Social Entrepreneurship Based on the Perspective of Personal Characteristics	공혜원	Korea Business Review	2019. 02
479	사회적 기업의 지속경영 가능성 : 업종별 사례를 중심으로	The Sustainability of Social Enterprise: Focusing on Case Study	백유성, 조연화	사회적기업연구	2014. 12
480	노동 통합 사회적기업의 지속가능성	The Sustainability of Work Integration Social Enterprises in Korea	남미옥	사회적기업과 정책 연구	2014. 02
481	사회적기업의 특성과 연관된 지속가능한 성장 방안	The Sustainable Growth Plan Related to the Characteristics of the Social Enterprises	오미옥	한국지역사회복지학	2009. 12
482	사회적 기업의 트리일레마 : 한국형 모델의 전망	The Trilemma of Social Enterprises: The Prospect of the Korean Model	김윤래	사회와이론	2009. 05
483	기독교적 관점에서 본 사회적 기업 이해 : 선교적 교회를 중심으로	The Understanding of a Social Enterprise from the Christian Perspective: Focused on a Missional Church	봉원영	한국콘텐츠학회논문지	2017. 01
484	관광분야 사회적 기업(social enterprise)의 이론적 함의 : 복잡계 패러다임을 중심으로	Theoretical Implication of Tourism Based Social Enterprise -Focusing on the Complexity Paradigm	민웅기, 김남조	관광연구논총	2010. 12
485	시대의 대안, 사회적기업의 밝은 내일을 꿈꾸며	This Era's Alternative, Dreaming of Social Enterprise's Bright Tomorrow	송월주	사회적기업연구	2008. 06
486	사회서비스 제공형 사회적 기업의 품질경영(TQM)	Total Quality Management for Social Enterprise in the Social Service Sector: A Dasomi Foundation Case	라준영	서비스경영학회지	2013. 11
487	사회적 기업의 조직형태와 자금조달 지원을 위한 외국의 입법과 시사점 : 미	Toward an Improved Legal Form and Access to the Financing for Social Enterprise	안수현	증권법연구	2013. 01

	국과 영국을 중심으로							
488	해명되지 않는 '포획'과 '저항': 김주환, 『포획된 저항: 신자유주의와 통치성, 헤게모니 그리고 사회적 기업의 정치학』 (이매진, 2017)	Unaccounted 'Resistance' and 'Capture': JooHwan Kim's "Resistance Captured: Neoliberalism, Governmentality, Hegemony, and Politics of Social Enterprise"	김성윤	경제와사회			2017.12	
489	도시재생과 사회적기업의 역할	Urban Regeneration and Roles of Social Enterprise	최조순, 김태영, 김종수	도시행정학보			2011.03	
490	사회적 기업에 대한 가치공동창출 행동의 예측요인과 결과요인의 검증	Validation of Antecedent and Outcome Variables Affecting Value Co-creation Behavior of Social Enterprises	윤성준, 오종철	사회적기업연구			2014.12	
491	사회적 기업의 가치공동창출 행동모델의 검증	Validation of Value Co-Creation Behaviors for Social Enterprises	윤성준, 한희은, 목옥한	경영학연구			2015.04	
492	가치적합성 또는 시그널링: 사회적 기업의 선발과 이직의도	Value Congruence or Signaling: Recruitment and Turnover Intention in Social Enterprises	장은미, 이정원, 진현	연세경영연구			2019.06	
493	사회적 기업의 가치창출 과정 : 서울시 길음지역 (㈜살기좋은마을 사례연구	Value Creation Process of Social Enterprise : The Case Study of Good Town in Seoul, Korea	서진선, 장승원	사회적기업연구			2016.06	
494	사회적 기업의 가치혁신과 공유가치창출 : 엔비전스(N-VISIONS) 사례	Value Innovation for Creating Shared Value in Social Enterprise : A N-VISIONS Case	라준영	서비스경영학회지			2016.11	
495	간병 자활공동체의 사회적 기업으로의 조직화 동기와 전략 : '부산 돌봄 사회서비스센터'를 중심으로	What are the motivation and strategies to become social enterprises from self-help communities? : The Case Study on "Busan Social Care Center"	황미영	사회과학연구			2009.12	
496	사회적기업 종업원의 직무동기와 이직의도 간 관계 : 인지된 민주적 의사결정과 조직동일시와의 조절효과	Work Motivation and Turnover Intention in Social Enterprises - The Moderating Effects of Perceived Participative Decision Making and Organizational Identification	전인, 강대식, 오선희	사회적기업연구			2018.01	

(d) List of Reports and Magazine Articles

#	Korean	English	Author(s)	Affiliation	English	Publication	Volume	Publication Date	Page Number
1	[Column] 사회적 기업가 정신과 사회혁신엔진	[Column] Social Entrepreneurship and the Engine of Social Innovation	라준영	사회적기업연구원	Research Institute for Social Enterprise	사회적기업매거진	-	2010.4	2
2	[인터뷰 - 노동부 사회적기업과 이강연 사무관] 명확한 비전과 경영역량을 배양하고 다양한 사회적 지원 동원할 수 있는 정당성 능력 갖춘 사회적 기업가를 기대한다	[Interview - Ministry of Employment and Labor's Social Enterprise Division's Deputy Director Kangyeon Lee] A Social Entrepreneur with a Clear Vision and Cultivated Administrative Capacity Cultivation that has the Legitimacy to Mobilize Various Kinds of Social Support	조태근	사회적기업연구원	Research Institute for Social Enterprise	사회적기업매거진	-	2009.5	2

3	[인터뷰] "전문가가 되려는 사람에게 정신을 심어주려고 참여하게 됐습니다" - 사회적 기업 '조이비전'과 함께하는 '박준 뷰티랩' 박준 원장	[Interview] "I have Participated to Instill a Spirit for Those Who Want to Become Experts"-Social Enterprise 'Joy Vision' Working Together with 'Park Joon Beauty Lab', Director Park	김혜인	월간 말	End of the Month	월간 말	-	2007. 8	4
4	[전문기고 - 김홍일 사회투자지원재단 상임이사] 사회적 사명감, 기업가적 마인드 함양한 사회적 기업가 양성을 위한 투자와 자원이 필요한 시대	[Special Contribution - Kim Hong-II, Korea Foundation for Social Investment Executive Director] An Era in which a Social Sense of Duty and Entrepreneurial Mind has to be Cultivated and Fostered within Social Entrepreneurs through Investment and Support	편집부	사회적기업연구원	Research Institute for Social Enterprise	사회적기업 매거진	-	2009. 5	2
5	[기자회견] 국민연금공단은 노동자 탄압하는 이마트에 대한 투자를 철회하라 : 반사회적 기업 규탄 및 이마트 투자 철회 촉구 기자회견	[Special Contribution] National Pension Service Withdraws Investment in E-Mart, Which Oppresses Workers: Anti-Social Enterprise Condemnation and Press Conference Calling for E-Mart Investment Withdrawal	김상욱	참여연대 사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지동향	173	2013. 3	3
6	[향기가 있는 사람: 서울대학교 WISH] 사회적 기업가를 꿈꾸다	[Sweet-scented Person: Seoul National University WISH] A Social Entrepreneur Dreams	신종석	사회적기업연구원	Research Institute for Social Enterprise	사회적기업 매거진	-	2010. 8	2
7	[ZOOM UP] KEPCO - 마이크로크레딧 · 사회적 기업 지원 추진 : 미래 꿈꾸는 저소득층에 창업 기회 제공 / 1인당 2,000만원 이내 연금리 2% 지원	[ZOOM UP_Korea Midland Power Co., Ltd.] KEPCO - Microcredit · Social Enterprise Promotion Support: Offering Venture Creation Opportunities to Low-Income Groups who Dream of the Future / Support of 20,000,000 Korean Won Per Person with Less than 2% Interest	양현석	전력문화사	Electric Power Journal	Electric Power	6(10)	2012. 1	1
8	[ZOOM UP_한국중부발전] 사회적 기업가 육성 ... 26명 일자리 창출 : 육성사업 1기 창업팀 성과보고회 개최_사회적 기업가 창업교육 200여명 수료	[ZOOM UP_Korea Midland Power Co., Ltd.] Social Enterprise Promotion... 26 People Create Jobs: Promotion Project First Start-up Team Outcomes Briefing Session Held_200 Comeplete Social Entrepreneur Start-up Education	배상훈	전력문화사	Electric Power Journal	Electric Power	13(2)	2019. 2	1
9	[ZOOM UP_한국중부발전 사회적 기업] 브레인 MRO] 중부발전 등 공공	[ZOOM UP_Korea Midland Power Co., Ltd.]BrainMRO] Midland Power and other	편집부	전력문화사	Electric Power	Electric Power	12(12)	2018. 12	1

	기관에 소모자재 공급 : 사회적기업 인증... 13만여 상품 취급_일자리 창출·인재 양성... 지역경제 활성화	Public Enterprises Supply Materials: Social Enterprise Certification... 13,000 Products Handled_Jobs Created·Talent Forstered... Local Economy Revitalization			r Journal	r			
10	[ZOOM UP_[한국중부발전 사회적 기업] 다이스] 이산화탄소 재활용해 노후 산업설비 개선 : 무독성 인정받아... 사용자에게 무해_모재손상 없이 오염물질 분리·제거	[ZOOM UP_Korea Midland Power Co., Ltd.]DAICE] Recycling CO2 to Improve Old Industrial Equipment: Recognized as Non-toxic... Harmless to the User_Separation and Removal of Contaminants without Damaging the Base Material	편집부	전력문화사	Electric Power Journal	Electric Power Journal	12(12)	2018. 12	1
11	[ZOOM UP_[한국중부발전 사회적 기업] 다울사회적협동조합] 사회적기업 연대사업 통한 공동경제·사회가치 창출 : 유통사업단 운영 중... 44개 조합사 제품·서비스 제공_신보령발전본부와 사회적기업 공공구매 상담회 개최	[ZOOM UP_Korea Midland Power Co., Ltd.]Dawool Social Cooperative Corporation] Creating Joint Economic and Social Value through Social Enterprise Solidarity: Distribution Division is in operation... Providing Products and Services for 44 Union Companies_Shin Boryeong Development Headquarters and Social Enterprise Public Purchase Conference Hosted	편집부	전력문화사	Electric Power Journal	Electric Power Journal	12(12)	2018. 12	1
12	제 1 회 CSES Colloquium 우수논문자료집	1st CSES Colloquium Outstanding Paper Collection	제 1 회 CSES 콜로키움	사회적기업연구소	Center for Social Value Enhancement Studies	제 1 회 CSES 콜로키움	-	2018. 12	76
13	2012 사회적기업 성과 분석	2012 Analysis of Social Enterprise Outcomes	한국노동연구원	한국사회적기업진흥원	Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency	-	-	2013. 12	268
14	2013 사회적기업 성과 분석 (기초분석)	2013 Analysis of Social Enterprise Outcomes (Preliminary)	한국노동연구원	한국사회적기업진흥원	Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency	-	-	2014. 12	65
15	2014 사회적기업 성과 분석 (기초분석)	2014 Analysis of Social Enterprise Outcomes (Preliminary)	한국노동연구원	한국사회적기업진흥원	Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency	-	-	2015. 12	56

			연	업 진 흥 원	prise Prom otion Agenc y				
1 6	2015 사회적기업 성과 분석	2015 Analysis of Social Enterprise Outcomes	한국 노동 연구 원	고용 노동 부·한 국사 회적 기업 진흥 원	Minis try of Empl oyme nt and Labor, Korea Social Enter prise Prom otion Agenc y	-	-	2016. 12	167
1 7	2016 사회적기업 성과 분석	2016 Analysis of Social Enterprise Outcomes	인천 대학 교 학협 력단	고용 노동 부·한 국사 회적 기업 진흥 원	Minis try of Empl oyme nt and Labor, Korea Social Enter prise Prom otion Agenc y	-	-	2017. 12	201
1 8	2017 사회적기업 성과 분석	2017 Analysis of Social Enterprise Outcomes	한국 노동 연구 원	고용 노동 부·한 국사 회적 기업 진흥 원	Minis try of Empl oyme nt and Labor, Korea Social Enter prise Prom otion Agenc y	-	-	2018. 1	195
1 9	사회적협동조합과 사회 적기업간 특성비교	A Comparative Study on the Characteristics of Social Cooperatives and Social Enterprises	현정 훈	한국 장애 인고 용공 단 고 용개	Korea Empl oyme nt Agenc y for	연구 자료	-	2006. 12	9

				발원	the Disabled / Employment Development Institute				
20	사회 발전과 사회적 가치 평가의 프레임	A Frame for Evaluating Social Development and Social Value	이재열·고동현·문명선	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	3	2016. 1	29
21	공정한 세상을 만드는 여행 : 사회적 기업 '공감만세'	A Journey to Make a Fair World: The Social Enterprise 'Fair Travel Korea'	조지연, 양성윤	우리교육	Our Education	우리교육	-	2015. 06	12
22	왜 사회문제 해결과 사회혁신 조사연구인가 - 역설을 넘어 살기 더 좋은 사회를 꿈꾼다	A Research Study of 'Why Social Issue Solving and Social Innovation?' - Dreaming of Living in a Better Society beyond Paradox	정원철	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	5	2016. 3	19
23	시민참가형 사회를 만들어가는 사회적 기업-원주의료생활협동조합	A Social Enterprise that is Creating a Civic Participation-based Society - Wonju Health Welfare Social Cooperative	최혁진	참여연대 사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지동향	120	2008. 1	3
24	사회적 기업을 활용한 취약계층 청소년 자립지원 연구	A Study on the Application of Social Enterprise to Vulnerable Youth Independence Support	김영한	한국청소년정책연구원	National Youth Policy Institute	한국청소년정책연구원 보고서	-	2016. 12	226
25	사회적기업에 관한 법제 개선을 위한 연구	A Study on the Improvement of Legislation on Social Enterprises	고려대학교 산학협력단	고려대학교 산학협력단	Korea University Research and Business	국립중앙도서관 법제처 발간 자료	-	2011. 1	152

					Foundatio n					
2 6	충북지역 사회적기업 현 황 및 육성방안	A Study on the Promotion Strategies of Social Enterprise in Chungbuk	함창 모	충북 연구 원	Chun gbuk Resea rch Insti tute	연구 보고 서	-	2010. 12	135	
2 7	지속가능발전을 위한 사 회적 기업의 역할과 활 성화 방안에 관한 연구	A Study on the Role and Promotion of Social Enterprises for Sustainable Development	채중 현, 이종 한	한국 행정 연구 원	Korea Insti tute of Public Admi nstra tion	연구 보고 서	2009- 26	2009. 12	344	
2 8	가치창출 분석틀로 본 사회적기업 2.0의 정책 과제	A Value Creation Analytical Framework for Social Enterprise's 2.0 Policy Tasks	정한 울	사회 적기 업연 구소	Cente r For Social Entre prene rship Study	Social Innov ation Monit or	6	2016. 4	25	
2 9	사회적 기업 설립의 영 향요인 분석: 기능주의 와 제도주의 관점을 중 심으로	An Analysis of Factors that Influence the Establishment of Social Enterprises: Functionalism and Institutionalism	황정 윤·조 희진	사회 적기 업연 구소	Cente r For Social Entre prene rship Study	Social Innov ation Monit or	8	2017. 1	21	
3 0	서울시 사회적 기업의 여성친화지수 분석	An Analysis of the Women Friendliness Index of Seoul's Social Enterprises	이성 은	서울 시 여 성가 족재 단	Seoul Foun datio n of Wom en & Fam ily	서울 시 여 성가 족재 단 연 구사 업보 고서	-	2009. 12	64	
3 1	적정기술과 시장중심적 접근법 : 사회적 기업을 통한 적정기술 성공 사 례를 중심으로	Appropriate Technology and Market-oriented Access: Investigating Successful Case of Appropriate Technology through Social Enterprise	전수 민	한국 국제 협력 단	Korea Intern ation al Coop erati on Agenc y	개발 과 이 슈	16	2014. 8	39	
3 2	현행 장애인중심기업(표 준사업장)이 제 3 섹터형 사회적 기업인가?	Are Existing Disabled-oriented Enterprises (Standard Businesses) Third Sector Social Enterprises?	현정 훈	한국 장애 인고 용공 단 고 용개 발원	Korea Empl oyment Agenc y for the Disabl ed /	수시 과제 보고 서	-	2006. 12	7	

					Empl oyme nt Devel opme nt Insti tute				
3 3	돌봄노동, 사회적 기업 에서 대안을 찾다	Care Labor, Finding an Alternative in Social Enterprise	정영 금	참여 연대 사회 복지 위원회	Peopl e's Solida rity for Partic ipator y Demo cracy	월간 복지 동향	146	2010. 12	3
3 4	사회혁신 담론에서 행위 자 개념에 관한 고찰: 유사 개념의 포괄적 분 류와 생태계적 전망	Contemplating Social Innovation Discourse's Agent Concept: A Comprehensive Classification of Analogous Concept and Ecological Prospects	미우 라 히 로키	사회 적가 치연 구원	Cent er for Social Value Enhan ceme nt Studi es	Social Innov ation Monit or	18	2018. 7	19
3 5	고령자 고용으로 기업의 새로운 가치를 창출하다	Creating Value for Enterprise through Employment of the Elderly	조희 진· 손선 화· 장용 석	사회 적가 치연 구원	Cent er for Social Value Enhan ceme nt Studi es	Social Innov ation Monit or	17	2018. 4	21
3 6	농촌지역 사회적기업의 발전을 위한 지원 및 제 도 개선 방안	Depicting Alternatives for Amending and Promoting Support Systems of Social Enterprises Located in Rural Areas	이규 천, 김창 호	한국 농촌 경제 연구 원	Korea Rural Econo mic Insti tute	한국 농촌 경제 연구 원 기 본연 구보 고서	-	2011. 11	103
3 7	서울시 사회적 기업의 여성친화성 활성화 방안 연구	Directions for Revitalizing Seoul's Social Enterprises' Women Friendliness	이성 은, 안선 덕	서울 시 여 성가 족재 단	Seoul Foun dation of Wom en & Fam ily	서울 시 여 성가 족재 단 연 구사 업보 고서	-	2009. 11	301
3 8	사회문제 지도로 사회적 기업의 미래를 그리다	Drawing the Future of Social Enterprise through a Social Issue Map	장용 석·조 희진·	사회 적기 업연	Cent er For Social	Social Innov ation	13	2017. 8	15

			김보경·함정영·이영동	구소	Entrepreneurship Study	Monitor			
39	사회적 기업을 통해 지역 활성화를 꿈꾼다!: (주)일과나눔 임재영 본부장	Dreaming of Revitalizing Local Areas through Social Enterprise: Inanum's Head of Operations Jaeyoung Eom	편집부	한국협동조합연구소	Korea Co-operative Research Institute	협동조합네트워크	56	2011.11	6
40	사회적 가치 증대를 위한 사회적 기업의 역량 강화	Empowering Social Enterprise to Enhance Social Value	이영동	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	2	2015.12	13
41	기업역할과 기업신뢰, 협력적 거버넌스를 통한 사회문제 해결	Enterprise's Role and Enterprise's Trust, Addressing Social Issues through Cooperative Governance	이영동	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	14	2017.12	15
42	사회적 기업 육성법 시행 1주년, 과제와 전망	First Anniversary Since Implementation of Social Enterprise Promotion Law, Tasks and Prospects	문보경	참여연대사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간복지동향	120	2008.1	6
43	사회적 일자리에서 사회적 기업으로	From Social Jobs to Social Enterprise	노대명	참여연대사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간복지동향	88	2006.2	5
44	세계 경제 패러다임 변화와 호구국경제	Global Paradigm Shift and the Korean Economy	현대경제연구원	현대경제연구원	Hyundai Research Institute	-	10-16(통권 396호)	2010.4	23
45	착한 기업, 사회적 기업을 비판한다	Good Company', A Criticism of Social Enterprise	이진수	노동사회과학	Workers Institute	정세와노동	49	2009.9	8

				연구소	ute of Social Science				
4 6	2014 사회적기업 성과 분석 (기초분석)	Government Funding as a Double-edged Sword: Governmental Support and the Performance of Social Enterprises in Korea	황정윤·장용석	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	10	2017. 6	19
4 7	장애인분야 사회적기업 어떻게 만들까?	How Should Social Enterprises be Made for the Disabled?	강현석, 김화신, 박민석, 유승만, 이금복, 이효성, 전옥선, 주성희, 최지영, 최영훈, 배수정, 김종진, 이성수	한국장애인고용공단 고용개발원	Korea Employment Agency for the Disabled / Employment Development Institute	연구자료	-	2009. 2	144
4 8	사회적기업 역량강화를 위한 중간지원조직 육성과 네트워크 활성화	How to Activate Intermediary Bodies for Rural Social Enterprises	마상진	한국농촌경제연구원	Korea Rural Economic Institute	한국농촌경제연구원 기본연구보고서	-	2011. 12	126
4 9	농촌지역 사회적기업의 역량 강화 방안	How to Build Capacity of Rural Social Enterprises	마상진, 김창호, 권인혜, 오세익	한국농촌경제연구원	Korea Rural Economic Institute	한국농촌경제연구원 기본연구보고서	-	2010. 1	111

50	광주전남지역 문화. 예술 사회적 기업 육성 방안	How to Foster Cultural and Art Social Enterprises in Gwangju Jeonnam Area	서정석	한국은행	Bank of Korea	[BOK] 지역경제 조사연구 자료집	-	2011.12	35
51	한전 KPS - 나눔경영 실천으로 상생 이끈다 : 민생연과 사회적 기업 지원 업무협약 체결 기업 선정 · 재정지원 · 인증 획득 등 공동 협력	Korea Plant Service & Engineering - Leading Win-win through Sharing Management: Signed a Business Agreement to Support Social Enterprises and Joint Cooperation, Including Selecting a Company, Providing Financial Support, and Obtaining Certification	박윤석	전력문화사	Electric Power Journal	Electric Power	-	2011.4	1
52	한국 사회문제 지도	Korea's Social Issue Map	장용석·조희진·김보경·황정윤·이영동	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	11	2017.8	13
53	진보정당 활동가들이 사회적 기업으로 지자체 청소업무 민간위탁 사업에 진출하는 것은, 민간위탁 철폐, 직접고용 쟁취를 위한 환경미화원들의 투쟁을 철저히 배신하는 반노동자적인 행위이다!	Liberal Party Activists Entering Into the Local Government Contracting Out(Delegated) Cleaning Business as a Social Enterprise is an Anti-employees Act of Betraying Cleaners Protests for Abolishing Contracting Out and Winning Direct Employment	편집부	노동사회과학연구소	Workers Institute of Social Science	정세와노동	73	2011.11	4
54	네트워크 사회의 등장은 공유경제를 촉진시키나	Network Society's Appearance can Catalyze A Sharing Economy	이재열·고동현·한솔	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	4	2016.2	25
55	경남의 사회적기업 육성 방안	On Improvement on the Survival and Sustainability of Social Enterprise in Gyeongnam	권용덕, 김덕주, 윤성혜, 곽선화, 김성훈, 김신양, 라준	경남발전연구원	Gyeongnam Development Institute	중점정책연구	-	2011.1	212

			영, 신영규, 이은애, 이인우, 이은진						
5 6	농촌형 사회적 기업 운영 : 안성 고삼농협	Operating Rural Social Enterprise: Anseong's 'Gosam Food Mall'	이인우, 신기업	한국협동조합연구소	Korea Co-operative Research Institute	협동조합네트워크	56	2011.11	31
5 7	농촌지역 사회적기업의 성과 평가와 지원방안	Outcome Evaluation of Rural Social Enterprises and Improvement of Support Policy	오내원, 김창호, 권인혜, 오세익	한국농촌경제연구원	Korea Rural Economic Institute	한국농촌경제연구원 기본연구보고서	-	2010.1	85
5 8	서울시 사회적기업의 성과 평가와 정책제언	Outcome Evaluation of Social Enterprises in Seoul and Policy Suggestions	조달호	서울연구원	The Seoul Institute	정책리포트	225	2017.2	20
5 9	서울형 사회적기업의 성과 및 정책방향	Outcomes and Policies of Social Enterprises in Seoul	조달호, 김범식, 최봉, 이정용	서울연구원	The Seoul Institute	서울연구원 정책과제연구보고서	-	2012.6	181
6 0	평화와 공감의 능력을 꽃피우는 사회적 기업, 유병선 지음(2008), 「보노보 혁명」, 부키	Peace and Empathy Capacity Blooming Social Enterprise, Byung Sun Yu (2008), "Bonono Revolution", Buki	이상현	환경과생명	Environment & Life	환경과생명	-	2008.3	6
6 1	농촌지역개발 활성화를 위한 사회적기업의 발전방향과 과제	Policy Direction of Fostering Rural Social Enterprises for Rural Development	김광선, 권인혜, 김창호, 오세익	한국농촌경제연구원	Korea Rural Economic Institute	한국농촌경제연구원 기본연구보고서	-	2010.1	153
6 2	산림분야 사회적 기업 육성방안에 대한 정책연구	Policy Research on the Promotion of Forestry Social Enterprises	김재현	국립중앙도서관	National Library of Korea	[국립중앙도서관 연계]	-	2007.1	134

						산림청 발간자료			
6 3	빈곤과 실업의 새로운 대안, 사회적 기업	Poverty and Unemployment's New Alternative, Social Enterprise	엄형식	환경과생명	Environment & Life	환경과생명	-	2007.12	15
6 4	서울여성 일자리 창출을 위한 사회적 기업 활성화 정책방안 연구	Research on Policy Directions for Revitalizing Seoul's Social Enterprises for the Creation of Jobs for Women	이성은	서울시여성가족재단	Seoul Foundation of Women & Family	서울시여성가족재단 연구사업보고서	-	2008.12	160
6 5	사회적 경제, 사회적 자본 그리고 사회적 기업	Social Economy, Social Capital and Social Enterprise	김용탁	한국장애인고용공단 고용개발원	Korea Employment Agency for the Disabled / Employment Development Institute	연구자료	-	2009.07	19
6 6	사회적 기업 2009-18 호 통합돌봄지원센터 '이천 YMCA 아가야'	Social Enterprise 2009-18# Integrate Care Support Center 'Icheonagaya'	황보순자	한국협동조합연구소	Korea Co-operative Research Institute	협동조합네트워크	58	2012.06	4
6 7	사회적 기업과 노동권 : 사회적 기업 다자원의 노동권 침해를 중심으로	Social Enterprise and Labor Rights: The Multiple Labor Rights Violations of Social Enterprise	정인탁	노동사회과학연구소	Workers Institute of Social Science	정세와노동	68	2011.05	9
6 8	사회적 기업과 사회문제 미스매치	Social Enterprise and Social Issue Mismatch	장용석·조희진·김보경·황정윤·이영	사회적기업연구소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	12	2017.8	27

			동						
69	사회적기업과 정부의 역할	Social Enterprise and the Government's Role	김을식, 고재경, 이정훈	경기연구원	Gyeonggi Research Institute	이슈&진단	16	2011. 8	25
70	사회적 기업과 여성의' 대안적 일자리'	Social Enterprise and Women's 'Alternative Work'	김유미	환경과생명	Environment & Life	환경과생명	-	2009. 6	13
71	경계에 선 사회적 기업, 동원 대상인가 대안의 주체인가?	Social Enterprise at the Boundary, Mobilization Objective or Alternative Subjectivity?	김정원	환경과생명	Environment & Life	환경과생명	-	2009. 12	15
72	사회적 기업의 운영 현황과 과제	Social Enterprise Management's Current State and Tasks		참여연대 사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지동향	120	2008. 1	7
73	사회적 기업 공공조달	Social Enterprise Public Procurement	이영석	참여연대 사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지동향	185	2014. 03	4
74	사회적 기업에 대한 조세지원방안	Social Enterprise Tax Incentives	김진수	ALIO	Public Institution Recruitment Information System	[공공저작물연계] 경제인문사회연구회 발간자료	-	2012. 12	34
75	사회적 기업, 서민금융 그리고 진보적 언론, '진보적 지식인들'	Social Enterprise, Microfinance and Liberal Discourse, Liberal Intellectuals	채만수	노동사회과학연구소	Workers Institute of Social Science	정세와노동	56	2010. 4	6
76	사회적 기업, 정책보다 사람이 중요하다	Social Enterprise, People More Important Than Policy	손성실	인물과사	Figures and	인물과사	-	2012. 2	8

				상사	Thoughts	상			
77	사회적 기업, 자활, 돌봄 부문 일자리 정책 평가와 개선 방안 : 협동사회경제, 더 좋은 일자리 창출과 고용 유지를 위한 과제	Social Enterprise, Self-sufficiency Organizations, Care Sector Job Policy Evaluation and Reform Directions: Taks for a Cooperative Social Economy, Better Job Creation and Employment Maintenance	민동세	참여연대 사회 복지 위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지 동향	187	2014. 5	4
78	사회적 기업의 현재적 의미	Social Enterprise's Modern Meaning	박찬임	참여연대 사회 복지 위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지 동향	120	2008. 1	6
79	사회적 기업 성공요인과 사회적 기업 '컴윈'	Social Enterprise's Success Factors and 'Com-Win' Social Enterprise	이인재	참여연대 사회 복지 위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지 동향	88	2006. 2	7
80	사회적 기업의 지속가능성과 사회적 기업가 정신	Social Enterprise's Sustainability and Social Entrepreneurship	조희진·장용석	사회적기업연주소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	7	2016. 12	17
81	사회적 기업의 과제와 전망	Social Enterprise's Tasks and Prospects	정선희	참여연대 사회 복지 위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지 동향	88	2006. 2	5
82	사회적 혁신 생태계 3.0	Social Innovation Ecosystem 3.0	장용석·김회성·황정윤·유미현	사회적기업연주소	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	1	2015. 7	13

83	사회서비스와 사회적 기업	Social Service and Social Enterprise	모세종	참여연대 사회 복지 위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지 동향	105	2007. 7	9
84	사회복지와 기업가 정신 그리고 사회적 기업	Social Welfare, Entrepreneurism, and Social Enterprise	김통원	철학 문화 연구 소	Philosophy & Culture Research Center	철학 과 현 실	-	2008. 6	11
85	적정기술분야 사회적기업 지원 및 활용방안 연구	Supporting and Utilizing Social Enterprises on Appropriate Technologies	배귀희	과학기술 정책 연구 원	Science & Technology Policy Institute	기타 연구	-	2012. 12	77
86	사회적 기업의 지속 성장 가능성	Sustainable Growth Potential of Social Enterprise	홍석빈	LG Business Insight	LG Business Insight	Weekly 포커 스	-	2009. 5	10
87	제 10 장 사회적 기업과 농촌지역 활성화	Tenth Chapter, Social Enterprise and Rural Revitalization	김광선, 권인혜	한국 농촌 경제 연구 원	Korea Rural Economic Institute	한국 농촌 경제 연구 원 기 타 연 구 보 고 서	-	2011. 2	33
88	사회적 가치의 다차원적 구조	The Multidimensional Constitution of Social Value	박명규	사회적가치 연구원	Center for Social Value Enhancement Studies	Social Innovation Monitor	15	2018. 3	19
89	사회문제의 새로운 해결법, 사회적기업	The New Solution to Social Problems, Social Enterprise	에스케이 주식회사	에스케이 주식회사	SK Group	-	-	2009	15
90	시대적 전환과 사회적 가치	The Period's Transition and Social Value	이재열	사회적가치 연구원	Center for Social Innovation	Social Innovation	16	2018. 3	19

				구원	Value Enhancement Studies	Monitor			
9 1	취약계층 일자리 창출을 위한 사회적 기업 육성 체계 구축방안	The Promotion System and Staregies for Creating Social Enterprises for the Vulnerable	조성은, 백학영, 조광자, 김희연	경기연구원	Gyeonggi Research Institute	위탁 연구	-	2008. 1	175
9 2	사회적경제 전망과 가능성	The Prospects and Possibilities of the Social Economy	카이스트 SK 사회적 기업 가센터	카이스트 SK 사회적 기업 가센터	KAIST SK Center for Social Entrepreneurship	-	-	2015. 2	232
9 3	장애인고용 사회적기업 실태조사	The Survey on Social Enterprise of Employment for the Disabled	이정주, 백학영, 이지혜, 장창엽	한국장애인고용공단 고용개발원	Korea Employment Agency for the Disabled / Employment Development Institute	기본과제 보고서	-	2010. 12	195
9 4	건강한 사회발전을 위한 인간이해 - 심리학 관점에서 본 도덕적 의사결정	Understanding Humans for the Healthy Development of Society - Psychological Perspectives of Moral Decision-making	정은경	사회적기업연구회	Center For Social Entrepreneurship Study	Social Innovation Monitor	9	2017. 2	15
9 5	마을만들기 운동과 사회적 기업 - ㈜이장	Village Making Movement and Social Enterprise - 'Ijang'	임경수	참여연대 사회복지위원회	People's Solidarity for Participatory Democracy	월간 복지동향	120	2008. 1	6

9 6	왜 '사회적 기업'이 필요 한가?	Why Do We Need Social Enterprise?	편집 부	인물 과사 상사	Figure s and Thoug hts	인물 과사 상	-	2009. 1	2
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### Appendix 7. Sentiment Analysis Dataset

#	News paper	Newspaper (Eng)	Orientat ion	Title	Title (Eng)	Classificatio n	Score	Confidence
1	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	현대차 “8 년간 사회적 기업 육성, 211 개 기업 일자리 1420 개 창출”	Hyundai Motors "Creating Social Enterprises over 8 Years, Creating 1,420 Jobs for 211 Companies"	Neutral	0	0.667
2	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	현대차그룹, ‘UN 사회연대경제 컨퍼런스’ 초청...“사회적 기업 육성해 일자리 창출”	Hyundai Motor Group Invited 'UN Social Solidarity Economic Conference'"Creating jobs by fostering social enterprises"	Neutral	0	0.52
3	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	SPC 그룹, 사회적 기업 ‘행복한거북이’ 출범...“취약계층 일자리 확대 추진”	SPC Group launches social enterprise 'Happy Turtle'..."Pushing for more jobs for the vulnerable."	Positive	1	0.481
4	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	한국사회적기업진흥원, '2019 (예비)사회적 기업 경영컨설팅' 집중 지원	The Korea Social Enterprise Promotion Agency (KBS) provides intensive support for the "2019 (preparatory) social enterprise management consulting."	Neutral	0	0.694
5	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	[단독]정부구매 1%대... 사회적기업 활성화 말뿐	Government Purchase in the 1% range... I'm just talking about revitalizing social enterprises	Negative	-1	0.558
6	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	SK 그룹, 사회적 기업과 손잡고 결식 이웃 돕기 나서	SK Group has joined hands with social enterprises to help hungry neighborhoods.	Neutral	0	0.659
7	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	사회적 기업 후원에 취약계층 일자리 만든다	Creating jobs for the vulnerable by supporting social enterprises	Neutral	0	0.495
8	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	사회적기업 육성 10년... 400 개 파트너사 투자 지원	10 years to foster social enterprises... 400 Partner Companies to Support Investment	Neutral	0	0.601
9	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	“주민 참여형 사회적 기업 지원” 서울시, 3년간 최대 2억 원까지	The Seoul Metropolitan Government has spent up to 200 million won over three years on supporting social enterprises	Neutral	0	0.547
10	동아일보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	“사회적기업에 시니	"Re-attempt as a senior intern	Neutral	0	0.492

	보		ve	어 인턴으로 재도 전하세요”	at a social enterprise."			
11	동아일 보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	현대차그룹-현대차 정몽구 재단, 사회적 기업 육성 투자 유치 지원	Hyundai Motor Group-Hyundai Motor's Chung Mong-koo Foundation supports investment promotion of social enterprises	Neutral	0	0.696
12	동아일 보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	[부산판/게시판]부산 사회적기업가 육성 사업 창업팀 모집 외	[Busan/Published]Busan Social Entrepreneurship Project Start-up Team Recruitment	Neutral	0	0.477
13	동아일 보	Dong-a Ilbo	Conservative	경기도, 사회적 기 업에 상가 매입비 지원	Gyeonggi Province Helps Support Social Enterprise Commercial Expenses	Neutral	0	0.627
14	조선일 보	Chosun Ilbo	Conservative	현대차그룹, 8 년간 211 개 사회적기업 키워 일자리 1420 개 만들었다	Hyundai Motor Group has created 1,420 jobs by nurturing 211 social enterprises over the past eight years	Neutral	0	0.594
15	조선일 보	Chosun Ilbo	Conservative	SPC, 사회적기업 '행복한거북이' 출범	SPC launches 'happy turtle' social enterprise	Neutral	0	0.594
16	조선일 보	Chosun Ilbo	Conservative	“사회적기업 인증받 게 해드립니다” 창 업자 유혹하는 불 법 브로커	"I'm going to let you be certified as a social enterprise." The illegal broker who tempts the founder	Neutral	0	0.597
17	조선일 보	Chosun Ilbo	Conservative	미래에셋벤처투자, 사회적기업 1 호펀드 72.4% 수익률로 청 산	Mirae Asset Venture Investment Co., Ltd. to liquidate its social enterprise No. 1 fund with 72.4% return	Negative	-1	0.755
18	조선일 보	Chosun Ilbo	Conservative	신협 "사회적 기업 위한 기금 200 억원 조성하고 대출도 3 배 늘릴 것"	The new association will raise 20 billion won in funds for social enterprises and increase loans by threefold	Neutral	0	0.534
19	조선일 보	Chosun Ilbo	Conservative	사회적 기업 '등록 제' 전환, 현장에선 ...	Social enterprise "registration" conversion, on-site	Neutral	0	0.705
20	중앙일 보	JoongAng Ilbo	Conservative	서울시립대 경영학 부, 사회적기업에 마케팅 지원	Seoul National University's Business Administration Department Helps Social Enterprises with Marketing	Neutral	0	0.63
21	중앙일 보	JoongAng Ilbo	Conservative	예비 사회적 기업 엑스트라마일커뮤	Preliminary Social Enterprise Extramail Communications,	Negative	-1	0.408

				니케이션즈, 유엔글로벌 콤팩트 가입	Joining the United Nations Global Compact			
22	중앙일보	JoongAng Ilbo	Conservative	[라이프 트렌드] 한국문화 전파 앞장 사회적 기업과 손잡고	Leading Korean Culture Dissemination with Social Enterprises	Neutral	0	0.862
23	중앙일보	JoongAng Ilbo	Conservative	HSBC, 사회적 기업의 지속 성장 위한 프로젝트 협약식	HSBC Agreement on Project for Sustainable Growth of Social Enterprises	Neutral	0	0.543
24	중앙일보	JoongAng Ilbo	Conservative	서울시, 사회적기업 육성해 도시재생사업 완수 말기다	The Seoul Metropolitan Government will foster social enterprises to complete urban regeneration	Neutral	0	0.707
25	중앙일보	JoongAng Ilbo	Conservative	한국산업기술대 스타트업 '찰리컴퍼니' 사회적 기업가 육성사업 선정	Selected as 'Charlie Company' social enterprise incubation project of Korea Industrial Technology University start-up	Negative	-1	0.677
26	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	SPC, 직원 30% 이상 장애인 고용 사회적기업 출범	SPC launches disabled employment social enterprise with 30% or more disabled employees	Neutral	0	0.596
27	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	장애인고용공단, 사회적기업 (주)청밀 표준사업장 운영 약정 체결	Disabled Employment Agency and Social Enterprise Cheongmil Inc Signed an Agreement to Operate a Standard Business Establishment	Neutral	0	0.519
28	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	기독교사회적기업 지원센터, 농어촌 교회에 적합한 사회복지선교 세미나 성료	The Christian Social Enterprise Support Center, Seminar on Social Welfare Mission Suitable for the Rural Church	Positive	1	0.489
29	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	LH 의정부 녹양 행복주택 사회적기업 입주	LH Uijeongbu Nokyang Happy Housing Social Enterprise Moves In	Neutral	0	0.661
30	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	의정부시 '예비사회적기업 창업지원 교육' 실시	Uijeongbu City conducts 'preliminary social enterprise start-up support education'	Neutral	0	0.867
31	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	SK 이노 후원 사회적기업 '모어댄', 베를린 패션 위크 참가	SK Ino Sponsored Social Enterprise 'More Than' Participates in Berlin Fashion Week	Positive	1	0.847

32	국민일보	Kukmin Ilbo	Neutral	홍익경제연구소, 올해 사회적기업가 육성사업 창업팀 모집	Hongik Economic Research Institute recruits start-up teams for social entrepreneurship this year	Positive	1	0.703
33	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	용산, 사회적기업과 손잡고 인생 2막 지원	Yongsan supports 2nd act of life in partnership with social enterprise	Neutral	0	0.564
34	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	백화점 팝업스토어·조례 제정, 사회적기업 판로 뚫는 광진구	Department store pop-up store and ordinance enacted, Gwangjin-gu penetrates into social enterprise market	Neutral	0	0.722
35	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	전국 평균보다 밑도는 1%대 구매율...사회적기업 외면하는 인천 공공기관	Purchasing rate of 1% below national average... Incheon public institution disregards social enterprise	Negative	-1	0.509
36	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	공공기관, 작년 사회적기업 제품 구매액 1조 돌파	Public institutions bought more than 1 trillion won worth of products from social enterprises last year	Negative	-1	0.574
37	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	전주역에 사회적기업 '전주비빔빵' 입점	Jeonju Station's Jeonju BimBang is a social enterprise	Neutral	0	0.678
38	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	서대문, 캐나다 전문가 초청강연... 사회적기업의 길 묻다	Seodaemun invited Canadian experts... Inquire into the ways of social enterprise	Neutral	0	0.506
39	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	노원, 내일 사회적기업 공공구매 박람회	Nowon, tomorrow's public procurement fair for social enterprises	Positive	1	0.698
40	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	현대차, H-온드림 통해 4년 내 사회적기업 150개 육성	Hyundai Motors fosters 150 social enterprises in 4 years through H-On Dream	Neutral	0	0.733
41	서울신문	Seoul Shinmun	Neutral	현대차·정몽구재단, 사회적기업 투자 유치	Hyundai Motor and Chung Mong-Gu Foundation Attract Investments for Social Enterprises	Neutral	0	0.546
42	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	현대차그룹, 유엔서 사회적기업 육성 성공 발표해... "211개 기업 길러내"	Hyundai Motor Group announces its success in fostering social enterprises at the United Nations..."Created 211 companies."	Positive	1	0.436

43	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	서울시립대 경영학부 학생들, 사회적 기업에 대한 마케팅 지원으로 지역 사회 공헌에 나서	Students of Seoul National University's business administration department are contributing to the community with marketing support for social enterprises	Neutral	0	0.577
44	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적 기업 2.0] 가전수리로 세상을 빛내는 '인라이튼'	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Illighten the World with Consumer Electronics Repair	Positive	1	0.799
45	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0]'기술 장인' 요람 꿈꾸는 인라이튼	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Enlighten Dreaming of 'Technology Master'	Neutral	0	0.765
46	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	광주·전남 사회적 기업 2106 개 매출액 578 억	2,106 social enterprises in Gwangju and South Jeolla Province, 57.8 billion won in sales	Positive	1	0.755
47	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] "반달곰 '쟁고미'에 고민 털어놓으세요... 당신의 마음을 안아 드려요"	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Confess your concerns to the half-moon bear 'Jam Gomi'... "I'm holding your heart."	Neutral	0	0.729
48	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] 안내견 인식 개선·낙후지역 의료전문 플랫폼 제작... 브이노마드가 꿈꾸는 세상	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Improve guide dog awareness and build medical platforms for underdeveloped areas... The world that Vinnomard dreams of	Neutral	0	0.603
49	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	SPC 그룹, 사회적 기업 '행복한거북이' 출범	SPC Group Launches 'Happy Turtle' Social Enterprise	Neutral	0	0.594
50	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] "단순히 이유식만 만드는 게 아니라, 우리 땅 살리는 일"	[Social Enterprise 2.0] "Not just making baby food, but saving our land."	Neutral	0	0.602
51	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적 기업 2.0] 대하소설 '토지' 무대, 평사리 들판에서 친환경 농법 '인기'	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Large-scale novel 'land' stage, eco-friendly farming method 'popular' in plain field	Positive	1	0.785
52	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	지난해 공공기관, 사회적기업 제품 구매 처음 1 조원	Last year, public institutions purchased over 1 trillion won for social enterprise products	Neutral	0	0.606

				넘었다				
53	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] 소상공인과 연결, 젊은 작가 재능 살리고 돈도 벌고	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Connecting with small business owners, young writers, saving talent, making money	Neutral	0	0.671
54	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] “젊은 작가의 그림 10 개월 무이자 할부로 사세요”	[Social Enterprise 2.0] "Buy a young artist's work for interest-free instalments over a period of 10 months"	Neutral	0	0.536
55	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	경북도, 사회적기업과 매칭한 관광 투어 본격 추진	Gyeongbuk Province to promote a tourism and social enterprise matching	Positive	1	0.84
56	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] 캔·페트병 95% 선별능력... 딥러닝 적용 새 제품으로 계속 확장	[Social Enterprise 2.0] 95% Screening Capacity for Can and Pet Diseases... Continue to expand to new products with deep learning	Negative	-1	0.425
57	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] “재활용 쓰레기, AI 로봇 자판기에 넣으면 돈이 됩니다”	[Social Enterprise 2.0] "Recycling Garbage, It's Money When Put in AI Robot Vending Machine"	Neutral	0	0.526
58	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	울산사회적기업성장지원센터, 6월 문연다	Ulsan Social Enterprise Growth Support Center opens in June	Positive	1	0.534
59	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] 지역별 노인 영화관들 함께 여는 ‘레트로 영화제’	[Social Enterprise 2.0] “Retro Film Festival” Opens with Regional Elderly Cinemas	Positive	1	0.689
60	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] “종로 낙원상가 일대를 사회적기업 문화공간으로”	[Social Enterprise 2.0] “The Jongno Paradise Shopping Center as a Social Enterprise Cultural Space”	Positive	1	0.526
61	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] “기업 이윤보다 영업행위 자체가 사회공헌이죠”	[Social Enterprise 2.0] “Business activity is more social contribution than corporate profit”	Neutral	0	0.796
62	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] 카페서 그림 강습하고 디자인 상품 개발... 미취업 젊은이를 응원합니다	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Classroom Painting Class and Design Product Development... We support unemployed young people	Neutral	0	0.665

63	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	울산시, 올해 20개 창업팀 사회적기업가 육성	Ulsan City fosters 20 entrepreneurship teams	Neutral	0	0.665
64	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	경북지방우정청, 농산물 직거래와 사회적기업 지원에 두 팔 걷어	Gyeongbuk Regional Office of Korea Post, two arms in support of direct trade in agricultural products and social enterprises	Positive	1	0.486
65	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	SK 하이닉스, 사회적 기업에 IT 기기 9500 여대 기증	SK Hynix Donates 9,500 IT Devices to Social Enterprises	Positive	1	0.489
66	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0] 폐차 가죽시트·안전벨트로 만든 가방 “방탄소년단도 메고 다녀요”	[Social Enterprise 2.0] Bags made of junk car seats and seat belts	Neutral	0	0.508
67	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[사회적기업 2.0 박스] 모어던의 환경보호	[Social Enterprise 2.0 Box] More Than's Environmental Protection	Negative	-1	0.518
68	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	현대차그룹, 글로벌 사회적 기업 지원 나서	Hyundai Motor Group to Support Global Social Enterprises	Neutral	0	0.541
69	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	최태원 “사회적기업 지원금보다 더 많은 성과...SK ‘사회적 가치’를 성과지표에 반영”	Choi Tae-won “More achievements than social enterprise subsidies... Reflecting SK's social values in performance indicators	Positive	1	0.509
70	한국일보	Hankook Ilbo	Neutral	[대구경북 사회적기업이 간다] 종자메카 예천 만드는 한국에코팜	"[Eco-go Enterprises in Daegu-Gyeongbuk] Korea Eco Farm to Make Seed Mecca Yecheon"	Neutral	0	0.497
71	한겨레	Hankyoreh	Progressive	사회적기업 비하한 구청장, 사회적경제 조례에도 ‘태클’	The head of the ward for social enterprises, “Tackles” in the Social Economy Ordinance	Positive	1	0.534
72	한겨레	Hankyoreh	Progressive	SPC, 사회적기업 ‘행복한거북이’ 출범	SPC launches 'happy turtle' social enterprise	Neutral	0	0.594
73	한겨레	Hankyoreh	Progressive	오디션 통해 사회적기업 발굴...자금 지원·투자자 매칭까지	Discover social enterprises through audition... From funding to investor matching	Neutral	0	0.681
74	한겨레	Hankyoreh	Progressive	경북도, 사회적기업 제품 판로 개척 나	Gyeongbuk Province has started to market products for social	Neutral	0	0.535

				섰다	enterprises			
75	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	현대차그룹, 8년간 211개 사회적 기업에 지원금 제공	Hyundai Motor Group Provides Support Fund to 211 Social Companies for 8 Years	Neutral	0	0.694
76	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	SPC 그룹, 장애인들의 일터, 사회적 기업 '행복한 거북이' 출범	SPC Group, the workplace of the disabled, and the launch of a social enterprise 'Happy Turtle'	Neutral	0	0.591
77	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	"은둔형 외톨이 청년 자립 지원" 사회적기업 K2 코리아 <내일-내일 프로젝트> 참가자 모집	Social enterprise K2 Korea to recruit participants in Tomorrow-Tomorrow Project	Positive	1	0.564
78	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	SK 그룹, '행복' 경영 최우선...사회적 기업·자본·가치 창출	SK Group's 'Happiness' management top priority...Creating social enterprises, capital, and value	Neutral	0	0.618
79	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	SPC, 사회적기업 '행복한거북이' 출범	SPC launches 'happy turtle' social enterprise	Neutral	0	0.594
80	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	[부산시]취약계층 일자리 창출 부산시 예비사회적기업 10개사 지정	Busan] Creation of Vulnerable Class Jobs, Busan Designates 10 Preliminary Social Enterprises	Neutral	0	0.703
81	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	울산에도 사회적기업 성장지원센터 6월 문 연다	Ulsan's Social Enterprise Growth Support Center opens in June	Positive	1	0.498
82	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	[울산시]울산 사회적기업 성장지원센터 6월 문 연다	Ulsan Social Enterprise Growth Support Center in June	Positive	1	0.565
83	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	한국가스공사, 사회적기업 온라인 쇼핑몰 구축...판로·고용 증대	Korea Gas Corporation to Build Online Shopping Mall for Social Enterprises...an increase in sales and employment	Neutral	0	0.532
84	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	[노규성의 내 인생의 책]④새로운 모색, 사회적기업 - 최태원	[The Book of My Life of No Kyu-sung]4New Search, Social Enterprise - Chey Tae-won	Neutral	0	0.674
85	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	한국도로공사, 취약계층 위해 고속도로 휴게소 12곳에 사회적기업 매장	Korea Expressway Corporation, social enterprise stores at 12 highway rest areas for the vulnerable	Neutral	0	0.647

86	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	현대차·정몽구재단, 사회적기업 투자 유치 'H-온드림 데모데이' 열어	Hyundai Motor and Chung Mong-koo Foundation Hold 'H-On Dream Demo Day' to attract investment for social enterprises	Neutral	0	0.62
87	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	[부산시]사회적기업 지원 '소셜캠퍼스온부산' 본격 운영	[Busan] Full-scale Operation of 'Social Campus on Busan' Supporting Social Enterprises	Neutral	0	0.612
88	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	[부산시]'창의적 일자리 창출' 부산형 예비사회적기업 모집	[Busan] Recruitment of Busan-type Preliminary Social Enterprises for "Creating Creative Jobs"	Negative	-1	0.571
89	경향신문	Kyunghyang Shinmun	Progressive	[부산시]부산 사회적경제기업에 10억 융자지원...사회적기업·마을기업·협동조합 등 혜택	Benefits such as 1 billion won in loans to Busan Social Economy Company, social enterprises, village enterprises, and cooperatives	Positive	1	0.412
							<b>Average Score</b>	<b>Average Confidence</b>
						<b>Total</b>	0.1348314607	0.6094719101
						<b>Conservative</b>	-0.12	0.6048
						<b>Neutral</b>	0.2444444444	0.6196444444
						<b>Progressive</b>	0.2105263158	0.5915263158

Appendix 8. Variable Booklet with Reference to Social Enterprise Total Count  
(Chapter 3)

#	Independent Variable ID	Description
1	grdp14milmarktp	Gross Regional Domestic Product (2014), market price
2	popden	Population density
3	urbanrural	Whether an area is rural or urban
4	ngosnpos	The number of non-governmental organizations/nonprofits
5	coops	The number of cooperatives
6	healthcarensocservice	The number of healthcare and social service providers
7	socwelfbudprop	Social welfare budget proportion of local government
8	femworkforpar	Female workforce participation rate
9	trecpperc	Total number of welfare recipients, percentage
10	elderlyper	Elderly population, percentage
11	sesuppcent	Social Economy Support Center, Y/N
12	ordinance	Social Economy Promotion Ordinance, Y/N
13	oppositionruling	Party affiliation of municipal head, opposition/ruling
14	change	Change in ruling party from previous local election
15	cslgboth	Both civil society and local government are prominent
16	cslgcs	Only civil society is prominent

17	cslglg	Only local government is prominent
18	cslgurboth	Both civil society and local government are prominent; only urban areas considered
19	cslgures	Only civil society is prominent; only urban areas considered
20	cslgurlg	Only local government is prominent; only urban areas considered

Appendix 9. Means, standard deviations, and correlations with confidence interval,  
national data (Chapter 3)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Social Enterprises	7.52	7.89										
2. Gross Regional Domestic Product	15.09	1.11	.61**									
			[.52, .69]									
3. Population Density	3895.83	6147.91	.28**	.37**								
			[.15, .39]	[.25, .48]								
4. NGOs & NPOs	52.03	61.49	.79**	.61**	.26**							
			[.74, .84]	[.53, .69]	[.13, .38]							
5. Cooperatives	45.61	45.87	.77**	.68**	.43**	.79**						
			[.71, .81]	[.61, .75]	[.32, .53]	[.74, .84]						
6. Healthcare and Social Service Providers	608.28	591.13	.71**	.78**	.42**	.76**	.83**					
			[.64, .77]	[.72, .82]	[.31, .52]	[.70, .81]	[.78, .86]					
7. Social Welfare Budget Proportion	31.10	14.53	.41**	.54**	.72**	.42**	.52**	.54**				
			[.29, .51]	[.44, .62]	[.65, .77]	[.31, .52]	[.42, .61]	[.44, .63]				
8. Female Workforce Participation Rate	42.75	5.30	.11	-.17**	.35**	.23**	.19**	.16*	.33**			
			[-.02, .23]	[-.30, -.04]	[.23, .46]	[.10, .35]	[.06, .31]	[.03, .28]	[.21, .45]			
9. Welfare Recipients	3.97	1.70	.12	-.34**	-.23**	.13*	-.07	-.06	-.17*	.23**		
			[-.01, .25]	[-.45, -.22]	[-.34, -.10]	[.00, .26]	[-.20, .06]	[-.18, .08]	[-.29, -.04]	[.10, .35]		
10. Elderly Population Proportion	18.67	7.85	-.47**	-.80**	-.41**	-.46**	-.53**	-.65**	-.64**	.05	.50**	
			[-.57, -.37]	[-.84, -.75]	[-.51, -.30]	[-.55, -.35]	[-.62, -.43]	[-.72, -.57]	[-.71, -.55]	[-.08, .18]	[.40, .59]	
11. Social Economy Support Center	0.14	0.39	.43**	.34**	.39**	.35**	.42**	.51**	.28**	.17*	-.12	-.31**
			[.32, .53]	[.22, .45]	[.27, .49]	[.23, .46]	[.31, .52]	[.41, .60]	[.16, .40]	[.04, .29]	[-.24, .01]	[-.42, -.19]

*Note.* *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). \* indicates  $p < .05$ . \*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Appendix 10. Means, standard deviations, and correlations with confidence interval,  
urban data (Chapter 3)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Social Enterprises	10.31	8.51										
2. Gross Regional Domestic Product	15.68	0.84	.47**									
			[.33, .59]									
3. Population Density	7.67	1.72	.18*	.21**								
			[.02, .33]	[.05, .36]								
4. NGOs & NPOs	4.01	0.75	.66**	.60**	.34**							
			[.56, .75]	[.48, .69]	[.19, .48]							
5. Cooperatives	3.84	0.83	.61**	.60**	.38**	.79**						
			[.50, .70]	[.48, .69]	[.23, .51]	[.72, .85]						
6. Healthcare and Social Service Providers	6.54	0.68	.56**	.73**	.45**	.77**	.79**					
			[.44, .66]	[.64, .79]	[.31, .57]	[.69, .83]	[.72, .84]					
7. Social Welfare Budget Proportion	38.45	13.06	.13	.06	.80**	.32**	.36**	.41**				
			[-.04, .28]	[-.11, .22]	[.73, .85]	[.17, .46]	[.21, .49]	[.26, .53]				
8. Female Workforce Participation Rate	43.42	5.55	.06	-.39**	.35**	.25**	.22**	.13	.38**			
			[-.10, .22]	[-.52, -.24]	[.20, .48]	[.10, .40]	[.06, .37]	[-.03, .29]	[.23, .51]			
10. Welfare Recipients	3.68	1.87	.34**	-.18*	-.14	.20*	.02	-.01	.01	.25**		
			[.18, .47]	[-.33, -.02]	[-.29, .03]	[.04, .35]	[-.14, .18]	[-.17, .16]	[-.15, .17]	[.09, .40]		
10. Elderly Population Proportion	14.25	4.53	-.22**	-.58**	-.42**	-.30**	-.36**	-.59**	-.31**	.20*	.47**	
			[-.37, -.06]	[-.68, -.46]	[-.55, -.28]	[-.44, -.15]	[-.49, -.21]	[-.68, -.47]	[-.45, -.15]	[.04, .35]	[.34, .59]	
11. Social Economy Support Center	0.22	0.46	.37**	.26**	.31**	.32**	.37**	.43**	.16	.15	-.06	-.24**
			[.22, .50]	[.11, .41]	[.15, .45]	[.17, .46]	[.22, .50]	[.28, .55]	[-.01, .31]	[-.02, .30]	[-.22, .11]	[-.39, -.08]

*Note.* *M* and *SD* are used to represent mean and standard deviation, respectively. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). \* indicates  $p < .05$ . \*\* indicates  $p < .01$ .

Appendix 11. Variance Inflation Factor Test for Multicollinearity, Urban Municipal Districts, Model 14 (Chapter 3)

<b>#</b>	<b>Independent Variable ID</b>	<b>Value</b>
1	Gross Regional Domestic Product (2014), market price	7.351410
2	Population density	4.081219
3	The number of non-governmental organizations/nonprofits	4.170843
4	The number of cooperatives	4.223124
5	The number of healthcare and social service providers	7.240931
6	Social welfare budget proportion of local government	3.579423
7	Female workforce participation rate	3.659891
8	Total number of welfare recipients, percentage	1.708773
9	Elderly population, percentage	3.135945
10	Social Economy Support Center, Y/N	1.436583
11	Social Economy Promotion Ordinance, Y/N	1.119081
12	Party affiliation of municipal head, opposition/ruling	1.751121
13	Change in ruling party from previous local election	2.919596
14	Interaction: Variables #13 & #14	3.436813

Appendix 12. Means, standard deviations, and correlations with confidence interval,  
urban data (Chapter 4)

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Social Enterprises	5.33	7.73																				
2. Gross Domestic Product, Per Capita	10.03	0.66	.13*																			
			[.02, .24]																			
3. Population Density	7.65	1.74	.11	-.22*																		
			[-.01, .22]	[-.32, -.11]																		
4. Inequality	0.95	0.55	.05	.13*	.34*																	
			[-.06, .17]	[.02, .24]	[.23, .44]																	
5. Elderly Population	12.24	4.65	.14*	.05	-.45*	-.59*																
			[.03, .25]	[-.06, .16]	[-.54, -.36]	[-.66, -.51]																
6. Temporary and Daily Workers	12.14	3.31	.16*	-.38*	.35*	.12*	-.01															
			[.05, .27]	[-.48, -.28]	[.24, .44]	[.01, .24]	[-.12, .11]															

7.	NGOs and NPOs	3.70	0.81	.61*	.12*	.28*	.12*	-.06	.23*				
				[.54, .68]	[.00, .23]	[.17, .38]	[.01, .23]	[-.18, .05]	[.12, .34]				
8.	Social Economy Support Center	0.11	0.34	.49*	-.04	.21*	.12*	-.02	.12*	.32*			
				[.39, .57]	[-.15, .08]	[.09, .31]	[.01, .24]	[-.13, .10]	[.00, .23]	[.21, .42]			
9.	Social Expenditure	3.40	0.43	.37*	-.28*	.68*	.03	-.10	.32*	.39*	.24*		
				[.26, .46]	[-.38, -.17]	[.62, .74]	[-.09, .14]	[-.21, .02]	[.21, .42]	[.29, .49]	[.13, .35]		
10.	Current Transfer to Private Sector	11.18	0.71	.62*	.02	-.01	.15*	-.02	.19*	.64*	.37*	.25*	
				[.55, .69]	[-.10, .13]	[-.13, .10]	[.04, .26]	[-.14, .09]	[.08, .30]	[.57, .71]	[.27, .47]	[.13, .37]	
11.	Year	2011	4.51	.64*	.14*	.01	-.08	.43*	.28*	.38*	.32*	.44*	.56*
				[.57, .71]	[.03, .25]	[-.10, .13]	[-.19, .04]	[.34, .52]	[.17, .39]	[.28, .48]	[.24, .40]	[.35, .53]	[.47, .65]
12.	Healthcare and Social Service Providers	6.27	0.75	.54*	-.08	.47*	.36*	-.35*	.30*	.75*	.37*	.50*	.78*

			[.45, .61]	[-.19, .04]	[.38, .56]	[.25, .45]	[-.44, -.24]	[.19, .40]	[.70, .80]	[.27, .47]	[.40, .58]	[.73, .82]	[.25, .45]					
13. Change in Ruling Party	0.36	0.62	.40*	.15*	.07	-.02	.18*	.13*	.21*	.28*	.24*	.33*	.58*	.21*				
			[.30, .49]	[.04, .26]	[-.05, .18]	[-.13, .10]	[.07, .29]	[.01, .24]	[.10, .32]	[.17, .38]	[.13, .35]	[.22, .43]	[.50, .65]	[.10, .33]				
14. Gross Regional Domestic Product	15.55	0.86	.37*	.60*	.22*	.45*	-.42*	-.12*	.56*	.22*	.10	.56*	.14*	.68*	.155*			
			[.27, .46]	[.52, .67]	[.11, .32]	[.35, .53]	[-.51, -.33]	[-.23, -.00]	[.48, .64]	[.10, .32]	[-.02, .21]	[.48, .65]	[.02, .25]	[.61, .74]	[.03, .26]			
15. Total Population	12.43	0.71	.32*	-.22*	.47*	.42*	-.56*	.22*	.57*	.30*	.38*	.67*	.03	.90*	.04	.65*		
			[.22, .42]	[-.32, -.10]	[.37, .55]	[.32, .51]	[-.64, -.48]	[.11, .32]	[.49, .65]	[.19, .40]	[.28, .48]	[.68, .83]	[-.08, .15]	[.88, .92]	[-.08, .15]	[.58, .72]		
16. Businesses	1.80	0.10	.41*	-.06	.24*	.16*	-.23*	.16*	.72*	.27*	.25*	.70*	.11	.85*	.06	.63*	.83*	
			[.31, .50]	[-.18, .05]	[.13, .35]	[.05, .27]	[-.34, -.12]	[.05, .27]	[.66, .77]	[.16, .37]	[.16, .37]	[.63, .75]	[-.01, .22]	[.82, .88]	[-.06, .17]	[.56, .69]	[.78, .86]	
17. Associations and Organizations	6.10	0.57	.43*	-.05	.24*	.18*	-.24*	.16*	.74*	.28*	.24*	.71*	.11	.86*	.06	.64*	.80*	1.00**
			[.33, .52]	[-.16, .07]	[.13, .35]	[.07, .29]	[-.35, -.13]	[.07, .29]	[.68, .78]	[.19, .40]	[.19, .40]	[.65, .77]	[-.01, .22]	[.82, .88]	[-.05, .17]	[.57, .71]	[.79, .86]	[1.00, 1.00]
18. Universities	2.13	2.02	.19*	-.06	-.07	-.01	-.14*	.02	.36*	.04	-.01	.40*	-.02	.37*	-.03	.28*	.40*	.43*
			[.08, .33]	[-.17, .11]	[-.18, .11]	[-.12, .11]	[-.25, .11]	[-.09, .24]	[.26, .44]	[-.08, .11]	[-.12, .11]	[.30, .44]	[-.14, .11]	[.27, .44]	[-.14, .11]	[.17, .33]	[.30, .44]	[.34, .45]

