

SUCCESSFUL implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development will require a new and innovative strategy for its localization—that is, its adaptation to local contexts—that draws on the positive aspects of past initiatives and addresses their limitations. All 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), and their targets, need to be tailored to local circumstances to realize the transformative vision inherent in the 2030 Agenda. Moreover, local plans and strategies to achieve the SDGs and their targets need to be firmly based on an integrated and balanced approach to sustainable development. Existing or newly established programmes and projects need to be effectively coordinated within a coherent framework that is conducive to achieving the SDGs in an inclusive, democratic and sustainable manner.

Localization of the 2030 Agenda is composed of two mutually reinforcing processes: (i) a supra-local process, which influences local development initiatives; and (ii) local development initiatives, which sometimes interpret and translate supra-local development goals and initiatives.¹ Within these processes there are two key dimensions. First, goals and targets need to be adapted to local realities, needs

and priorities. Second, certain enabling conditions, related to institutional arrangements, political forces and economic possibilities, need to be present. This chapter identifies four key conditions that must exist and the ways in which social and solidarity economy (SSE) is conducive to creating such conditions. Before turning to these issues, however, it is useful to review briefly the contemporary history of efforts to localize internationally agreed development initiatives, in order to identify aspects that worked and others that did not.

Localizing internationally agreed development initiatives

The focus on the local dimension has been pertinent in international development discourses and practices since the Second World War. It has been explicitly or implicitly embodied in mainstream development paradigms and strategies, and has taken different forms. For instance, the emphasis on active local participation in the projects of the 1970s and the 1980s was the result of greater understanding and acknowledgement of popular, bottom-up, endogenous and grassroots practices. Regardless of

its ideological direction, be it radical or neoliberal, popular participation as a basic premise in national development strategies helped raise awareness of the importance of local development, which often took the form of community- and village-centred projects (Wolfe and Stiefel 1994).

At this time, many key development players, particularly those involved in participatory action research (PAR), began shifting their focus from national to locally embedded bottom-up approaches. They justified the shift by highlighting the limitations of top-down approaches based on the hypotheses of trickle-down economics, which they argued were not succeeding in reducing poverty in large areas of developing countries. Locally embedded bottom-up approaches were particularly relevant for projects seeking to empower marginalized people and meet the basic needs of the poorer sectors of society, agricultural development in rural areas, and small-scale projects initiated by local communities (Willis 2011, Peet and Hartwick 2009). These local development initiatives followed highly differentiated processes and paths to respond to diverse needs in a widely varying range of local political, social, economic and environmental conditions (OECD 2001).

The empowerment, organization and participation of poor people, and local self-reliance, were central principles upon which progressive local development initiatives were based in the 1970s (Pitt 1976). These principles were understood and emphasized as a means to transform ordinary people into political agents who could effectively influence policy decisions.

The 1980s saw three broad changes at the supra-local level that influenced the nature of local development initiatives. First, local development initiatives gained increasing attention and became part of an important political agenda in many OECD countries. “Place-based approaches” sought to establish “place-specific” policies to meet local needs (Mendell 2014).

Second, international financial institutions such as the World Bank began to use the principles underlying the local development initiatives of the 1970s—that is, people’s empowerment and participation—as a way to “get things done” rather than as a means to correct unequal power relations and transform ordinary people into political agents. In this way, empowerment began to lose its political aspect, as it was increasingly

used primarily as a tool to enhance human capital. Participatory projects pushed aside their goal of building the countervailing power of hitherto excluded social groups. Projects which aimed to mobilize collectively to define and claim the rights of marginalized people were largely sidelined (Chambers 1983, Pearse and Stiefel 1980, Cornwall and Brock 2005).

When decentralization and good governance moved up the policy agenda in the late 1980s (Olowu 2001), development strategies turned their focus towards issues of efficiency, transparency and accountability of governments within the structural adjustment framework, rather than participation and empowerment in their earlier senses. Although highlighting the importance of strengthening local-level institutions as an urgent task for development, international financial institutions did not establish mechanisms to socially and politically empower people and give them control over local resources (de Alcantara 1994).

Decentralization, as a top-down decision from the national level, was not always translated into real change at the local level, for many reasons. Local structures such as patronage systems, local racketeers or other forms of entrenched criminality, and vote rigging, for example, may all work against more widespread participation. Neoliberal structural adjustment and privatization may also undermine key public service sectors in local areas, widening divisions within communities and increasing inequality in many dimensions (Westendorff 2004).

Third, the negative impacts of the prevailing pattern of economic growth on the environment were becoming increasingly visible and part of the political agenda, particularly in the Global North. As the concept of sustainable development entered the international development discourse (for example, in the Brundtland Report), it gave rise to local participatory sustainable development planning and management processes. By the mid-1990s, for example, some European local authorities were implementing sustainable development initiatives, while aid agencies were supporting similar initiatives in the Global South. For example, the Dutch government sponsored a “green towns” project in Kenya, the German government supported an “urban environmental training materials project” in Asia, and there were a number of town twinning arrangements between Northern and Southern municipalities (Atkinson 2004).

The 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED), also known as the Rio Earth Summit, brought the local dimension of environment and development to the fore. Agenda 21 (the non-binding action plan that emerged from the summit) stated that local authorities should reach a consensus with stakeholder groups at the community level to initiate sustainable development planning and management processes. It encouraged the establishment of policy and practice networks composed of various local actors to introduce, interpret, adapt and eventually implement the most relevant aspects of Agenda 21 for their local communities—or Local Agenda 21 (LA 21) (Lafferty and Eckerberg 1998).

In order to address such issues as demographic dynamics, human settlements, management of solid waste and sewage-related issues, Agenda 21 suggested (i) undertaking a consultative process with the population and achieving a consensus on a Local Agenda 21 for the community by 1996; (ii) initiating a consultative process aimed at increasing cooperation between local authorities by 1993; (iii) increasing levels of cooperation and coordination with the goal of enhancing the exchange of information and experience among local authorities by 1994; and (iv) encouraging local authorities to implement and monitor programmes which aim to ensure that women and youth are represented in decision making, planning and implementation processes (UNCED 1992).

These objectives were about procedures rather than being substantive performance-based goals. It has been argued this was intentional since Agenda 21 tried to avoid generalizing local issues, given how diverse local conditions are (Lafferty and Eckerberg 1998). Progress in implementing LA 21 was impressive in terms of the establishment of consultative mechanisms. By the late 1990s, several thousand LA 21 initiatives had been launched, supported by various associations of local authorities such as the International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives (ICLEI) and United Nations agencies such as the United Nations Environment Programme (Geissel 2009).

Although it is difficult to test the claims of LA 21 initiatives, research indicates that they have had genuine impact in many developed and developing countries, including designing strategies, stimulation of debate on environmental issues, inclusion of various actors in the policy-making process, and promoting local democracy (Selman 1998).

Despite these successes, however, LA 21 initiatives showed limitations in addressing contradictions and trade-offs between different development priorities, as well as methods to achieve sustainable development. For instance, in the United Kingdom, although the re-use of urban brownfield sites is accepted as sensible planning policy, LA 21 groups and neighbourhood associations often oppose development on playing fields and allotments (Barton 2000).

Furthermore, many LA 21 consultation mechanisms often stood firmly in the environmentalist camp (and environmentalist approaches often marginalize social and economic dimensions) and were rarely concerned with the root causes of poverty, inequality and environmental degradation (Selman 2010). Discussions around LA 21 initiatives often resembled those about sustainable development in the 1980s, which neither questioned the prevailing (neoliberal) policy framework nor recommended redistributive mechanisms. Agenda 21, and LA 21 as its extension, also failed to make effective suggestions to change unjust social structures or policy regimes that generate inequality. The sustainable development approach within the framework of Agenda 21, despite its emphasis on an integrated and holistic approach, often let each stakeholder group find its own path (Atkinson 2004). In many cases local development initiatives were led by different groups without coordination among themselves. These groups sometimes had sharp conflicts of interest—for example, between middle-class environmentalists aiming to “green” the city and the urban poor whose most pressing need was to maintain their livelihood and access to shelter by any means possible (Mahadevia 2004).

After the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were adopted in 2000, various international development agencies such as the United Nations Development Programme made efforts to localize the MDGs. Overall, however, the focus of the MDG framework was on national averages. As a fundamental shift in local politics towards these internationally agreed goals did not occur, the impacts of efforts to localize the MDGs do not seem to have met the high expectations for local ownership, leadership and partnership for development (Geissel 2009).

The 2030 Agenda, adopted by all UN member states in 2015, is the result of political negotiation between multiple stakeholders. As a result it contains elements

from a variety of development approaches and practices, ranging from the radical transformative vision of participatory action research to the status quo-oriented neoliberal agenda mentioned above (Weber 2017). What matters is not implementation of the SDGs as they are, but how they are used to realize the transformative vision expressed in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (Koehler 2016, UNRISD 2016). Localization of the SDGs needs to involve the design and implementation of local development initiatives based on the transformative vision, principles and values of the SDGs. Localization of the SDGs also requires local development initiatives to be based on an integrated and balanced approach since they need to not only functionally solve problems in specific sectors but also address complex, often contradictory issues that result from diverse development interventions. There are two types of instruments by which the SDGs can be localized: (i) realigning existing institutional structures with the 2030 Agenda; and (ii) creating new institutions and policies specifically to achieve the SDGs (see Pyke 1998).

SSE as a means of implementation of the SDGs in local settings

The 2030 Agenda's call for transformation, its principle of leaving no one behind, and its emphasis on the integrated nature of sustainable development require innovative approaches which can address the problems, noted above, that have undermined the localization of development agendas in the past, as well as new challenges. The 2030 Agenda pays particular attention to the empowerment of all people who experience discrimination due to age, sex, disability, race, ethnicity, origin, religion or economic or another status, particularly women and girls. This requires transforming the structures, institutions and skewed power relations that generate social injustice (UNRISD 2016).

All these calls and requirements need to be applied to the adaptation of the SDGs and their targets to local contexts in ways that are conducive to realizing the transformative vision and the principle of leaving no one behind. Local plans and strategies to achieve the SDGs and targets need to be firmly based on an integrated and balanced approach to sustainable development. Those affected by social exclusion and discrimination need to be empowered through democratic and participatory policies and institutions.

The social and solidarity economy, with its distinctive features and functions, has the potential to meet these requirements of innovative and integrated approaches and participatory governance within and beyond the local context.

Integrated and balanced approach

Emphasis on the indivisibility of the SDGs at the global level will inevitably be accompanied at the local level by differing hierarchies of development objectives and goals, each with their supporters and critics. Therefore, the local context is not just a site for the implementation of goals and targets that have already been fixed at the supra-local level. It is a space where political struggles over priorities of development goals and the use of resources, power and influence take place.

Some SDGs and their targets are mutually reinforcing, whereas others are negatively correlated (Bchir, Bassil, and Khaled 2017, Zhou and Moinuddin 2017, OECD 2016, UNRISD 2015). Further, how to balance ecologically compatible, economically profitable and socially acceptable factors is always subject to political negotiation. The interdependence of the SDGs and their targets can be a source of conflict. The concerns of environmentalists regarding the re-zoning of green-field sites for business activities in the name of local job creation, for example, illustrate the types of trade-offs that can be seen in many places (see Mahadevia 2004). Tensions often arise between the imperative of projects that yield quick and visible results, and long-term development strategies where outcomes are only evident after some time (see Feichtinger and Pregernig 2005).

Tensions also arise when policies are incoherent across different levels of government. Macroeconomic pro-growth and pro-efficiency policies, for example, may crowd out social and environmental objectives, which can undermine local policy efforts to implement the SDGs in a balanced manner. It is necessary, therefore, to examine not only local contexts and capacities but also how local dynamics are affected by their interactions with regional, national and international contexts. Some factors are exogenous to the local context and are transferred into it either fortuitously or deliberately. Others are endogenous and may or may not enable a process of self-propelling development.

Tensions among goals or a hierarchy among goals, in themselves, are not necessarily problematic, but they may become so if there is no mechanism to reconcile

different views and interests in a democratic and sustainable manner. It is therefore crucial to the implementation of the SDGs to have mechanisms that (i) reduce or minimize the tensions and conflicts which arise during implementation; and (ii) ensure an integrated and balanced approach to make the goals and targets compatible, consistent and synergistic.

Not all mechanisms and approaches are transformative and sustainable, however. For instance, a process of interest mediation led by political elites may bring about conciliation between the parties concerned but at the same time reinforce existing unjust structures. Even if political elites can promote more radical change than a mediation mechanism involving participatory governance, they are unlikely to be a sustainable driving force of transformative structural change since the process cuts itself off from widespread citizen participation which is crucial for ensuring political sustainability (see Feichtinger and Pregernig 2005).

In this sense, local governance which incorporates participatory and direct forms of democracy within representative bodies is fundamental for an integrated and balanced approach to achieving the SDGs. Governance arrangements that facilitate the collaboration of different levels (international, regional, national, subnational and local) and involve multiple actors (state, market, civil society and community) are also crucial, because policy problems often cut across jurisdictions (Sano 2012). Active and meaningful participation of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with expertise on policy issues can also significantly contribute to reducing tensions caused by different interests, voicing the needs of the people, particularly hitherto marginalized groups, and consequently making local government more responsive and accountable in the localization of the SDGs. NGOs can also facilitate policy coherence at different levels of government through their networks, which cut across different levels of governance.

SSE is well-positioned to foster an integrated and balanced approach due to the following characteristics. First, with its tendency to internalize rather than externalize environmental and social costs in its economic activities, it can reduce conflicts and tensions between goals. Second, practices and relations underpinned by the principles of democracy and solidarity help SSE to play a leading role in reconciling diverse interests

of local actors and facilitate their cooperation in the management of common pool resources. Its attention to social inclusion and cohesion provides a basis for empowering vulnerable and hitherto excluded people, particularly women. Third, given its relations with a wide range of actors in economic, social and environmental sectors, SSE can catalyse the creation of various forms of coordination and collaboration, which is a prerequisite for an integrated and balanced approach. The Andalusian Pact of Spain, signed in 2006, is a good example of multi-scalar (local and regional), horizontal (inter-ministerial collaboration) and multi-stakeholder collaboration in which SSE plays a key role (Mendell 2014).² Lastly, through alliances with social movements, SSE has the potential to engage in forms of active citizenship, including protest and advocacy to overcome structural and institutional constraints that undermine integrated and balanced approaches to development and the scope for transformative change. This is evident, for example, in the case of various forms of SSE associated with indigenous movements in Latin America (Dinerstein 2013).

Designing locally specific development goals

Adopting national plans for goals, targets and indicators without considering local conditions runs the risk of ignoring relevant solutions and, consequently, causing uneven development. Prioritization of development goals and targets at the national level is often the result of national-level political competition and compromises and does not necessarily reflect diverse local conditions and needs (James 2006, Dar and Khan 2011). Various experiences with Sector Wide Approaches (SWAs) in health, education and environment are a case in point. Contrary to the original intention of providing the missing link between sector reform and decentralization, many SWAs practices tend to reinforce the position of central line agencies vis-a-vis other actors and restrict space for local priority setting, which consequently has produced disappointing results (McNee 2012, van Reesch 2007).

Localizing the SDGs requires reinterpreting goals and targets to reflect the specific conditions of the locality. Local SDGs should be decided through democratic governance mechanisms that engage multiple stakeholders, as emphasized in SDG target 16.6 “establish effective, accountable and transparent institutions at all levels” and SDG target 16.7 “ensure responsive, inclusive, participatory and representative decision making at all levels”.

SSE organizations, which are based on the guiding principles of democratic self-management, solidarity and cooperation, can become a key player in establishing locally specific development goals. The active involvement of some community groups in the policy-making process in Ecuador and Bolivia is a good example (Utting 2018). The collective right of communities to engage in the design of projects and laws affecting their lands or environment has been institutionalized in these countries. The institutionalized participatory mechanisms associated with SSE have facilitated the establishment of specific local development initiatives and the allocation of public resources for their implementation.

Empowerment of actors

Democratic institutions alone will not guarantee the realization of the transformative vision of the 2030 Agenda if they do not effectively mobilize people, particularly poor and excluded groups, to be active agents of change and counter the capacity of elites to capture institutions (UNRISD 2010). Elite capture is even prevalent in local areas of recently democratized countries where institutions of “good governance” have been designed in a top-down manner or imposed from outside. Both informal and formal linkages between business and political elites shape development strategy, possibly in ways that are not conducive to the implementation of the SDGs. They may, for example, prevent the economy from diversifying into productive industries associated with decent work and environmentally friendly practices (Mkandawire 2006).

SSE organizations and enterprises (SSEOs), in particular cooperatives, which are often intertwined with broader social struggles to promote the interests of the most vulnerable, can play a key role in preventing elite capture through their strengthened bargaining power, by forming alliances and by transforming nominal participatory democracy mechanisms into real ones.

Additionally, a key element in localizing the SDGs relates to women’s empowerment and emancipation in both the public and domestic spheres, which can be a spill-over effect of women organizing collectively in SSEOs (Mukherjee-Reed 2015). Examples include women-owned cooperatives, self-help groups, mutual health and savings, and credit organizations in Africa; community forest groups in India and Nepal; and social enterprises providing proximity services in

Western Europe or Quebec (Agarwal 2015, Utting 2018). The intermediary support organizations established by local and central governments promoting the social economy (SE) in the Republic of Korea are another good example related to democratic governance (see Chapter IV). These intermediary support organizations, which are staffed with many former SE practitioners, play a key role in empowering SE actors, particularly marginalized and excluded people, by transforming them into an effective counterpart in dialogues between and within the government and the SE community (Kim 2016).

SSE, however, can also be captured by local elites when there is strong external pressure to be economically sustainable (see UNRISD 1975). Fierce competition and limited access to resources may force SSEOs to shift their focus from their core values, such as democracy, equity, cooperation and solidarity, to economic viability. In extreme cases, a specific SSE organization or sector itself may monopolize subsidies, exert influence over market entry by new rivals and engage in price fixing, as in the case of sugar cooperatives in Maharashtra, India (Stigler 1971, Lalvani 2008, UNRISD 1975). Such organizations may undermine the capacity of other local actors, including other SSE actors, to correct inefficient and inequitable markets. Such behaviours would, of course, obstruct the transformative localization of the SDGs. The capacity of SSEOs to challenge existing unjust power structures can be compromised or quelled if SSEOs are controlled by local elites rather than governed by people. SSE also needs to avoid being instrumentalized by state authorities in view of achieving narrow policy objectives, which is a risk involved in government-led support mechanisms. The European Union’s Local Development and Employment Initiatives are a case in point (see Chapter II).

Subsidiarity based on solidarity beyond locality

As the first point of contact with citizens, local governments are well placed to understand the needs of their residents (UCLG 2017). However, addressing local needs without considering the broad principle of solidarity, or other localities’ needs, can be contradictory from the perspective of attaining the SDGs for all. This is particularly the case when capital and labour are increasingly mobile. Reluctance to accommodate migrants, for example,

can seriously undermine the principle of leaving no one behind, and ultimately violate human rights. A local government that enforces strong environmental protection regulations may unintentionally push dirty industries to other underdeveloped areas with no net environmental improvement (Xu and Song 2000). Another example is the race-to-the-bottom behaviour of some local governments in the form of deregulation or loose regulation and tax cuts to attract outside investment. In addition to the unsustainable pattern of development created locally, race-to-the-bottom behaviour tends to result in a skewed flow of capital and income from local communities, often towards already affluent major cities or abroad, which deepens regional inequalities (Yao and Zhang 2008).

A steering and coordination mechanism to strengthen subsidiarity within a context that promotes solidarity across local areas is necessary to prevent geographical externalization of environmental and social costs and geographically skewed resource flows. Central to such a coordination mechanism is interactive governance involving diverse actors at different levels of governance (Kooiman 1993). Such interactive governance can strengthen horizontal, vertical and diagonal networks within and between actors at local, national, regional and global levels. SSE has played an increasingly important role in interactive governance. In addition to the role of SSEOs and intermediary organizations in local governance, various networks and coalitions of SSE organizations at national, regional and global levels contribute to strengthening coordination mechanisms across different local areas since they tend to be attuned to the negative consequences of locational push and pull. The exchange of local knowledge and experience can contribute to establishing sustainable local solutions in collaboration with networks of local authorities, such as United Cities and Local Governments (UCLG) and ICLEI (UCLG 2017). Notable examples include Fairtrade International, HomeNet (representing domestic workers), and La Via Campesina (representing mainly small farmers and agricultural workers). As an example at the national level, the extensive network of community development associations (Asociaciones de Desarrollo Comunal / ADC) in Costa Rica plays a significant role in coordinating the allocation of state resources in the development of infrastructure (roads, electricity, sanitation) and socio-cultural centres (Utting 2015, Utting and Morales 2016, Utting 2018).

Social economy in Seoul

This report examines the social economy (SE) in Seoul, Republic of Korea, and how it is contributing to implementing and, ultimately, achieving, the city's "localized" SDGs. Given the Seoul Metropolitan Government's (SMG) strong commitment to both SE and the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), the city's experience offers a valuable opportunity to enrich our understanding of the process of localizing the SDGs and the potential and limits of SE as a means of implementation for the SDGs.

The term "social economy" is used in the Republic of Korea for social and solidarity economy. In this report, social economy (SE) and social and solidarity economy (SSE) are used synonymously.³ SE organizations in Seoul include Social Enterprises, Cooperatives, Village Enterprises and Self-Reliance Enterprises (see Chapter III).

"Localized SDGs" refers to goals and targets set by subnational localities taking into account regional and local contexts, as well as the identification of means of implementation and establishment of indicators to measure, monitor and evaluate progress. In Seoul, targets of the localized SDGs have been established by a wide range of stakeholders including the Seoul Metropolitan Government and civil society organizations.

Both nationally and in Seoul in recent years, the social economy has been leveraged as an important policy implementation tool. This is partly a de facto recognition of the growth of SE organizations and enterprises (SEOEs) that has taken place at the grassroots level in response to social and economic problems in the wake of the Asian financial crisis of the late 1990s and the early 2000s. It is also part of a strategy to expand social policy and engage non-state actors in the provision of social services.

The growth of SE has accelerated since 2011 when the SMG emphasized the importance of SE in its policy agenda. Operating its own system for certifying social enterprises, the SMG has attempted to build "solid foundations for the formation of a social economy ecosystem" (Seoul Metropolitan Government 2017) through the provision of a wide range of policies and subsidies. Importantly, it opened the Seoul Social Economy Center which aims to serve as a

network hub for different SE actors, create an SE targeted support system, conduct social economy research, plan and implement social economy related policies, and strengthen cooperation between local governments and social economy organizations (Lee and Kim 2013).

SE organizations and enterprises in the Republic of Korea and in Seoul are expanding in terms of types, numbers, sales volume and their contribution to social and environmental objectives, welfare state expansion and democratic consolidation (see Chapter III). The number of officially registered SEOEs in Seoul grew from 341 in 2010 to 3,512 in 2016 (Seoul Social Economy Centre 2017). SEOEs, particularly those in Seoul, are playing a significant role in addressing economic, social and environmental issues, including employment, social service delivery to marginalized groups, community development, provision of nutritious and healthy foods, and environmental protection.

While much of the focus has been on enhancing the role of SE in employment creation and social inclusion, a key question today is the role for SE in Seoul in achieving the SDGs. The SMG has actively promoted the SDGs. It established the Municipal Ordinance Committee for Sustainable Development in 2013, even before the adoption of the 2030 Agenda. The Committee, which comprises representatives of both the public and private sectors, was mandated to establish sustainable development plans for Seoul and monitor and evaluate the

BOX I.1 The Republic of Korea and Seoul

The Republic of Korea is a unitary state with a two-tier system of local government. The upper tier includes Seoul and six other metropolitan cities, and nine provinces. The lower tier includes cities, counties (mostly in rural areas) and autonomous districts (which exist in the metropolitan cities and Seoul).

Seoul, the capital of the Republic of Korea, is one of the most densely populated cities in the world, covering just 0.6 percent of the country's territory of 100,210 square kilometres but housing around a fifth of the total population of 51 million. Having been the capital of first the Yi Dynasty, then Japanese colonial Korea, then the Republic of Korea, now for a total of more than 500 years, its geographical boundary has gradually expanded, reaching its current shape in the 1980s. As suburban areas, such as neighbouring Incheon City and Gyeonggi Province, started to develop in the 1990s, many people left the city to live there, but often continued to work in Seoul: in 2002 around a quarter of those working in Seoul commuted from suburban areas. Growing suburbanization and the related commuting patterns show that the functional area of Seoul is far bigger than its administrative area (OECD 2005).

implementation of these plans. In 2015 the SMG issued Seoul City's Basic Plan for Sustainable Development, which has been followed by a series of policy actions to implement the SDGs locally. Following consultations that included civil society and academic groups, the SMG announced the Seoul Sustainable Development Goals (S-SDGs), "17 Ways to Change Seoul", in November 2017. These developments are part of a promising trajectory. They open up spaces to answer questions about how SE policies and the SDGs are related to each other, and what the opportunities and challenges are for realizing the potential of SE as a means of implementation of the localized SDGs.

Structure of the report

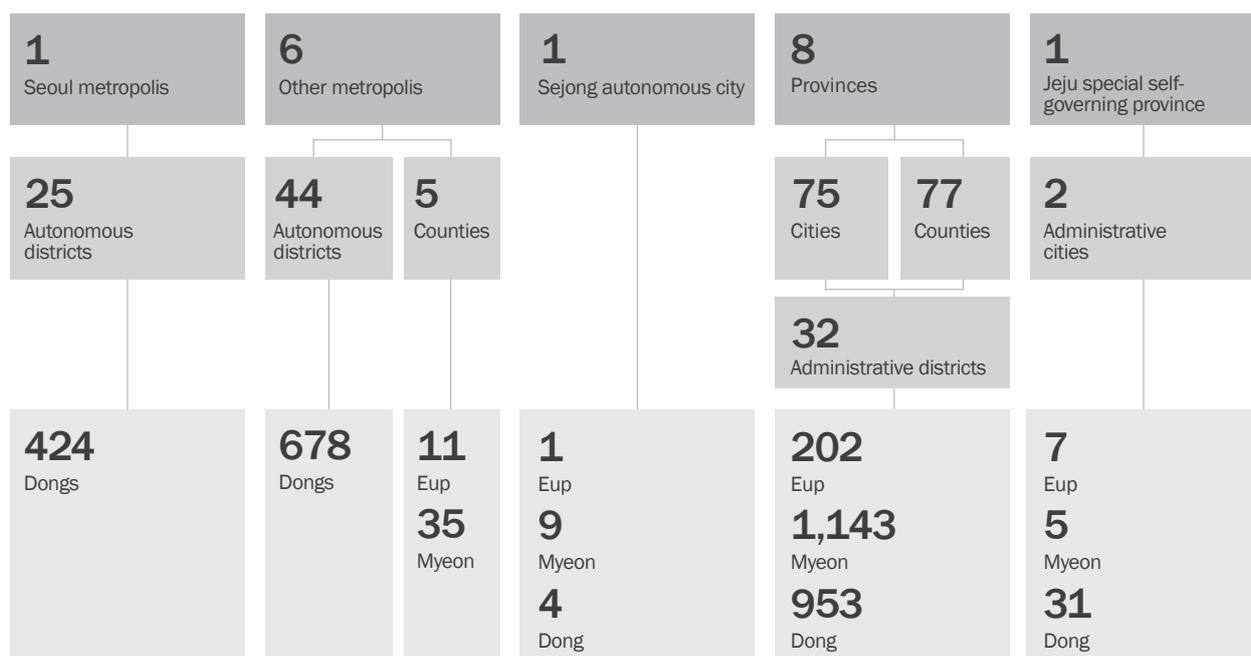
Through the analysis of policies and institutions for SE in Seoul and their trajectory of development, and an assessment of SE's economic, social, environmental and political impacts, this report aims to provide evidence-based analysis and insight that can enhance understanding of Seoul's SE and its contribution to the localization of the SDGs and their implementation, and draw out lessons that can be applied in other localities.

The report is structured as follows. Chapter II provides a conceptual and explanatory framework for the following chapters on the potential of SE to contribute to localizing the SDGs in Seoul. It explains the new and innovative aspects of the 2030 Agenda's call for localization which may be able to address the limitations and challenges of past attempts to translate global policy frameworks into local action. It looks at the ways that SSE contributes to localizing the SDGs, and examines the kinds of supportive institutions and policies that can help SSE fully realize its potential as a means of implementation of the SDGs.

Chapter III explains the historical origins of SEOEs in Korea during the Japanese colonial period (1910-1945), and how historical legacies shaped their development. It then considers the second half of the 20th century, paying particular attention to the structural and institutional influence on the development of SEOEs of democratization, economic crisis and welfare state expansion.

Describing the landscape of Seoul's SE in the national context, Chapter IV explains the institutions, policies, organizations and key actors that have shaped the nature and form of SE in Seoul. It pays attention

Figure I.1. Public administration structure in the Republic of Korea



Note: Eup (town), Myeon (township) and Dong (neighbourhood) are the smallest administrative entities.
Source: Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2016

to a range of political factors, including civil society claims and electoral party politics, which both pose challenges and create opportunities.

Chapters V and VI explain how the impacts created by SEOEs contribute to sustainable development. Reviewing existing data and analysis, Chapter V demonstrates the impacts of Seoul's SEOEs on the social, environmental and economic dimensions of development. In addition, it introduces the results of a survey conducted by UNRISD on the impact of SEOEs on members' attitudes towards democratic participation and solidarity, aspects which are central to the contribution of SEOEs to democratic governance. Chapter VI explains the potential of SEOEs in Seoul as a means of implementation of the city's localized SDGs. Based on qualitative analysis of the mandates of Seoul's Certified Social Enterprises and network analysis methods, it demonstrates how Seoul's SEOEs contribute to achieving certain clusters of SDGs and suggests how Seoul's SEOEs might better address relatively marginalized SDGs through a more integrative and balanced approach.

Based on the findings, a concluding chapter summarizes lessons that can be drawn from Seoul's experience with SEOEs in localizing the SDGs and provides broader policy recommendations for the development of SSE as a means of implementation of the SDGs.

ENDNOTES

¹ Local development initiatives refer to institutions, policies and programmes that are based in a given locality and initiated by local actors. Local development initiatives are mainly bottom-up approaches to respond to the failure of market and national government policies to provide what is required to improving the quality of life. Some are purely bottom-up approaches while others are bottom-up approaches which supra-local institutions help local actors to initiate (Pyke 1998, Bamberger 1986). They aim to create, reinforce and stabilize activities using as best as possible the resources of a given locality to improve the quality of life.

² The Andalusian Pact of Spain is a place-based strategy agreed by several ministries, a trade union and the confederation of social enterprises.

³ For a discussion of the different uses of the two terms, see Utting 2015:386.

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