



**Interaction between social enterprises and key actors
shaping the field – experiences from the social and health
sectors in Hungary**

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Interaction between social enterprises and key actors shaping the field – experiences from the social and health sectors in Hungary

Abstract

Purpose: In Hungary, similarly to other Central and Eastern European states, the concept of social enterprise has attracted increased attention in recent years, and certain key actors shaping the organizational field have emerged. This growing interest is due in large part to the availability of EU funds focusing primarily on the work integration of disadvantaged groups, but ignoring other possible roles of social enterprises. The present research focuses on a not widely examined and funded area, it analyzes the institutional environment and organizational activities of social enterprises in the social and health sectors.

Design/methodology/approach: Based on neoinstitutional theory, the paper utilizes desk research as well as qualitative case studies presenting the experiences of social enterprises providing social and health services for specific disadvantaged social groups.

Findings: The research identified the key actors influencing the everyday operation of social enterprises; and examined the connections, interactions and partnerships between them. Based on the findings, social enterprises are mostly dependent on the central state and local public social and health institutions, while their partnerships with local governments, private customers, networks, development organizations and for-profit enterprises are less decisive. The key actors have relevant impact on the legal form, main activities, as well as financial and human resources of the social enterprises.

Originality/value: The paper contributes to understanding the opportunities and barriers of social enterprises in Hungary and more generally in Central and Eastern Europe, especially regarding their place in social and health services.

Key words: social enterprise, social services, health care, institutional environment, key actors, Hungary

Article Classification: research paper

Introduction

The concept of social enterprise (SE), which can be broadly defined as a business that serves a social mission (Defourny and Nyssens, 2006), has become increasingly popular in many European countries in recent years (Nyssens, 2015). Several organizations began to identify themselves as social enterprises; new legal forms, policy measures and support schemes were introduced; and certain key actors shaping the SE field emerged, from state institutions to private funding and development organizations, advocacy groups, networks or academic institutions (European Commission, 2020). This growing interest can be attributed to certain interconnected trends, such as third sector organizations becoming more entrepreneurial due to the scarcity of traditional funding sources; for-profit organizations experiencing growing expectations from consumers to put more emphasis on ethical business practices; and welfare states turning away from traditional institutional and redistributive approaches to more active and work oriented economic and social policies, including initiatives aiming at outsourcing the provision of welfare services (Evers and Laville, 2004; Pestoff, 2014; Mulgan, 2006). The concept has become increasingly relevant at the level of the European Union as well, as an official definition of social enterprises accepted by the European Commission was introduced in 2011 (European Commission, 2011), and designated support was provided in the 2014-2020 development period through the Structural Funds (European Commission, 2013). In the EU specifically, social enterprises have been subject to interest primarily due to their role in promoting the work integration of disadvantaged social groups, and social and community care service provision (Borzaga and Spear, 2004; Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

Though present in all EU member states, the emergence and development of the social enterprise field has had significantly different characteristics in the different countries due to variation in the social, economic, legal and welfare systems, as well as institutional and stakeholder networks (Persson *et al.*, 2016; Hazenberg *et al.*, 2016). In Central and Eastern Europe (CEE), social enterprises initially were created mainly in order to answer to shortcomings arising from shrinking state programs, mostly organized from the bottom up or as a result of pilot projects by international actors, and less as a result of state policy (Les and Kolin, 2009). However, recently, the importance of social enterprises in public policy has grown in the region, in which the professional and financial support of the EU has played a major role. At the same time, state regulation of social enterprises is quite restrictive, considering them primarily as organizations promoting the integration of disadvantaged people into the labour market (Galera, 2009; European Commission, 2015), and current SE policy narratives fit the direction of the welfare state's withdrawal from the provision of public services (Persson *et al.*, 2016).

In Hungary, similarly to other CEE countries, the concept of social enterprise – not widespread for a long time – has been met with increasing interest in recent years, with more and more public and private actors targeting the SE field, and the development of the sector has intensified in a large part by utilizing EU funds (G. Fekete *et al.*, 2017a; European Commission, 2015; European Commission, 2019). At the same time, in accordance with EU priorities, state policy has continued to look at social enterprises as organizations that promote the integration of disadvantaged groups into the labour market, while other possible roles for the involvement of social enterprises in the provision of welfare services (e.g. social and health services) has largely been ignored. Still, the sector shows a more diverse picture in terms of activities and target groups than what public policy suggests with organizations being involved in various fields, such as education (36%), social services (34%), culture (34%), hobbies and leisure (27%), community development (27%), economic development (24%),

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3 environmental protection (23%), sport (12%), health (11%) and international relations (one
4 organization may have identified multiple objectives in its response) (G. Fekete *et al.*, 2017b).
5 The picture is also diverse regarding target groups, with the most common beneficiaries of
6 social enterprises being the poor and disadvantaged, the unemployed, members of the local
7 community, ill or disabled adults, children, the elderly and national minorities (G. Fekete *et*
8 *al.*, 2017b).
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11 Social enterprises are indeed present in the provision of different welfare services, and they
12 also focus on various disadvantaged social groups. However, their role regarding these
13 specific areas has so far been little researched. Most studies have focused on defining and
14 understanding the concept (Kiss, 2015; Hubai, 2016; G. Fekete *et al.* 2017a; Mihály, 2017) or
15 giving a general description of the field (Petheő, 2009; European Commission, 2014;
16 SEFORIS, 2016; G. Fekete *et al.* 2017b; Kiss, 2018; European Commission, 2019a), but more
17 in-depth sector-specific research is lacking. The present research aims to fill this gap by
18 examining the institutional environment and organizational activity of social enterprises
19 operating in the social and health sectors in Hungary that focus on certain disadvantaged
20 target groups – addicts, people with intellectual disabilities and autism, people with physical
21 disabilities and the homeless. After describing the theoretical background and methodology of
22 the research, the paper analyzes the key actors impacting the institutional environment of the
23 social and health sectors and the social enterprise organizational field in Hungary, and
24 examines the experiences of social enterprises by presenting the main results of the case
25 studies conducted for the research.
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29 **Theoretical background**

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32 The present paper examines the institutional environment and organizational activity of social
33 enterprises through utilizing neoinstitutional theory. In particular, it focuses on how certain
34 key actors that influence the social enterprise organizational field in the social and health
35 sectors at a macro level have an impact on the everyday micro level operation of practicing
36 social enterprises, and how social enterprises connect to and interact with these actors.
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39 An organizational field – which can be in the phase of emerging or already established – is a
40 set of organizations that appear in a recognized area of institutional life, i.e. key suppliers,
41 consumers, regulatory and other organizations (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983). In case of an
42 emerging organizational field, according to the theory of reflexive isomorphism (Nicholls,
43 2010), there are no clearly defined boundaries and definitions yet, the field is in the state of
44 so-called “paradigm-building”. In this state, certain dominant, resource-rich paradigm-
45 building actors are actively involved in promoting the development of the field to a closed
46 system by shaping the main discourses and narratives according to their own interest. Nicholls
47 (2010) regards the social enterprise field to be such an emerging field, where the main
48 paradigm-building actors are the state through legislation, policies and funding; development
49 and support organizations (foundations, scholarship organizations) through funding,
50 professional support and building connections; networks through providing office space or
51 business support; and the academia through research and education activities (Nicholls, 2010).
52 To this list, according to Kiss (2020), international level actors, specifically the EU, can also
53 be added through providing funding and promoting policy directions.
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57 Once an organizational field is established, which is the case of the social and health sectors
58 in a given country, according to DiMaggio and Powell’s (1983) theory of institutional
59 isomorphism, various pressures from different actors are directed towards similar
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3 organizational solutions (isomorphism) to organizations already present in and also new
4 organizations entering the field. DiMaggio and Powell (1983) distinguish between three
5 mechanisms of institutional isomorphism by different key actors. Coercive isomorphism
6 stems from both formal and informal pressures of the state and other authorities (such as
7 development and support organizations), and the cultural expectations of society (as
8 consumers, employees, etc.), e.g. laws, unified operational procedures or standardized
9 reporting methods. Mimetic isomorphism occurs by copying the operation of already
10 successful organizations (e.g. well-known social enterprises). Normative isomorphism is the
11 effect of professionalization which, according to Dimaggio and Powell (1983), is the
12 collective struggle of members of a profession to determine the circumstances and methods of
13 their work, and to establish their professional autonomy, in which usually universities and
14 other educational institutions, and advocacy organizations and networks are active.
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18 The social enterprise sector can be regarded as a specific organizational field, as due to the
19 hybrid nature of SEs having a social aim and market activities simultaneously, it sits at the
20 interface of different institutional logics (Pinch and Sunley, 2015). Moreover, Vickers *et al.*
21 (2017) state that social enterprises in social and health services are shaped simultaneously by
22 the logic of the public, private and third sectors, as the introduction of new ideas and concepts
23 is influenced by the logic of the public sector and the two challenging logics, namely the
24 market that requires entrepreneurial responses, and civil society, which emphasizes the social
25 value and democratic commitment of workers and communities. Thus for-profit companies,
26 consumers, customers and clients, as well as non-profit organizations, communities,
27 volunteers, members, etc. can be regarded as important actors also influencing the operation
28 of social enterprises.
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32 Though existing institutional structures, logics and rules established by the above mentioned
33 key actors shape an organizational field significantly, according to the theory of institutional
34 enterprise, competent grassroots actors can also influence their institutional environments
35 (DiMaggio, 1991; Nicholls and Cho, 2006). Based on this, practicing social enterprises and
36 social entrepreneurs themselves can shape their organizational field, as they have a dynamic
37 relationship with their environment, and try to influence its behaviour, often deliberately
38 disrupting and innovating dysfunctional structures.
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41 The key actors that influence the operation of social enterprises at a micro level can also be
42 examined by looking at the networks and partnerships of practicing social enterprises,
43 highlighted by the social business model canvas. The social business model canvas is an
44 augmented version of the business model canvas (see Osterwalder and Pigneur, 2010); which
45 defines the way how an enterprise creates, delivers and captures value. The original business
46 model canvas includes certain key actors influencing the operation of businesses, such as
47 customers, that is, those willing to pay for the service or product sold by the organization. The
48 model also includes the key partners of the business, those with whom the company works for
49 mutual benefit (e.g. strategic partnerships), but also organizations with which contact is
50 essential for operation (e.g. tax authorities). The social business model canvas additionally
51 includes other important actors, due to hybrid nature and social mission of social enterprises.
52 Such stakeholder group is the beneficiary group, which is the supported stakeholder group
53 accessing the service or the product of the social enterprise. Another group in the model
54 consists of those, who support the production process (Dohrmann *et al.*, 2015). The role of
55 other stakeholders – key partners – can be different; they can be donors, financial supporters,
56 social investors, value creation and delivery partners, volunteers and specialists (Quastharin,
57 2016). Thus social enterprises have a diverse network of connections and partners, which can
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3 be explained by the fact that due to their hybridity, they constantly face legitimacy challenges;
4 therefore they seek to connect with influential and resourceful actors and organisations in
5 their field (Folmer *et al.* 2018).
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8 The social enterprise field in the social and health sectors is shaped by certain key actors and
9 institutional structures on a macro level that also have influence over the operation of
10 organizations on a micro level. According to the theories described above, these key actors
11 are the state (central and local level), international entities (e.g. the EU), development and
12 support organizations, networks, the academia, social enterprises themselves, for-profit and
13 third sector organizations, and society both as customers, clients, beneficiaries and volunteers.
14 The present paper examines the institutional environment and organizational activity of social
15 enterprises by looking at the connection and interaction between these key actors and the
16 practicing social enterprises.
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18 19 **Methodology**

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21 The present paper was conducted in the framework of a research that aimed at analyzing the
22 experiences of social enterprises in certain specific areas of the welfare system, focusing on
23 different vulnerable social groups in the social and health sectors in particular. The research
24 analyzed on the one hand the possibilities and limitations arising from the existing
25 institutional environment of these areas, and on the other hand the purposeful activities and
26 strategies of social enterprises in these fields. Thus, instead of a general analysis of the
27 situation of social enterprises, the aim was to establish more sector-specific findings (see
28 Authors, 2020; Authors, 2021).
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31 The present paper focuses on one aspect of the research, it aims to explore how key actors
32 influencing the social enterprise organizational field at a macro level have an impact on the
33 everyday micro level operation of practicing social enterprises, and how social enterprises
34 connect to and interact with these actors. To achieve this aim, the main research questions
35 were:
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- 38 • What are the characteristics of the key actors in the social enterprise organizational
39 field?
- 40 • How do social enterprises connect to and interact with the key actors of the social
41 enterprise organizational field?
- 42 • What impact do the key actors have on the operation of social enterprises?
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45 The methodology used to answer the research questions was twofold. First, literature review
46 was applied to present the institutional environment of social enterprises and the key actors
47 shaping this environment in the social and health sectors, and more specifically regarding the
48 services available to the disadvantaged target groups. Second, qualitative, exploratory case
49 studies were conducted to provide a detailed presentation of social enterprises operating in
50 different areas of the social and health sectors. The case studies were based on in-depth
51 interviews and document analysis. A total of six semi-structured interviews were conducted
52 with managers and employees of four Hungarian social enterprises, and some interviewees
53 were consulted on several occasions in the fall and winter of 2019. As data collection was
54 finalized before the pandemic in 2020, the impact of the Covid virus on the social enterprises
55 was not analyzed in the research.
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3 Regarding the sample of the case studies, the concept of social enterprise has several
4 competing definitions. While all include in their description the characteristics of having
5 social objectives and entrepreneurial activities, besides this the different international schools
6 of thought emphasize different features, such as being non-profit, innovative or participatory
7 (Defourny and Nyssens, 2006). Similarly to the existing international approaches, several SE
8 definitions are available in Hungary as well (Kiss, 2018; European Commission, 2019). In the
9 present research, a broad definition is employed; social enterprises are understood here as
10 organisations seeking solutions to social problems by pursuing market activities.
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14 Mainly due to the lack of uniform definition of social enterprise in Hungary, currently
15 available statistical data collection is not suitable for clearly identifying the organizations that
16 can be classified as such. Therefore, it seemed more appropriate to look for types of
17 organizations that, in some respects, can be considered as social enterprises. Based on lists of
18 funding programs, development and support organizations, awards, studies and articles
19 focusing on social enterprises in particular, a total of 265 initiatives were regarded as SE (see
20 Authors, 2020). From this list, a varied sample was selected according to purposeful sampling
21 (Patton, 1990). It was important for the research that social enterprises focusing on different
22 disadvantaged target groups – addicts; people with physical disability; people with intellectual
23 disability and autism; and the homeless – were included. This diversity provided an
24 opportunity to learn about the characteristics of social enterprises involved in social and
25 health services in general, but also highlighted relevant differences in institutional
26 environments across target groups. Besides diversity according to target groups, the case
27 studies also varied in other characteristics. In terms of legal form, non-profit organizations
28 (foundation, non-profit ltd.), a social cooperative and for-profit company were also included
29 in the analysis. In connection with the type of settlement and region, in addition to Budapest
30 and Central Hungary, organizations operating in other cities in different regions (Northern
31 Hungary and Western Transdanubia) were included. According to age, the date of
32 establishment of the organizations ranged from 1994 to 2014.
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39 **Characteristics of the social and health sectors in Hungary**

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41 In order to understand the situation of social enterprises involved in social and health services,
42 first these sectors will be introduced briefly (for a more detailed summary of the topic, see
43 Authors, 2020). The social and health sectors as part of the Hungarian welfare system have
44 had certain specific constant characteristics, such as low levels of welfare spending – in line
45 with the low GDP per capita – especially in health, social inclusion and support for the
46 unemployed (Bányai *et al.*, 2012). Certain characteristics, such as dominant policy directions,
47 however, have changed significantly throughout the years. The state socialist period (1949-
48 1989) followed a more or less universalist approach via centralized, state-owned service
49 provision, while after the regime change in 1989, new approaches towards the welfare system
50 became influential, especially decentralization and democratization by delegating important
51 tasks to the level of local governments, and neo-liberalism by reducing the role of the state
52 through involving organizations outside the public domain in service provision (Lakner,
53 2005). Currently, since the change of government in 2010, a more uniform policy approach
54 favouring the (re)centralization of welfare services and needs-based benefits with tighter
55 conditions and reduced values emerged (Szikra, 2018). The most vulnerable groups have
56 increasingly been excluded from the social security system, at the same time, the solution of
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3 social problems has primarily been expected from labour market inclusion with an emphasis
4 on public employment (Edmiston and Aro, 2016; Szikra, 2018).
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7 The institutional system of social services was defined by the Act III of 1993 on Social
8 Governance and Social Benefits, which provides cash benefits (e.g. cash benefits based on
9 social needs) and benefits in kind (e.g. energy use allowance). In addition, the law also
10 provides social services (e.g. family assistance support services, street social work) and
11 institutional care (e.g. rehabilitation institutions, assisted living facilities, residential homes),
12 for the provision of which local governments became responsible (Harsányi and Szémán,
13 1999). However, in the past years, the role of local governments in maintaining institutions
14 was substantially reduced, and the provision of these services was centralized (Kuti, 2017), an
15 example of which is that in 2013, residential care for the disabled, psychiatric patients, addicts
16 and the institutional system providing child protection specialist care was placed in central
17 state maintenance (Czibere *et al.*, 2019). Expenditure on social protection has been declining
18 steadily, from 18.1% of the GDP in 2009 to 13.1% in 2018 (Eurostat, 2020). This decline has
19 increasingly been affecting the most disadvantaged groups and areas (Scharle and Szikra,
20 2015; European Commission, 2019b).
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24 The institutional system of health services is regulated by the Act CLIV of 1997 on health
25 care, which includes basic health care (e.g. home doctor), outpatient specialist care (e.g.
26 specialist clinics), inpatient specialist care (e.g. hospitals); and other health care (e.g.
27 medicine) (State Audit Office, 2019). This sector has also been increasingly centralized by the
28 state, the process of which began in 2012, as ownership of hospitals was transferred from the
29 local governments to the central government. By 2017, previously independent management
30 and funding organizations were merged into the Ministry of Human Resources responsible for
31 health care. Public spending on health has stagnated in recent years at 5.2% of the GDP in
32 2009 and 4.7% in 2018 (Eurostat, 2020). Due to low public spending on the health care
33 system, people often choose private health care providers, there is a shortage of specialists in
34 public institutions, and primary care and prevention are often neglected (OECD, 2017;
35 European Commission, 2019b; GKI, 2019).
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39 Examining the specific target groups of the research, services for them are primarily provided
40 by state institutions, increasingly on the central level, with the role of local governments and
41 non-state organizations shrinking here as well. In terms of addict care we can talk about day
42 care, outpatient care and hospital care (Kovács *et al.*, 2018); as well as prevention,
43 intervention and rehabilitation services (Ács, 2013). Homeless care includes a variety of
44 different services, e.g. night shelter, temporary accommodation, public kitchen, day-time
45 warmer, homeless rehabilitation facility, street social work, homeless health centre, and
46 dispatcher service. People with intellectual and physical disabilities can access various basic
47 social and health services, such as support services, day care, specialized personal care
48 services (such as rehabilitation facilities or residential homes) and various cash benefits (e.g.
49 disability allowance, rehabilitation benefits, etc.) (Kajner and Jakubinyi, 2015). The services
50 available for these different disadvantaged groups are connected to both the health and social
51 sectors, e.g. it is the professional task of social institutions providing personal care for addicts,
52 people with disabilities and the homeless, to also provide health care for them (Szűcsné,
53 2015). Thus when social enterprises focusing on these target groups are examined, the
54 institutional environments of both the health and social sectors are analyzed.
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58 The public services available for the disadvantaged target groups also face several problems.
59 Addict care has been criticized for its outdated treatment methods, inflexibility of institutions,
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3 lack of funding and human resources, inadequate information provided to potential clients and
4 limited professional cooperation among organizations (Erdős *et al.*, 2018). Homeless care
5 currently is low-quality accommodation with fewer places available than necessary; and
6 homeless people are stigmatized and criminalized for sleeping on the streets. Furthermore,
7 there is no policy that would target the provision of housing for those who are already
8 homeless or are in the verge of becoming homeless, and a complex approach to solving the
9 problem, which would focus on the physical, mental, and relational effects of homelessness is
10 also lacking (Papp, 2014; Missetics, 2017). There is also a scarcity of social services for people
11 with disabilities especially in disadvantaged regions (Máté, 2017), and the employment rate of
12 people with disabilities is much lower than that of healthy people (Csillag *et al.*, 2016).
13 Services of the public welfare system do not meet the needs of the target groups fully, which
14 makes the emergence of grass-roots initiatives, among them social enterprises, important in
15 these areas.
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19 **Social enterprises in social and health services**

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21 The social enterprise sector is an emerging organizational field in Hungary as the concept has
22 only become well-known in recent years, and there is no uniform definition, separate legal
23 form or specific law yet (see G. Fekete *et al.*, 2017a; European Commission, 2019a; Kiss
24 2020 for more details). Though a new phenomenon, social enterprises can be connected to
25 certain already existing traditions that had paved the way, in particular the third sector and
26 civil society. When discussing the role of social enterprises in social and health services,
27 looking at the development of the third sector in these areas provides a more detailed picture.
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31 Third sector organizations have been involved in social and health care provision since the
32 regime change, when due mainly to the economic and social crisis of the early 1990s,
33 formerly latent social problems like poverty, unemployment, homelessness, drug addiction,
34 etc. came to surface, and the public welfare system did not offer enough help (Kuti, 2017;
35 Márkus and Szabó, 2015). The number and weight of third sector organizations grew
36 dynamically, in particular in the case of welfare service provision including social and health
37 care until 2010, when this growth stopped (Bényei *et al.*, 2007; HCSO, 2020). The legal
38 framework of third sector organizations quickly developed after the regime change, and a
39 general framework for outsourcing public welfare services to actors outside the public domain
40 was also established by the LXV Act of 1990 on Local Governments, which detailed the
41 compulsory and voluntary public tasks of local governments, and allowed for contracting out
42 services to non-profit organizations, church entities or for-profit companies (Kinyik and Vitál,
43 2005). However, services were often not outsourced to civil society organizations but to
44 close-to-state entities founded by public institutions, such as local governments (Kuti, 2008)
45 Thus though public funding for and the economic weight of the third sector increased,
46 organizations closer to the state were behind this growth since the 1990s, due in part to the
47 lack of resources of local governments, and the lack of the necessary trust and strategy (Bocz,
48 2009). Funding has also been more connected to short-term grants than long-term service
49 contracts and statutory support, while the amount of support was often not enough to sustain
50 operation (Bocz, 2009; Tóth *et al.*, 2011). Finally, at a policy level, a long-term,
51 comprehensive strategy for the third sector was not developed and influence of independent
52 organizations on policy making remained limited (Szalai and Svensson, 2018; Sebestény,
53 2016). Since 2010, new regulations and decreasing funding have made the autonomous
54 functioning of organizations more difficult, previously existing partnerships and forums were
55 eliminated (Kuti, 2017; Nagy, 2016; Szalai and Svensson, 2018). Opportunities for providing
56 services have also become more limited for grass-roots civil society organizations, as rather
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3 major churches, state-owned organizations have been preferred (USAID, 2017). At the same
4 time, institutional volunteering and private giving remained low, and citizens continued to
5 expect the state to provide welfare (Györi 2010). However, simultaneously, social enterprises
6 began to gain more attention.
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9 The concept of social enterprise was introduced in the second half of the 1990s in Hungary by
10 two international development organizations (Ashoka in 1995 and NESsT in 2001) (G. Fekete
11 *et al.*, 2017a; European Commission, 2019a). These organizations influenced the development
12 of the field in the beginning by providing small amounts of funding to a small number of
13 social enterprises or entrepreneurs, and also long-term professional assistance, which
14 primarily focused on improving certain business, marketing, evaluation and management
15 skills of social enterprises (Kiss, 2020).
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18 In the 2010s, the state also started expressing interest towards social enterprises, following the
19 priorities of the European Union. The main public resources were set out in the 2014-2020
20 Partnership Agreement, the first policy document directly dealing with social enterprises. In
21 2016, a funding mechanism was launched in the framework of the Economic Development
22 and Innovation Operational Programme (EDIOP) that provided grants and other instruments
23 (e.g. a loan). The purpose of the developments was mostly the work integration of
24 disadvantaged social groups, conforming to the EU narrative on job creation (G. Fekete *et al.*,
25 2017a; European Commission, 2019a). Thus the concept of social enterprise is understood in
26 a narrow sense in current public funding programs; the role of social enterprises in the welfare
27 system is not explored further in public policy measures (European Commission, 2019a).
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31 In recent years, several other actors have appeared in the SE field, new domestic and
32 international development and support organizations started programs, banks and financial
33 institutions became involved in funding. Advocacy organizations and networks are also
34 present, with one alliance of social enterprises specifically using the term, and directly aiming
35 at advocating for SE. Academic institutions, such as universities and research centres have
36 also appeared in the field with an increasing number of courses taught and researches carried
37 out (see European Commission, 2019a). Thus there are several actors engaging with social
38 enterprises, but these actors have less impact on the development of the field – in general and
39 in the social and health sectors specifically as well – than the international development
40 organizations, the EU and the state (Kiss 2020). In the following analysis, the characteristics
41 of these key actors as well as other important stakeholders identified by the social enterprises
42 in the case studies will be examined.
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45 **Interaction with key actors identified by practicing social enterprises**

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48 Social enterprises in the case studies were grass-roots initiatives created and operated by
49 members or relatives of the disadvantaged target group and/or connected professionals, thus
50 the contribution of these stakeholder groups to the SEs was of primary importance. Bettering
51 the situation of the given target group – addicts, people with physical disabilities, people with
52 intellectual disabilities and autism, and the homeless – appeared as the main reason for the
53 creation of the initiatives, and the main activities of the social enterprises focused on them as
54 beneficiaries, offering them services for free or lower price, employing them, or helping them
55 in other ways. The founders of social enterprises themselves were often connected to these
56 target groups (they were former addicts or homeless, or relatives of young people with
57 physical disabilities), who decided to launch the initiatives because of their negative
58 experiences with the state institutional system. In two cases, social professionals (social
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3 workers, social policy experts) related to the given problem were (also) founders who, based
4 on their professional experience gained during their previous work also wanted to remedy the
5 shortcomings of the existing institutions. Besides them, other employees also had similar
6 professional background.
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9 *“We created this service to dare to ask each other, dare to talk about a problem that affects*
10 *us.” (Interviewee 1)*
11

12 *“When I graduated from university and started to work as a social worker here, we started*
13 *thinking, and since then we have been constantly thinking about how to create some kind of*
14 *employment situation for people here, and then I decided to try this.” (Interviewee 6)*
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17 Though the SEs were initially volunteer-based grassroots initiatives, through discussing the
18 development of the social enterprises in the interviews, certain key actors influencing their
19 operation emerged. The key actor mentioned most often as impacting the SEs was the state,
20 more specifically at the central level. The central state mainly received criticism for posing
21 difficulties for the operation of the SEs, as the legal, policy and funding environment were
22 regarded the main obstacles to their functioning. Excessive regulation, inflexibility, and the
23 unfavourable development of the legal environment in recent years have often been
24 mentioned. At the policy level, there was an excessive centralization of services and a lack of
25 support for autonomous initiatives. In terms of funding, the low levels of statutory subsidies
26 and the higher levels of such subsidies of church organizations appeared to be a problem. In
27 addition, reductions or delays in state funding, anomalies in grant-based funding, and related
28 corruption were also mentioned, posing a major threat to the sustainability of organizations.
29 Compliance with the rules in force was almost impossible according to several interviewees,
30 making day-to-day operation and long-term planning difficult. Interaction between the central
31 state and practicing social enterprises was one-sided, as the influence of the social enterprises
32 on the state was limited. While all case studies reported a dependence on state funding, only
33 one social enterprise had activities specifically aimed at changing the institutional
34 environment, in which case the policy environment proved to be open to the given social
35 problem – disability. In this case, the result of many years of lobbying was the amendment of
36 legislation and the development of new types of support schemes.
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41 *“Everything is too centralized, the system is too regulated, which unfortunately often hampers*
42 *the use of innovative solutions in the field of healthcare.” (Interviewee 2)*
43

44 *“Over the last 20 years, legislation and funding has changed so many times that we could*
45 *differentiate specific periods.” (Interviewee 3)*
46
47

48 Besides the central state in general, specific local social and health institutions connected to
49 the social enterprises were also regarded important. In each case, the founders founded the
50 organization as a kind of innovative, more flexible response to certain social problems not
51 solved by the state institutional system, whether it was the rehabilitation of addicts; the social
52 integration of children with physical disabilities; housing, employment and independent living
53 for adults with intellectual disabilities; or providing the homeless with work and income.
54 However, though the shortcomings of the public social and health care system led to the
55 creation of the initiatives, most of the organizations had a close relationship with the public
56 institutions dealing with the target group. Two organizations provided social institutional care
57 (e.g. full-time rehabilitation care, residential care) themselves, thus they were already
58 embedded in the institutional structure of social and health services, and had ongoing
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3 partnerships with the local public social and health institutions. Two organizations did not
4 maintain a social institution. One of them was a separate legal entity connected to an
5 institution providing care to the target group. Here, the existence and support of the
6 institutional background during the establishment and operation of the SE was especially
7 important in the provision of both human resources and a location, where the market activities
8 of the SE could take place. The other organization sold products and services that promote the
9 social integration of their target group. It did not have a specific institutional background, but
10 its institutional relationships were also relevant primarily for the sale of its products / services.
11 Having connections and partnerships with local social and health institutions was crucial for
12 the sustainable operation of the social enterprises. However, their impact on these public
13 institutions was limited; only one interviewee mentioned that innovative methods used by the
14 SE spread as good practice in public institutions.
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17
18 *“If the institution hadn’t helped in the beginning, this whole thing couldn’t have come to*
19 *fruition.” (Interviewee 6)*
20

21
22 *“The Hungarian social welfare system is not structured the way that is in the theories of*
23 *social work...Here the main point is that the institution should survive.” (Interviewee 5)*
24

25 The role of local governments was also considered important by the interviewees. In the case
26 of organizations operating in the capital, the local government was a partner; in one case it
27 was considered the main contracting partner. However, in the case of organizations operating
28 in smaller cities, less long-term co-operation was reported, which clearly hindered the
29 sustainability of the organizations. Here the local government already had contracting partners
30 with no space for new entrants, or requested a political stance in exchange for support.
31

32
33 *“A political, financial commitment would be needed, and it could be linked to a better*
34 *reception at the local government.” (Interviewee 6)*
35

36 The role of the majority society as customers also came up in the interviews as the main
37 customers of two social enterprises were private individuals. The SEs also received volunteers
38 from the majority society, which was important as a tool to increase social inclusion and
39 connection. However, it was also mentioned that the attitude of society is characterized by the
40 low level of acceptance of social enterprises and autonomous organizations. In order to
41 promote a more effective role, it would be necessary to increase the willingness to cooperate
42 and reduce mistrust.
43
44

45
46 *“This is a rock-hard Hungarian reality, it is worth talking about it, if someone is successful,*
47 *the road leading to it, the work, the sacrifice, no one cares about that.” (Interviewee 3)*
48

49 Other actors mentioned in interviews but considered less relevant included for-profit
50 companies, social enterprise development organizations and networks. Corporate
51 relationships were less frequent and regarded less relevant for the sustainability of the SEs by
52 the interviewees. However, when selling products produced by the target group, customers in
53 two cases were small retailers, with whom organizations established long-term cooperation
54 and personal relationships. Co-operation with non-governmental organizations operating in a
55 similar professional field and specifically with social enterprises has mostly appeared, but it
56 was often unsuccessful and not profitable. At the same time, social enterprise development
57 organizations in three cases did not receive a good opinion, and only one organization had a
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3 positive experience. Among the basic problems, short-term development and the transfer of
4 unnecessary knowledge were mentioned.
5

6
7 *“I don’t consider the various development organizations to be a positive relationship,*
8 *because in many cases people, who have never worked in the non-profit sector, just want to*
9 *tell us what’s good.” (Interviewee 1)*

10
11 *“So networking can be a good thing and a love story, but you can also experience negativity*
12 *from partners.” (Interviewee 4)*
13

14 **Impact of the key actors on social enterprises**

15
16 The opportunities and barriers set by the key actors of the institutional environment greatly
17 impacted the operation of the social enterprises. They played a role in the choice of legal
18 form, the main activities, as well as the financial and human resources. Within the framework
19 determined by the key actors, the organizations developed the most favourable way of
20 operation they were able to.
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23
24 The legal forms decided on by the founders were considered to be the most suitable for
25 carrying out the planned activities and for obtaining the potential revenues required in the
26 specific time period the initiatives were created in, thus the state regulatory and funding
27 environment played the biggest role in this decision. In the case of organizations founded in
28 the 1990s, the legal form of foundation was the most fitting to provide social and health
29 services and receive statutory support for it. In the case of the newer organizations, the social
30 cooperative legal form was chosen due to a grant program supporting the creation of social
31 cooperatives, in another case a for-profit legal form was chosen in order to be more connected
32 to the private sector, and not to experience the problems typical to non-profit organizations
33 that were getting more severe in the 2010s. Throughout the years, the legal forms mostly did
34 not change. In the case of one foundation though, the start of entrepreneurial activities also
35 had an effect on the legal form, as in this case other organizations were established (additional
36 foundation, non-profit ltd.) due to the inflexibility of the legal environment, which did not
37 allow the diversification of services, including the start of their business activities, in the
38 original legal form.
39
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41
42 *“Then there were promises that every start-up cooperative would receive X million in*
43 *support.” (Interviewee 6)*
44

45
46 The main activities of social enterprises have often changed over the years. The organizations
47 started their operation with smaller services and products (for example, summer camp, job
48 placement, counselling service) not provided or provided in an inadequate manner by public
49 institutions. Older organizations reported a gradual increase and expansion from voluntary
50 activities to establishing social institutions providing residential care and day care. The start
51 of employing members of the target group also occurred due in part to available funding
52 sources. At the same time, some services were discontinued due to the lack of public funding,
53 withdrawal of local government support or change of the market environment. However, there
54 were interviewees, who also reported services provided for the disadvantaged target group
55 that were maintained despite not finding an external source of funding.
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3 *“The first goal was to create a home, and when the home started to take shape, we realized*
4 *that having a house over their heads and having something to eat does not matter, if they*
5 *don’t work and there is no employment.” (Interviewee 2)*
6

7
8 In terms of financial resources, the founders in most cases launched the initiatives by
9 investing their own capital, beside which in some cases, grants were applied for. In parallel
10 with the development of activities, the size and structure of revenues also changed, with
11 public funding - central statutory support, subsidies and grants - becoming the primary source
12 for older social enterprises, which, however, did not ensure sustainable operation in the long
13 run. In these cases, market and sales activities appeared as complementary activities to the
14 initial non-profit services, in order to alleviate the uncertainty of funding and promote
15 financial sustainability. Younger organizations, although set up specifically to generate
16 market revenue, also needed grants to ensure their operation. Currently, the total annual
17 revenue of organizations varies over a wide spectrum, from 1-2 million EUR revenues of the
18 foundations that maintain the social institutions to 10-40 thousand EUR revenues of the
19 smaller organizations. Sales revenue remained small for all organizations; the larger
20 organizations generate 10-20% of the annual revenue from sales, while in the case of smaller
21 organizations the total revenue is small. Other potential sources of funding, such as private or
22 corporate donations, are not decisive. Thus social enterprises providing health or social
23 services are mainly dependent on public funding sources, which they complement with
24 market sales revenues.
25
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28
29 *“The construction of this started pretty slowly step by step. There was a membership loan that*
30 *helped get started. Later, with the expansion of services, another dilemma arose that we*
31 *produce certain things, but where to sell it.” (Interviewee 5)*
32

33 The human resources of the organizations also changed in accordance with their financial
34 situation, from mostly volunteer work of the founders to full-time employees. The number of
35 people employed in the initiatives was very variable, ranging from hundreds to 1 registered
36 employee. Employing experts, however, often remained challenging even for the more
37 established organizations, as they could often only provide below-market pay or part-time
38 work. At the same time, to compensate for the financial aspect, social enterprises could take
39 advantage of certain characteristics that were attractive for potential employees, e.g. being
40 able to work for a social cause and implement their own ideas. Furthermore, at the level of
41 management, regardless of the legal form, taking into account the opinions of employees, and
42 direct contact with the target group were emphasized, which also helped the commitment of
43 employees.
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46
47 *“The fact that I would say about our colleagues is that they are overwhelmed, this may not be*
48 *a good word, but a person really does a lot of things, but I think it’s also a good thing for a*
49 *person who always likes to take on new tasks.” (Interviewee 4)*
50

51 **Conclusion**

52
53 The present paper examined the institutional environment and organizational activity of social
54 enterprises operating in the social and health sectors in Hungary focusing on certain
55 disadvantaged target groups – addicts, people with intellectual disabilities and autism, people
56 with physical disabilities and the homeless. It in particular looked at how certain key actors
57 that influence the social enterprise organizational field at a macro level have an impact on the
58 everyday micro level operation of practicing social enterprises, how these social enterprises
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3 connect to and interact with these actors. The research utilized neoinstitutional theory to
4 investigate this subject.
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7 Based on the findings, social enterprises in social and health services are mostly dependent on
8 the central state and public social and health institutions, while their contacts with local
9 governments, individual customers, networks, development organizations and the private
10 sector are less decisive. Thus the role of social enterprises in these areas is largely influenced
11 by the characteristics of the public welfare system, such as the traditionally privileged role of
12 the state in providing services and low levels of welfare spending, as well as current
13 centralization tendencies and focus on work integration. Looking at the development of the
14 social enterprises in the case studies, the characteristics of these key actors play a significant
15 role in the choice of legal forms, main activities, as well as financial and human resources,
16 and do not contribute to the long-term sustainability of the organizations. At the same time,
17 social enterprises have little ability to shape their institutional environment, thus their
18 operation remains determined by the existing opportunities and barriers of the social and
19 health sectors as well as the social enterprise organizational field in general.
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22
23 The research shows the characteristics of the social enterprise field in the social and health
24 sectors in a specific Central and Eastern European country. It helps understand the
25 opportunities and barriers of this type of initiative in the Hungarian welfare system, and
26 provides an opportunity for international comparison as well. However, limitations of the
27 research stem from its exploratory, qualitative nature; therefore, further research is necessary
28 for a more comprehensive view of the topics discussed.
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Table I. Characteristics of the social enterprises in the case studies

Beneficiary group	Activity for target group	Legal form	Founder/manager	Type of settlement and region	Interviewee
addicts	provision of services	foundation	member of target group or relative	capital (Central Hungary)	Interviewee 1
people with physical disabilities	provision of product	ltd	member of target group or relative	capital (Central Hungary)	Interviewee 2
people with intellectual disabilities and autism	employment and provision of services	non-profit ltd. and foundation	social professional	city (other region)	Interviewee 3 and 4
homeless	employment	social cooperative	social professional	city (other region)	Interviewee 5 and 6