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THE OUTSTANDING TECHNOLOGICAL BREAKTHROUGH AND THE TRIAD OF CLASSIC, SOCIAL AND PUBLIC ENTREPRENEURSHIP –

GROUNDS FOR A PROSPEROUS SOCIETY

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Abstract:
Against the background of the corona pandemic, economic, and geopolitical crises in the past years, the question of how to achieve a sustainable development recovery has become a critical issue for many organizations and governments. For this reason, in the context of a huge technological leap, our research approach aims to advance the discussion about the triad on which stable and prosperous societies must be laid, is made up of the three pillars: classic, social and public entrepreneurship. This conceptual paper proposes a theory that focuses on the connections and the complementarity of the three types of entrepreneurship. Using a comparative analysis, we adapted and extended the framework proposed by Austin et al. (2006); we started from their proposed four key variables to guide our analysis – mission, market failure, resource mobilization, performance measurement – and we added two other variables: knowledge and technology. We also used the triadic model as a background (Scarlat, 2017). Using the theoretical foundations we laid out, this paper develops a new understanding of social and public entrepreneurship. It also suggests areas for researchers to explore further and makes some practical recommendations for public and social entrepreneurs.

Key words: *classic entrepreneurship, social entrepreneurship, public entrepreneurship*

1. Introduction

It is axiomatic that strong entrepreneurship – that is, classic entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship that capitalizes on the opportunities regardless of the resources at its disposal – essentially determines the dynamism of a country's economy (Acs et al., 2008). However, it is increasingly obvious that the lack of entrepreneurial spirit and attitudes constitute considerable braking effects, often harmful, on the gradient of economic development (Cumming, 2007; Minniti, 2008; Colwell & Narayanan, 2010; Grigore & Dragan, 2015). This phenomenon is well-known, but perceived especially from an individual, non-conceptualized perspective: an obvious fact in countries emerging from a totalitarian regime.

It goes without saying that the lack of an entrepreneurial mentality (even one in an early, embryonic stage) in administration, inevitably leads to a "barrier type" bureaucracy, to the atomization of responsibility – ultimately to a huge waste of resources, and corruption (Dreher & Gassebner, 2013; Belitski et al., 2016; Chowdhury et al., 2019). Yet the same post-totalitarian systems that divided society, pushing collective mentalities towards an individualistic paradigm, for reasons that are easy to understand; in such a context, social initiatives are often regarded with mistrust, with the suspicion of actions pursuing an onerous goal, rather than as a collective good. Still, collective action has an enormous potential of changing the fabric of society, of capitalizing on unexpected material and human resources, of giving meaning to many lives, members of society, of all ages. The political landscape plays a critical role in shaping the functioning of organizations and the governance of nations (Wurth, et al., 2022; Kromidha et al., 2024).

Against the background of the corona pandemic, and economic and geopolitical crises in recent years, the challenge of fostering a fast and consistent recovery has become a strategic issue for many businesses (Ranjbari et al., 2021) and governments alike. For this reason, our research approach aims to advance the discussion about the triad on which a stable and prosperous society must rest: classic, social and public entrepreneurship.

Traditional, conventional capitalism – a system with unique measurable success criteria, namely the balance sheet, profit – is obsolete (Stiglitz, 2012). No doubt, historically speaking, it has the great merit of successfully concentrating capital that essentially made tremendous technological achievements possible, which, in turn, lead to very fast as well as unexpected progress of world-wide living standards. But progress inexorably causes change. While society moves forward, trying to keep pace with technology, humankind is confronted with new, serious challenges. To measure fulfilment and success solely in terms of material profit is no longer sufficient nor good enough.

Humankind massively borrowed from the planet (Attenborough, 2018). Everything has a price in life, now it is time to pay back. If not, we will be foreclosed. The burden of "sustainability" requires major changes across all levels of society. The democratic paradigm is put to the test, a hard and painful one. Not only by wars – economic and others – but also tension within society (Audretsch, 2024*).* The traditional economic engines are slowing down; this, in combination with unanticipated challenges and social demands, requires societies to do more with less (Audretsch, 2024*).* Do we have (new) resources for these increasing demands? Have we reached the point where the planet cannot provide anymore for everybody?

Over time, economists provided basically two answers to this dilemma: one has been the Malthus theory – the acceptance of the fact that at some point limited resources can no longer match the ever-growing necessities and demands; the second one, the approach and solution that Malthus ignored: innovation. If innovation is key to resolving society's economic, political, and social challenges, then entrepreneurship should be the engine of that innovation (Audretsch, 2024). We strongly feel that the only viable configuration in these times would be the active cooperation between the three forms of entrepreneurship.

The approach taken in this paper is conceptual; the theory put forth explains how the three types of entrepreneurship are interrelated and complementary. For our comparative analysis, we built on the framework developed by Austin et al. (2006) and extended their work. We also used the triadic model (Scarlat, 2017).

This research tackles new angles concerning social and public entrepreneurship and reveals opportunities for further discussion by researchers. It also offers practical guidance for public and social entrepreneurs, showing them how to operate more efficiently and professionally. The following section will present theoretical considerations about triadic model: classic, social and public entrepreneurship. We will then highlight key distinctions between classic versus social and public entrepreneurship, contributing to the theoretical understanding of these phenomena. At the end of this paper we will present a section with discussion and conclusions.

2. Theoretical considerations

2.1 The triadic model

The triad is a generous concept, encountered in several areas of knowledge and in social and political life: the republican triumvirate in Rome, the structure of some cristals; Etzkowitz's (2003; 2008) "triple helix" model, which integrates University, Industry, and Government, constitutes a foundational triad, paralleling Ohmae's (1985) concept of the global economic triangle formed by North America, Western Europe and East Asia. It is worth mentioning that outlining a triangular model – a synthesis of complex studies on economic and social phenomena – is in accord with the more general perspective of the matter structure itself. The scientific community usually considers a coincidence a statistical aberration; it is hard to believe that the fact that the most stable elements in the universe have a triangular symmetry would be a coincidence. This particular symmetry (the diamond, for instance) confers to those elements' outstanding qualities.

Triadic models thus have three interconnected elements. But we are not dealing with a simple set of three elements. Triadic models are systemic (they are parts of the same system), they must be synthetic (each component is relevant) and synergic at the same time. For this reason the holistic "triple S" approach, as defined by Scarlat (2017), provides a high-grade research fuel, offering a fine tool for the researcher but also for the entrepreneur and the manager. Triadic models differ by their nature, but they have a lot in common (Scarlat, 2017): the three components are conceptually well-defined and there are strong connections between the elements, whose "in-depth" analysis - every two of them at a time, provides valuable conclusions and better paths to follow; one may expect new types of connections that may lead to particular topics, not yet considered; to assembly a particular configuration of the triade elements is a new, different constract, which leads to the necessity of a hollistic approach, including the synergic aspects.

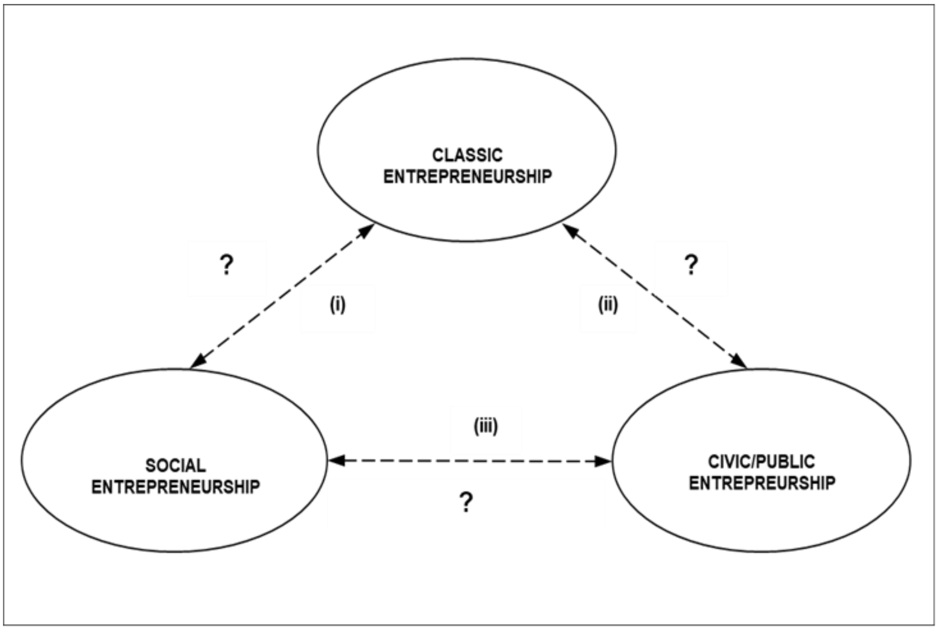

Figure 1

2.2 The parts of the triadic model

Beyond the specific functions highlighted by classical theorists – such as accepting risk (Cantillon, 1931), reallocating resources for areas with higher productivity (Say, 1964), or creating new technologies or new products through innovation (Schumpeter, 1942) – entrepreneurship is now recognized as a vital phenomenon in modern economies given its power to boost wealth, reshape existing organizations and institutions, and disrupt existing conditions (Maguire et al., 2004). As scholars like Glancey and McQuaid (2000) have noted, entrepreneurship can be viewed in several ways: as an economic function, a range of individual traits or a specific type of behaviour. From the last perspective, as a behavioural pattern, should not be applied only to those who start firms in the private sector, but could be extended and be relevant in all areas of human activity. For example, just like Schumpeter, Peter Drucker (1985) emphasizes the entrepreneur's role as a "revolutionary of the economy", who changes the usual norms of behaviour. But Drucker's entrepreneur is not only found in small enterprises, but can be found in large enterprises or in public administration as well, if he or she possesses the "entrepreneurial spirit" manifested through a specific behaviour (Drucker, 1985).

A final dimension for defining the "entrepreneur" comes from Stevenson (1983), characterizing them as someone who chases opportunities irrespective of the resources they presently possess. This implies an ability to either mobilize new resources or creatively combine existing ones to accomplish their aims.

By integrating all facets of entrepreneurship, scholars derived specific traits for social and public entrepreneurs respectively. According to Dees (1998), social entrepreneurs are change agents in the social sphere. They are committed to generating and sustaining social value, constantly seeking out and seizing new opportunities to fulfill this mission. Social entrepreneurs continuously innovate, adapt, and take bold action despite resource constraints, and have a strong sense of responsibility vis-a-vis their beneficiaries and the outcomes they achieve.

While also socially minded, *public entrepreneurs* distinguish themselves from social entrepreneurs by operating within a public or state capacity (Conway, 2018). Researchers like Osborne and Gaebler (1992) posit that public sector entrepreneurs primarily aim to fulfill their public organization's mission by making it more efficient in order to meet societal needs.

In this paper, we compare classic, social and public entrepreneurship, highlighting their shared and unique characteristics. Most previous studies have conducted comparative analyses just for two kinds of entrepreneurship (e.g. social entrepreneurship versus classic entrepreneurship (Austin et al., 2006); social entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial ecosystem (Roundy, 2017); or public entrepreneurship versus classic entrepreneurship (Klein et al., 2011; Hayter et al., 2018). Our comparative analysis builds on and extends Austin et al.'s (2006) framework. We began with their four proposed comparison variables—*market failure, mission, resource mobilization, and performance measurement*—and then incorporated two additional variables: *knowledge* and *technology.*

2.3 Enterprise mission

Classic entrepreneurship aims fundamentally to generate profit, otherwise it disappears in no time. While primarily driven by profit, classic entrepreneurship, through the creation of new goods, services, and employment opportunities, might also generate broader positive impacts beyond mere economic gain.

Social entrepreneurs primarily seek social fulfillment. This involves a type of entrepreneurship focused on generating "social value," which refers to large-scale benefits for society that are not yet recognized as positive externalities by society or government (Petrella & Richez-Battesti, 2014).

The public entrepreneur optimizes resources at hand and prioritizes the objectives to be reached in the community. At the same time, the mission of public organizations is often limited by a legal framework that affects flexibility and eventually the possibility to make strategic adjustments within the institution.

Our proposition is:
The targets and specifics of the intended mission will determine the distinctions between classic, social and public entrepreneurship.

2.4 Market failure / Solvent demand

The market is not interested in unprofitable or too risky goods. But some fields that are essential for the security and health of a nation cannot rely exclusively on the law of the market (health, education, social protection, etc.). Sometimes – more often than not – society as a whole is confronted with crises. In adverse times, a significant part of the population cannot cover the cost of essential goods. This is a fundamental opportunity for social entrepreneurship and even public entrepreneurship. Anokhin et al. (2023) suggest that environments with both government and market failures provide particularly favourable conditions for the emergence and growth of social entrepreneurship.

Our proposition is:
Market failures give rise to varied entrepreneurial opportunities across classic, social and public sectors. The shock created by nonlinear/political/war/terrorist events creates the necessary space and field of action for social and public entrepreneurship.

2.5 Performance measurement/achievements criteria

The three types of entrepreneurship have different criteria to assess their progress. Some can rely on tangible, quantifiable parameters to measure performance. Measuring the performance of a social entrepreneurs is inherently more challenging due to their social purpose, unlike commercial entrepreneurs who can depend on concrete financial indicators, market share, customer satisfaction, and quality as metrics. For the evaluation of its performance public institutions cannot rely on such excellent indicators like, for instance, profit. The manager of a public entity does not have a direct relation with the market; these types of institutions have to build their own specific achievement criteria.

There have been several efforts (e.g. Rawhouser et al., 2019) to assess and measure social impact. Balsiger (2021) emphasizes the importance of examining the diverse relationships and nature of social impact measurements across various providers, such as social entrepreneurs, NGOs and governments. To ensure that an intervention's positive social impact truly justifies its costs, it's crucial to scrutinize its long-term impact (Yan et al., 2023).

Our proposition is:
Measuring social and civic impact will continue to be a core differentiator, making accountability and stakeholder relations more complex. The need to measure – by more sophisticated and responsible methods – the social impact of actions is acute.

2.6 Resource mobilization/availability of necessary funding and skilled personnel

Social entrepreneurs don’t have access to the regular resources of the commercial market; credit from financial institutions is out of the question. Social ventures face a critical human resource challenge, largely due to their operational limits and financial instability. These factors combined hinder their ability to adequately compensate staff, putting them at a disadvantage compared to commercial organizations (Elbers & Grigore, 2022). In that case the motivation of human resources is different in its nature.

Public institutions have more space to maneuver, but often face rigidity due to many regulations and the hierarchical system.

Our proposition is:
Access and management of human and financial resources differ essentially from one type of venture to another with clear distinctions between them.

2.7 Knowledge and technology

The spectacular, exponential evolution of technology and knowledge as we witnessed in the last decades generated essential qualitative and structural changes of the three types of enterprise. In the commercial sector this evolution leads to an unprecedented accumulation and concentration of capital. That, combined with more flexible legislation, opened new avenues for commercial capital to flow into social ventures.

Rapid technological advancements, largely driven by private initiatives, have significantly improved the visibility and efficiency of social endeavors, while also enhancing the operations of public institutions. Digitized knowledge, eventually structured with the help of the strong tools of AI, creates a vast space – a virtual space because it is outside the physical space we live in – but not less practical, a new dimension where all the players of human society are crossing each other, be they organizations or individuals (Bauer et al., 2025).

Knowledge, as a first-class raw material, modifies the behaviour of entrepreneurs and somehow unifies them in terms of goals and strategies. These tools provided by IT deliver quicker access to capitalize on opportunities at hand and also significantly cut costs.

Our proposition is:
Different types of technology impact types of human activity (organizations) differently.

While not comprehensive, these five hypotheses and assumptions offer a foundational theoretical frame to guide our upcoming comparative analysis.

In the next section we also built on the framework by Austin et al. (2006). Their analysis drew upon Sahlman's (1996) model. This model is valuable because it identifies the key considerations for classic entrepreneurship, making it an excellent starting point for constructing a framework applicable to social and public entrepreneurship. Sahlman's model stresses the importance of dynamically aligning four interrelated components: people, the context, the deal, and the opportunity (PCDO) (Sahlman, 1996).

Starting from these components and the propositions above, next we compare the three types of entrepreneurship taking them in pairs of two.

3. Comparing the triad elements

3.1 Classic and social entrepreneurship

While a classic entrepreneur might forge entirely new industries, a social entrepreneur focuses on developing and implementing innovative, large-scale solutions to social problems (Baporikar, 2000). Whereas classic entrepreneurs are trying to survive the competition and are focussing on competitive relationships, social entrepreneurs are cooperating to develop their enterprises in a more sustainable and competitive manner (Kickul & Thomas, 2012). Social entrepreneurs distinguish themselves from other entrepreneurs through their inherent social conscience, their main objective being the creation of long-lasting social change, this impulse being based on personal experiences regarding injustice, lack of humanity or inequality (Ashton, 2010). Despite social entrepreneurs' aspirations for radical change, some scholars argue that true systemic change is seldom achieved (Teasdale et al., 2023).

Still, the border between classic and social entrepreneurship is often blurred: classic entrepreneurs can generate social value while pursuing profit, just as social entrepreneurs can create profit while fulfilling their mission to produce social value (Certo and Miller, 2008). In recent years, social entrepreneurship has manifested itself as an impactful phenomenon in the world (Balsiger, 2021; Su et al., 2022).

Opportunity is what every entrepreneur (or an executive with entrepreneurial spirit) hopes to find and capitalize upon in order to optimally harness the resources at the time. Of course, the opportunities traditional entrepreneurs seek are different in their nature compared to those that the social entrepreneur is looking for. There are more opportunities in the social sector, the demand often significantly surpasses the ability of social enterprises to adequately address the needs (Austin et al., 2006). They have quite different missions, philosophies and organizational cultures.

According to Dees (1998), social entrepreneurs are those driven by a social *mission*. However, the "social value" created by this mission is difficult to quantify using standard *market* mechanisms. Some researchers, like Martin and Osberg (2007), argue that the core difference between classic entrepreneurship and social entrepreneurship is found in their *value proposition*. For social entrepreneurs, this proposition doesn't require market payment but instead focuses on "addressing problems involving neglected positive externalities for society" (Santos, 2010: 23).

Oftentimes, the quality and availability of *human resources* makes the difference between success and failure in almost every field of human activity, either profit-oriented or social. Every organization competes for a competent and reliable workforce. The financial instability prevalent among most nongovernmental organizations directly contributes to one of their most significant hurdles: securing and maintaining adequate human resources (European Union Agency for Fundamental Rights, 2017).

Unfortunately for social entrepreneurship, it cannot offer the kind of rewards for staff as the classic entrepreneur. Thus social entrepreneurs should use other approaches: recruit dedicated people; volunteers with a certain material independence; sharing valuable human resources part-time with other organizations. The diverse aspirations and time horizons of people involved in social entrepreneurship directly affect both the operational processes and the ultimate outcomes of these initiatives (Teasdale et al., 2023).

A *deal* should be one of mutual satisfaction. All the actors involved should get what they bargained for. The "contract" should fulfil the legitimate expectations of resource suppliers, for the entrepreneurs and for the public (the end-user) (Austin et al., 2006). For the classic entrepreneur, these things are usually simpler, linear in essence: he or she knows the product, the market, the suppliers, the resources needed and established routine to access them. For social entrepreneurs things are more complex, especially because they cannot control or foresee when they will get the necessary resources.

The *context* – the external factors that the players cannot control – has considerable impact on the organization, either commercial or social, of course in a considerably different manner and intensity (Welter, 2011). The environment influences in major ways the essential elements for an entrepreneur: opportunities, access to resources, availability of an educated workforce, access to technology and infrastructure (Thornton et al., 2012). The players who ignore the constraints of the context will be eliminated from the game, sooner or later. Many of the contextual elements (e.g. diversity of investors, infrastructure, support networks from organizations like incubators and accelerators) that affect traditional entrepreneurs also likely influence social entrepreneurs (Roundy, 2018).

The tremendous progress of *technology* has led to new paradigms, drastic changes in the strategy of organizations. For social entrepreneurs that means a rather welcome opportunity – to vastly extend its presence in the media, implicitly attracting the kind of resources they wouldn't have been dreamt of 10 to 20 years ago.

3.2. Classic and public entrepreneurship

The entrepreneur is frequently viewed as a heroic figure within the private sector. Entrepreneurship in the public sector, however, is a process based on teamwork and collaboration, it is essentially a collaborative leadership. As Klein et al. (2011) noticed, public entrepreneurship complements, rather than replaces, private entrepreneurship, helping to capitalize on social opportunities through a unique blend of public and private resources.

Public entrepreneurship is about entrepreneurial behaviour and approach in the public sector. Public entrepreneurs are thus inclined to achieve their objectives efficiently, not just effectively. Ultimately, the goal of public entrepreneurship is to improve the services provided by public institutions (Mupeta et al., 2020).

The issue in public entrepreneurship is the degree of risk which is acceptable (Burns, 2011). Innovation is obviously necessary and welcome. Public organizations navigate a complex environment, constantly balancing new demands, essential service delivery, and tight budgets. Entrepreneurship offers a strong way for public servants to tackle these challenges, allowing them to pursue innovative initiatives that generate public value (Vivona et al., 2025).

Assuming the conceptual frame offered by the proposed criteria (Austin et al., 2006) to make a parallel between commercial and the public sector, we may define some relevant similarities and differences concerning these two essential fields of human activity.

Both public and private sector entrepreneurs identify and then act upon unexploited *opportunities* (Hayter et al., 2018). It seems that theoretically, we have similarities. For instance, both enterprises need human resources of a certain quality and financial resources to fulfil their projects.

But resemblances stop here; they operate in fundamentally different arenas and pursue distinct objectives (Conway, 2018).

The two types of entrepreneurship have clearly different *missions*, often antagonistic, therefore they are looking for different opportunities. For example, the fiscal politics of public institutions that are entitled to reduced taxes and duties, and the continuous endeavour of the private sector to find ways to lessen or avoid excessive taxation from authorities.

In terms of *value proposition,* public sector entrepreneurship can create both social and economic benefits (Hayter et al., 2018).

These two entities also compete for human resources. The quality and availability of *human resources* decisively influences the odds of success of any entreprise be it for commercial profit or to fulfil projects dedicated to the society as a whole or of regional or local importance (Jašková & Havierniková, 2020). Differences appear beginning with the recruitment phase. The private manager knows exactly what categories of employees he or she needs and eventually makes an extra effort to offer market salaries. On a regular basis, the public manager cannot do that. The market has a tendency to generously reward competence, while bureaucracy is constrained by objective and often subjective limits.

To conclude, public institutions are confronted with serious constraints in their efforts to find the proper human resources when needed; in order to overcome the limited access to top competences, the formal financial limits, a bureaucratic rigidity that limits its strategic and tactic flexibility, it has to press legislation to allow more autonomy and risk-taking.

However, the public sector also has many employees with the attitude and the skill set necessary for an entrepreneur, who can develop a vision of increasing the quality of public services, generating original ideas as well as the ability of finding the right partners to propose innovative solutions to solve local problems. Public entrepreneurs can manifest themselves in the public sector, regardless of the hierarchic level, in all kinds of organizations – large or small, local or national (Leadbeater & Goss, 1999).

Deals. The contractual bonds between the entrepreneur – either private or public – and the resource providers, on one side, and the end-user on the other, should of course be of mutual benefit. Both players target a positive output. Yet due to the different ways and mechanisms to access resources, and mainly the ambiguities to assess performance in the public sector, contractual relations are (by their nature) quite different. The contracts state who? what? when? how much? That is classic, natural in the commercial sector. Within public institutions, it is more delicate. First, there is a strong impulse to atomize accountability, deeply embedded in the culture of public institutions with as upside that this complicates things when looking for a “scape goat” when things go wrong. Also, the expected final results are often formulated in an ambiguous way, to make their quantification derisory or futile. Also, the schedule and the time limits have a certain degree of “flexibility”.

The relations with the end-user, the public consumer of goods and services, are fundamentally different. While the classic entrepreneur is sanctioned in real time – because the customer is protected by laws and institutions – public staff is rarely subject to sanctions, eventually paying a political price. Basically, the measurement units of the parameters of the specific “product” are different at the extreme: for one the profit is the main indicator while for the other it is the perception and the satisfaction of the public, only eventually with voting inferences.

The key differentiator between public entrepreneurship and traditional entrepreneurship is the specific *context* in which it emerges and evolves (Hayter et al., 2018). The legal environment is relevant for both. The manager should know all the specificities of the law especially concerning their particular activity.

The two types of entrepreneurs compete for different things: the commercial entreprises for resources, market share, most gifted employees, while public institutions compete for government funding, political attention and in some measure for specialists.

The ups and downs of the economy and of the socio-political climate affect both. In harsh economic times they respond very differently. The classic entrepreneur usually contracts and the public expands to compensate the fundamental needs of society, despite scarce resources. Of course, private entrepreneurs may try to transform a crisis into an opportunity. In such times, both players are confronted with serious issues, challenges that may cause dramatic structural changes.

Last, but not the least, the tremendous impact the explosive advance of *technology* has on society as a whole. For entrepreneurs they provide new unexpected opportunities: new industries (with unprecedented concentration of capital), new environmentally friendly products (electric cars, alternative sources of energy), medical devices, robots, biotechnology (vaccines, new varieties of plants). For public institutions, the impact of digitization of processes and databases – offer a huge opportunity to simplify bureaucracy, the relations with the population (treasury and administration). This will lead to a massive economy of time and resources – human and material.

3.3. Social and public entrepreneurship

Both social and public entrepreneurs strive for positive societal impact, but they differ in their main focus and operational context. Most governments are basically preoccupied by eternally limited budgets…and politics. From this perspective, they should encourage any initiatives by social entrepreneurs to build suitable interactions with the social environment, its needs and challenges as they appear incessantly (United Nations, 2021).

Innovation is vital, but minds bound by political and budgetary concerns often find themselves unable to freely innovate for the benefit of the public. Governments must respond to the pressures of allocating revenues to the pressing needs of society, and in many cases spectacular solutions have been found. Social entrepreneurs won't replace executives, but social entrepreneurship is uniquely positioned to help official institutions address social needs more promptly. Specifically, they can help governance in two fundamental directions: (1) the fine-tuning of public and private resources, and (2) creating, testing and developing solutions (Wolk, 2007).

We are not talking about what the social entrepreneurs can do instead of the government – they basically create channels of communication and action for the authorities. Social entrepreneurs can do things that the government cannot – they take risks, they are closer to the people in need of assistance. Governments can offer support for distinct social entrepreneurship initiatives via the following approaches: by encouraging the social innovation; by creating a favourable environment for social entrepreneurial initiatives; by developing criteria for measuring the success of such initiatives; by rewarding performance; by encouraging research that can increase the quality of such entrepreneurial efforts (Wolk, 2007).

Where there is a gap, there are pressures to fill it and social entrepreneurship can be the catalyst. In a study realized in the USA, Anokhin et al. (2023) conclude that when formal institutions fail to address critical social issues, entrepreneurial individuals will be driven to establish new social ventures to tackle these problems independently. May we thus speak about the possibility and capacity of social entrepreneurs to create added value? Certainly. Social entrepreneurs create jobs and take over some of the financial burdens of the government by building hospitals, schools for less fortunate citizens, helping in disaster areas, etc. In the long run, they optimize the spending of considerable sums of money that are usually provided by donors from various social strata (Leadbeater, 1997).

While technological inventions and innovations are deployed *en masse* by companies at scale level, social entrepreneurs provide ideas and answers for particular problems of the community that public institutions could use at no cost but with much benefit. As Leadbeater (1997) underlined, just as technology transfer schemes are vital in business, social innovation transfer schemes are essential in the welfare sector. The public sector is bureaucratic by nature, it needs basically external incentives for new ways and dimensions to perform better.

Social issues and fears are generated continuously, primarily by breathtaking technological developments. Social entrepreneurship has the potential to solve these social problems by establishing new public policies that can forecast future challenges and reconfigure investment priorities (e.g., education, infrastructure, demographics), as suggested by Petralla and Richez-Batestti (2014).

And social entrepreneurship has the sacred mission to assist civil society to fight corruption that occurs inevitably alongside bureaucracy.

4. Discussion

A scientific conceptual approach often requires scholars to distil topics to their essence, setting aside secondary and tertiary effects. But in the real-world things are, of course, not that simple – the relationships between entities and players inherently are complex and constantly evolving. Therefore, a synergic coexistence of the three pillars we bring in focus is often challenging. However, social and public entrepreneurship can benefit from the innovation, techniques for identifying opportunities and efficiency principles of classic entrepreneurship (Austin, 2006; Smith et al., 2014; Olughor, 2024). In fact, each type of entrepreneurship can benefit from the experience in innovation and good practices of the others. Sharing knowledge between them can lead to more holistic and impactful solutions.

Collaboration is possible through intermediary actors, for the collective good. Public and private sectors can collaborate to address social issues, with social entrepreneurs (Diaz-Sarachaga & Ariza-Montes, 2022). In advanced societies, often the borders of these systems intermingle, leading organizations to embrace hybrid models that combine elements for profit and not-for-profit approaches (Jones, 2024).

While the three forms of entrepreneurship – classic, social, and public – share the core aims of value creation and initiating change, they differ in their main goals and methods (Kearney et al., 2009; Petralla & Richez-Batestti, 2014; Vivona et al., 2025).

Excepting the obvious common interest, the welfare and progress of society as a whole – an abstract and more like a moral interest, we may say – most of the specific strategic vectors are rather different. Particularly short and medium-term objectives are basically different. Not to mention that the criteria and methods to measure performance are different in their nature. Human resources of each system – mentalities, motivation, professional background – are different

In short, down to practical implications, to make the machinery work as smoothly as possible, we need policies. Governments can foster social and public entrepreneurship through supportive policies and funding mechanisms (Chandra et al., 2021). Through education – business schools could integrate social and public value creation into their curricula to cultivate a new generation of entrepreneurs with a broader perspective; identification of resources - increasing the understanding of the motivations of different stakeholders (private, public, philanthropic) is essential for mobilizing resources effectively (Austin, 2006; Diaz-Sarachaga & Ariza-Monte (2022). And sound measurement methods for proper feedback.

Future research on the matter should concentrate on a better understanding of different forms of entrepreneurship in their particular environment and overall context. And not the least, identifying future economic and societal challenges is of primary importance.

5. Conclusions

This exploration – based on our initial theoretical propositions and modified analytical framework – offers researchers numerous avenues for further study. It has also practical implications for public and social entrepreneurs on how to approach entrepreneurial activity, attitude and behaviour in a more professional and efficient way.

The environment has a turbulent nonlinear evolution and every organization, either commercial, social or public must adapt in real time. As we see it, the “mutual interests” strategy and tactics should encourage the three pillars to understanding each other better to cooperate. Adverse ideologies must be put aside in order to combine the ability to capitalize on resources at hand and create added value, with a judicious mechanism of control and redistribution.

We strongly feel that the only viable configuration in these times would be the active cooperation between the three forms of entrepreneurship: classic, social and public.

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