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GENERAL ECONOMIC THEORY OF STRATEGIZING: BASIC AXIOM OF ACTIVITY AND KEY CONCEPTS

In conditions of significant changes in economic relations and increasing uncertainty caused by the transformation of the current globalization model, the demand for adequate economic theory grows. Strategizing, as an approach to managing uncertainty, is regularly used by various actors – from individuals to states and international organizations. The general economic theory of strategizing (GETS) is intended to fill the gap in the mutual influence of economic theory and strategizing.

On the one hand, by generalizing the developments of leading schools of economic theory, and on the other, by overcoming methodological individualism (L. Mises) with the dialectical method (G. Hegel), the basic axiom of activity (BAA) is formulated: "Individuals and organizations act in an institutional environment". From the BAA follows the corollary about the purposeful activity of actors. Based on the BAA, key economic concepts such as profit, loss, means, capital, demand, supply, production, exchange, market, cost, good, value are revealed, and economics is defined as the science studying the relationship between goals and means.

From the positions of GETS, the article presents four schemes of economic dynamics describing simple and expanded reproduction, as well as crisis of the first type (identification of goals with capital) and crisis of the second type (system crisis of compression of goals and capital), as well as demarcation of goal-oriented and strategic activity, wherein the strategic goal is defined as a reflected desired result, integrated into a strategy. Strategizing, as a process of forming and actualizing strategy, represents reflected goal setting.

In the context of GETS, the concepts of "subject" and "object" are rethought: the subject is an actor having a strategy and means for its realization, and the object is an actor realizing the subject's strategy, thereby being a means of achieving another's goal. This allows redefining economics as the science studying relationships between subjects and objects. In the concluding part of the article, definitions are given for feudalism, capitalism and communism as economic systems characterized by dominant objectness, and for strategiararchy as a system characterized by dominant subjectness.

Key words: general economic theory of strategizing, GETS, economic theory, dialectical method, strategiararchy, Hegel, Mises.

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ЗАГАЛЬНА ЕКОНОМІЧНА ТЕОРІЯ СТРАТЕГУВАННЯ: БАЗОВА АКсіОМА ДІЯЛЬНОСТІ ТА КЛЮЧОВІ ПОНЯТТЯ

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В умовах значних змін в економічних відносинах та зростаючої невизначеності, спричиненої трансформацією поточної моделі глобалізації, зростає попит на адекватну економічну теорію. Стратегування, як підхід до управління невизначеністю, регулярно застосовується різними акторами – від індивідів до держав та міжнародних організацій. Загальна економічна теорія стратегування (ЗЕТС) покликана заповнити прогалину у взаємному впливі економічної теорії та стратегування. Тому метою статті є обґрунтування базисної аксіоми діяльності та ключових економічних понять з позицій стратегування.

Шляхом узагальнення напрацювань провідних шкіл економічної теорії та подолання методологічного індивідуалізму (Л. Мізес) діалектичним методом (Г. Гегель), сформульовано базисну аксіому діяльності (БАД): "Індивіди та організації діють в інституційному середовищі". З БАД випливає наслідок про цілеспрямовану діяльність акторів. На основі БАД розкрито ключові економічні концепти, такі як прибуток, збиток, засоби, капітал, попит, пропозиція, виробництво, обмін, ринок, вартість, благо, цінність, а економіка визначається як наука, що вивчає взаємозв'язок між цілями та засобами.

З позицій ЗЕТС у статті представлено чотири схеми економічної динаміки, що описують просте та розширене відтворення, а також кризу першого типу (отожнення цілей з капіталом) та кризу другого типу (системна криза стиснення цілей та капіталу), а також проведено розмежування цілеспрямованої та стратегічної діяльності. Стратегічна ціль визначається як відрефлексований бажаний результат, інтегрований у стратегію. Стратегування, як процес формування та актуалізації стратегії, являє собою відрефлексоване цілепокладання.

У контексті ЗЕТС переосмислено концепти "суб'єкт" і "об'єкт": суб'єкт – це актор, який має стратегію та засоби для її реалізації, а об'єкт – це актор, який реалізує стратегію суб'єкта, тим самим будучи засобом досягнення чужої цілі. Це дозволяє перевизначити економіку як науку, що вивчає взаємовідносини між суб'єктами та об'єктами. У завершальній частині статті наведено визначення феодалізму, капіталізму та комунізму як економічних систем, що характеризуються домінуючою об'єктністю, а також стратегіархії як системи, що характеризується домінуючою суб'єктністю.

Ключові слова: загальна економічна теорія стратегування, ЗЕТС, економічна теорія, діалектичний метод, стратегіархія, Гегель, Мізес.

Economic theory is the basis for forming adequate economic policy. However, the demand for economic theory increases when society is unable to explain economic processes with simple common sense, especially with significant changes in economic relations (Mazaraki & Lahutin, 2020, p.6). The current period can be considered pivotal in many ways, when the current globalization model undergoes significant changes and increases the degree of uncertainty.

One of the approaches to working with uncertainty is strategizing. Strategies are regularly developed and implemented by individuals, commercial and non-commercial companies, states, international organizations. However, a number of questions concerning the subject of development and implementation of strategy, interaction of strategies of different subjects, universality and institutionalization of strategizing, remain without proper theoretical justification,

which determines difficulties in the plane of practical application of strategizing. For example, in Ukraine, dozens of strategies are adopted at the state level every year, which on the one hand are not coordinated with each other, and on the other – in them the subject of their implementation remains undefined, which leads to the absence of the practical result declared in the strategies.

The solution of urgent practical problems of strategizing is possible through its scientific comprehension from the positions of economic theory.

Analysis of Recent Research

Issues related to strategizing are a major focus in academic discourse. As A. Grytsenko points out, "the world has entered a period of instability, which will significantly shape how economic players act and will require new strategies for survival and development" (Grytsenko, 2022, p.39). However, creating new strategies often means we have to understand and rethink the nature and purpose of strategizing itself. For example, without a system for strategic planning, the government ends up dealing with daily issues on a case-by-case, "manual control" basis. This makes it impossible to predict what the government's actions will lead to and stops it from focusing on the state's long-term development goals (Humenyuk, 2023, p.50).

Research by O. Iastremska (Iastremska, 2024, p.95) shows that the Scopus and Web of Science databases have hundreds of thousands of recent publications on this topic. She also notes that the term "strategizing" still lacks a clear, single definition, but it is moving toward becoming a formal scientific category for studying complex social and economic systems (Iastremska, 2023, p.171).

An interesting view comes from Scandinavian scholars (Asmussen *et al.*, 2020; Asmussen & Foss, 2022), who separate strategy into two types: "economizing" (or, efficiency) and "strategizing" (or, market power) (Asmussen & Foss, 2022, p. 580). From the perspective of this paper, separating "strategizing" and "economizing" is unnecessary. Instead, "economizing" should be seen as just one part of "strategizing", a point we will show later.

Another Scandinavian scholar, L. Carlsson, looks at how strategizing connects with modern digital technology (Carlsson, 2023). He stresses that our ability to strategize depends on understanding the social and thinking-related aspects (technological frames), meaning that digitalization is not just a technology change but a social process, too.

This research confirms how important it is to study the economic core of strategizing. One way to expand this scientific understanding is through economic theory combined with the dialectical method (Chukhno, 2006). Yet, it must be remembered that the main tenets of leading economic schools, both generally and specifically regarding strategizing, remain contradictory.

There have been many attempts to merge different economic theories. A classic example is the Neoclassical Synthesis, which somewhat combines Neoclassical ideas (market balance, rational agents) with Keynesian thinking (overall demand, government intervention, stabilizing the macro-economy). This tried to blend micro- and macroeconomics. Similarly, Evolutionary Economics attempts to combine Schumpeterian theory (creative destruction, innovation) and Institutionalism (the role of rules and organizations) with parts of

Neoclassicism (rationality) and Behaviorism (limited rationality, mental shortcuts). Even (Neo)Institutionalism can be seen as combining well-known economic schools around the universal idea of the "institution".

Therefore, the problem of the mutual influence of economic theory and strategizing remains unsolved. Consequently, it is still necessary to establish the foundations of a general economic theory of strategizing (hereinafter, GETS). Therefore, **the aim of this article** is to substantiate the basic axiom of activity and the key economic concepts from the perspective of strategizing.

This research will follow these steps: (1) identifying the actor of activity from the viewpoint of leading economic schools; (2) formulating the Basic Axiom of Activity; (3) explaining the concepts corresponding to the Basic Axiom of Activity; (4) describing the general frameworks of economic dynamics; (5) separating goal-directed activity from strategic activity; (6) distinguishing between the subject and the object; (7) describing how society develops from the viewpoint of the GETS.

Subject of Activity According to Leading Schools of Economic Theory

Strategizing always involves the presence of a subject responsible for developing and implementing a strategy. However, different schools of economic theory hold varying views on who qualifies as the subject of economic processes.

In this study, following the approach outlined by Cambridge economist Ha-Joon Chang in his work "*Economics: The User's Guide*" (Chang, 2014), the leading schools of economic theory include: classical, neoclassical, Marxist, Austrian, institutional, Schumpeterian, Keynesian, and behavioral schools.

As shown by the systematization of the positions of these economic schools (Table), most identify the individual as the primary acting subject. This view is predominantly held by the classical, neoclassical, Austrian, institutional, Schumpeterian, and behavioral schools. Marxism, along with the classical school, considers the class as the primary acting subject. A significant role as an acting subject is also assigned to the organization (firm) in the neoclassical, institutional, and Keynesian schools of economic theory. Institutionalism separately highlights an evolving entity, the evolving institution, as an acting subject.

It is clear that "individualistic" schools of economic theory do not deny the existence or analytical value of categories such as the class, the state, the firm, and similar concepts. On the other hand, "collectivist" schools do not deny the existence of the individual or their role in economic activity.

In any case, it is possible to identify four basic theses:

- Individuals exist as subjects of activity;
- Organizations exist as subjects of activity;
- Classes exist as subjects of activity;
- Institutions exist as subjects of activity.

Table

Subject and Goals of Activity from the Perspectives of Leading Schools of Economic Theory

| School | Economy consists of ² | Primary Acting Subject | Goal of Activity |
|-----------------------|------------------------------------|---|--|
| Classical (1770s) | Class (capitalists, wage workers) | 1. Rational individuals based on class membership. 2. Class. | 1.1 The goal of capitalists is to maximize profit. 1.2 The goal of landowners is to maximize rent. 1.3 The goal of workers is to maximize wages. 2. The goal of each class is to maximize its share of the national income. |
| Marxist (1850s) | Class (capitalists, wage workers). | 1. Antagonistic classes, whose struggle drives economic and historical development. | 1.1 The goal of capitalists is to maximize profit and accumulate capital through exploiting wage labor and appropriating surplus value. 1.2 The goal of the proletariat is to transform capitalism into a classless society. |
| Neoclassical (1870s) | Individuals, firms | 1. Rational, self-interested individuals through market mechanisms. 2. Firms. | 1. The goal of individuals (consumers) is to maximize their utility (satisfaction) from consuming goods and services. 2. The goal of firms is to maximize profit. |
| Austrian (1870s) | Individuals | 1. Individuals. | 1. The goal of individuals is to reduce unease or dissatisfaction. |
| Institutional (1890s) | Individuals, institutions | 1. Individuals within current institutes (rules of the game). 2. Organizations within current institutes (rules of the game). 3. Institutes as evolving entities. | 1. The goal of individuals is to achieve their interests within existing rules, norms, and institutions, which evolve. 2. The goal of organizations is to adapt and survive in a complex, evolving institutional environment, not just abstract optimization (e.g., profit maximization). 3. The goal of institutions is to lower transaction costs and establish "rules of the game" that improve interaction among actors. |
| Schumpeterian (1910s) | Individuals (entrepreneurs) | 1. Individuals (entrepreneurs). | 1. The goal of entrepreneurs is to earn monopoly profit through innovation before competitors copy it. |
| Keynesian (1930s) | State | 1. State through its bodies (government, central bank, etc.). | 1. The state has the goal to manage aggregate demand using fiscal and monetary poli- |

² Analytical unit; object of analysis

| School | Economy consists of ² | Primary Acting Subject | Goal of Activity |
|--------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------------------|---|
| | | 2. Firms. 3. Households. | cies to achieve full employment and growth. 2. Private agents (firms and households) also have the goal to maximize their profit and utility, but their actions can be adjusted by state policy. |
| Behavioral (1950s) | Individual | 1. Limitedly rational individuals. | 1. Individuals have the goal of "satisficing" (achieving satisfactory outcomes) to meet their needs. |

It is easy to demonstrate that each of these four positions implies the existence of the other three. It is impossible to think of individuals in isolation from organizations and the rules governing their interaction. Similarly, organizations cannot exist without individuals and the rules of interaction, both among themselves and with individuals. The activity of a class is carried out through economic and political organizations acting on its behalf.

Basic Axiom of Activity

By summarizing the findings of leading schools of economic theory (Table), we can formulate a basic axiom: "**Individuals and organizations act within an institutional environment**" or "Actors act within an institutional environment", where actors are defined as either individuals or organizations (organized groups of individuals). This basic axiom of activity (hereinafter BAA) expands the classical position of the Austrian school, which limits the subject to only "human action", by including the acting organization and considering the dynamic institutional environment.

From a dialectical perspective (Hegel, 2010), the basic axiom of activity reveals the following thought progression: the singular (the acting individual), the particular (the acting organization), and the universal (the acting institution relative to individuals and organizations). Viewing individual activity as a thesis and collective activity (within an organization) as an antithesis (wherein individual activity is negated but preserved within the organization), we arrive at an institutional synthesis. This synthesis combines individual and collective activities (thesis and antithesis) on an institutional foundation. Thus, that the BAA is formed based on the dialectical development of methodological individualism.

Considering previous research (Vyshnevskiy, 2021, pp. 72-87) and the predominant tenets of the Austrian school of economic thought, the following corollary emerges from the BAA:

"Actors act in a goal-oriented manner within an institutional environment".

Given that "an actor acts" is an inevitable necessity, it follows that the actor acts purposefully (in a goal-oriented manner). It is impossible to imagine truly purposeless activity or complete inaction. The presence of activity implies a desired future state, which necessitates the existence of goals. The statement "man acts purposefully" fully aligns with the principles of the Austrian

school of economic theory as outlined by L. Mises (1998). Similarly, organizations also act purposefully.

Key Economic Concepts Corresponding to the Basic Axiom of Activity

Based on the content of the basic axiom of activity, it is necessary to first define the following concepts: individual, organization, action, institute, and institutional environment.

The term "**individual**" refers to a person, while a group of individuals united by a common *goal* forms an **organization**.

An "**action**" is a conscious effort directed toward achieving a *goal*.

If an "**institution**" is a rule or norm governing the behavior of people (or groups of individuals), then the "**institutional environment**" is the collection of all such institutions.

Since the concept of "goal" is used in these two definitions, it also requires a definition. In its most clear form, a **goal** is a desired result.

Based on these definitions, it is possible to proceed to an examination of key economic concepts, which largely align with the principles of the Austrian school of economic thought as outlined in "Human Action" (Mises, 1998).

Given that activity can either bring an actors closer to or move them further from a goal, "**profit**" is defined as moving closer to a goal at a specific point in time (based on the results of activity), while "**loss**" is defined as moving further from a goal at a specific point in time (based on the results of activity). Clearly, the definitions of "moving closer" and "moving further" are open to debate, as they depend on a measure. In the basic approach, founded on the primacy of time preference (achieving a goal today is preferable to tomorrow), time often serves as this measure. However, other indicators, such as the probability of achieving a goal or the percentage of a target indicator achieved, can also be used.

To achieve expected profit, an actor utilizes "**means**", which are anything (resources, tools, methods, technologies, etc.) consciously applied by the actor to achieve their goals. Before a goal is established, it is often impossible to determine in advance what might serve as a means to achieve it. As G. Hegel noted, "The purpose attained is thus only an object that is also in turn a means or material for other purposes and so on ad infinitum" (Hegel, 2010, p. 281). Thus, an intermediate goal can also be viewed as a means for a subsequent goal. Additionally, the goal of one actor can serve as a means for the goals of another. The collection of *means* used to achieve goals is defined as "**capital**".

The lack of available means creates "demand" and motivates an actor to produce or exchange them if another actor offers a supply. "**Production**" is the activity of creating new means to achieve goals. "**Demand**" can be defined as a direct or indirect (through an object) request by a subject for others' means to achieve their own goals, whereas "**supply**" is the willingness of an actor to give up their available means for others' goals through exchange. "**Exchange**" is a voluntary activity aimed at obtaining missing *means* to achieve *goals* by giving up less preferred *means*.

Exchange always occurs under conditions of **information asymmetry**, defined broadly as a disparity between reality and its perception. In practice, when actors interact (especially during exchange), this disparity is evident in the volume and quality of information each party holds about the object of inte-

reaction. Since the ultimate strategic goal for utilizing the exchanged means is often unknown to the other party, information asymmetry increases.

Exchange leads to the existence of a "market." A **market** is defined as a process of obtaining *means* to achieve one's own *goals* by exchanging them for *means* that facilitate the achievement of others' *goals*. Thus, the market serves as a tool for indirectly (through means) aligning goals. Currently, there is no exchange-based market for goals. An alternative tool for direct goal alignment among organizations within a specific country is, for instance, a universal state plan.

Another important economic concept is "**value**". Value is the assessment of a good's worth to actors, where a "**good**" represents a step toward achieving a goal (or realizing a strategy), and "**value**" reflects the importance an actor assigns to their goals and transfers it to the means of achieving them. As can be seen, the definitions of "profit" and "good" overlap. Profit is a specific manifestation of a good when a subjective idea of a good takes on an objective form at a specific moment in time.

This list of economic concept definitions is not exhaustive but serves as an illustration. Some other definitions (e.g., interest, labor, leisure time) have been explored in earlier works (Vyshnevskiy, 2021).

This brief overview of concepts concludes with the definition of "**economics**" as the science that studies the relationship between *goals* and *means*. This definition is consistent with L. Robbins' definition: "Economics is the science which studies human behavior as a relationship between ends and scarce means which have alternative uses" (Robbins, 1945, p.16). However, the proposed definition does not focus solely on the allocation of scarce means (as in Robbins' view) but emphasizes strategizing as a tool for synthesizing the interests of actors, as will be demonstrated below.

The described set of definitions enables the description of general schemes of economic development and the formation of crises.

General Schemes of Economic Dynamics (Development and Crises)

This section presents four schemes of economic dynamics that describe both development and crises.

If an economic system supports simple reproduction, the following logical scheme (1) applies:

$$\mathbf{Goals} \rightarrow \mathbf{Capital} \rightarrow \mathbf{Goals} \rightarrow \mathbf{Capital} \rightarrow \dots \quad (1)$$

where:

- Goals: the initial goals of actors;
- Capital: the means for achieving goals.

This system maintains balance without significant changes, staying in equilibrium where goals and capital are reproduced without growth or decline. This is not a crisis but a static state, similar to a subsistence economy where the process sustains itself without change. From the perspective of dialectical logic, scheme (1) is characterized by the absence of contradiction between goals and capital, consequently, there is no development and no place for innovations.

If an economic system supports expanded reproduction, the following logical scheme (2) applies:

$$\mathbf{Goals} \rightarrow \mathbf{Capital} \rightarrow \mathbf{Goals}^{(+)} \rightarrow \mathbf{Capital}^{(+)} \rightarrow \dots \quad (2)$$

where:

- Goals⁽⁺⁾: new, expanded goals (both quantitatively and qualitatively) that arise after achieving the initial goals;
- Capital⁽⁺⁾: increased capital accumulated as a result of achieving goals plus additional gains.

This sequence describes a cycle where goals drive the use of capital, successful goal achievement generates new capital, which in turn allows for setting new goals. As a result, goals extend beyond the current process of activity, leading to its expansion.

From the perspective of dialectical logic, scheme (2) reflects a situation wherein the contradiction between goals (thesis) and capital (antithesis) leads to the synthesis of new goals. Similarly, the contradiction between capital (thesis) and goals (antithesis) leads to the synthesis of new capital.

It is worth noting that scheme (2) suggests two distinct types of innovative activity. The first type of innovative activity involves creating and setting new goals, whereas the second type involves creating and using new means to achieve existing goals.

If scheme (2) is viewed as the norm for positive development, two possible deviations can be identified.

The first deviation involves the identification of goals with capital, where the means to achieve goals become means to acquire more means:

$$\mathbf{Goals \rightarrow Capital \equiv Goals} \quad (3)$$

or, in an alternative representation:

$$\mathbf{Capital \rightarrow Goals \rightarrow Capital} \quad (3.1)$$

This situation is termed a crisis of the first type. In this case, capital no longer serves to ensure the achievement of goals, instead, goals become "hostages" to capital. This identification suggests that goals and means merge, losing their distinction: means cease to be mere tools and become goals themselves, while goals lose their independence from the process of their achievement.

The goal is found within or at the boundary of the activity process, merging with means. When goals become means of their own achievement, the possibility of adequate economic calculation (according to L. Mises) disappears, because the value of goals is not transferred to means. This implies that prices no longer serve as an adequate, goal-oriented compass (a signal source, per M. Spence) for consumers and producers.

From the perspective of dialectical logic, scheme (3) reflects a situation where the contradiction between goals (thesis) and means (antithesis) leads to a crisis if synthesis does not occur. This manifests as "goal degeneration," where actors focus on the process of accumulating capital, neglecting the final result. Examples of this situation include the overproduction crisis (e.g., the Great Depression of 1929-1933), where production becomes an end in itself, failing to adequately meet demand (goal). Another example is the 2008 financial crisis, where speculation (means) in the U.S. real estate market became an end in itself, ignoring long-term goals (meeting consumer demand for housing) and real economic growth.

Thus, a crisis of the first type is a dialectical deadlock where goals and means lose their distinction. Consequently, to avoid such a crisis, it is neces-

sary to maintain dialectical dynamics, where goals evolve through means (during their realization) rather than merging with them.

If a crisis of the first type cannot be overcome, it worsens and transitions into a crisis of the second type, which can be described by scheme (4):

$$\mathbf{Goals} \rightarrow \mathbf{Capital} \rightarrow \mathbf{Goals}^{(-)} \rightarrow \mathbf{Capital}^{(-)} \rightarrow \dots \quad (4)$$

where:

– Goals⁽⁻⁾: new, reduced goals (both quantitatively and qualitatively) that arise after achieving the initial goals;

– Capital⁽⁻⁾: shrunken capital resulting from achieving Goals⁽⁻⁾.

The essence of a crisis of the second type lies in the fact that means do not allow the achievement of set goals, and consequently, goals must be adapted (reduced) according to available means. In this case, the goal (target state) is found within the process of interacting with means. Examples of prolonged development of such a crisis include the fall of the Roman Empire and later the Byzantine Empire.

Having reviewed the general principles and economic dynamics corresponding to the BAA, it is necessary to move on to issues related to strategizing and conduct a demarcation of goal-oriented and strategic activity to further define its subject and object.

Demarcation of Goal-oriented and Strategic Activity as a Basis for Defining Subject and Object

To conduct a demarcation between goal-oriented and strategic activity, it is necessary to provide relevant definitions, starting with the "strategic goal".

A **strategic goal** is a goal integrated into a *strategy*, meaning a reflected goal. Alternatively, based on the earlier definition of "goal", a strategic goal is a reflected desired result. Consequently, **strategic activity** is defined as activity directed toward achieving a strategic goal. Activity is understood as a set of actions. A realized strategic goal represents the unity of subjective intention and objective means. Therefore, the absence of a strategy can be interpreted as stagnation, where an organization (without a strategy) exists but remains in a state of balance or stagnation rather than development. A **strategy** (in essence) is understood as a conscious path to achieving a goal. A strategy (in form) consists of mutually agreed-upon mission, vision, values, goals, plans, and risks (Vyshnevskiy, 2021, pp. 75-76). The presence of a strategy not only provides an understanding of the direction in which an actor plans to move but also offers a view of the space of this movement, including the rules (laws, patterns) operating within that space.

Strategizing is the process of forming and updating a *strategy*. A strategy outside the process of strategizing and strategic activity lacks meaning. Strategizing represents reflected goal setting. It is important to note that the activity of individuals and organizations is always goal-oriented, but not necessarily strategically goal-oriented. In this context, at some point, there is a transition from abstract goal setting to specific goal setting (i.e., strategizing).

Considering strategizing as an institution (Vyshnevskiy, 2021), within the singular-particular-universal triad, three cases are identified. The first case is strategizing at the individual level (singular). The second is strategizing at the organizational level, including the state (particular). The third is strategizing as a global, human-wide institution (universal). From a dialectical logic perspec-

tive, strategizing at the individual level is the thesis, while at the organizational level it is the antithesis. Accordingly, strategizing at the human-wide level is the synthesis.

An illustration of the indirect connection between activity and strategizing is provided by the dynamics of searches for the word "Strategy" in Google Trends (Figure).

Analysis of search queries in Google Trends over a 20-year period shows that the word "Strategy" is less frequently searched during the summer and winter vacation months. This provides compelling evidence that strategizing is closely linked to professional activity and is less in demand during non-working or leisure time.

The introduced definitions (strategy, strategic goal) form a theoretical basis for rethinking the concepts of "subject" and "object" from a strategic perspective. Based on the BAA and these definitions, a **subject** is defined as an actor having a strategy and adequate resources for its realization. An **object**, on the other hand, is an actor implementing the subject's strategy, thereby serving as a means to achieve another actor's strategy.

Generalizing this distinction, an alternative yet equivalent definition can be proposed: **economics** is the science that studies the relationships between subjects and objects.

From the perspective of formal logic, the presence or absence of a strategy clearly determines which actor is the subject and which is the object. From the perspective of dialectical logic, wherein an object is a potential subject and a subject is a negated object, a continuous process of strategizing activity emerges.

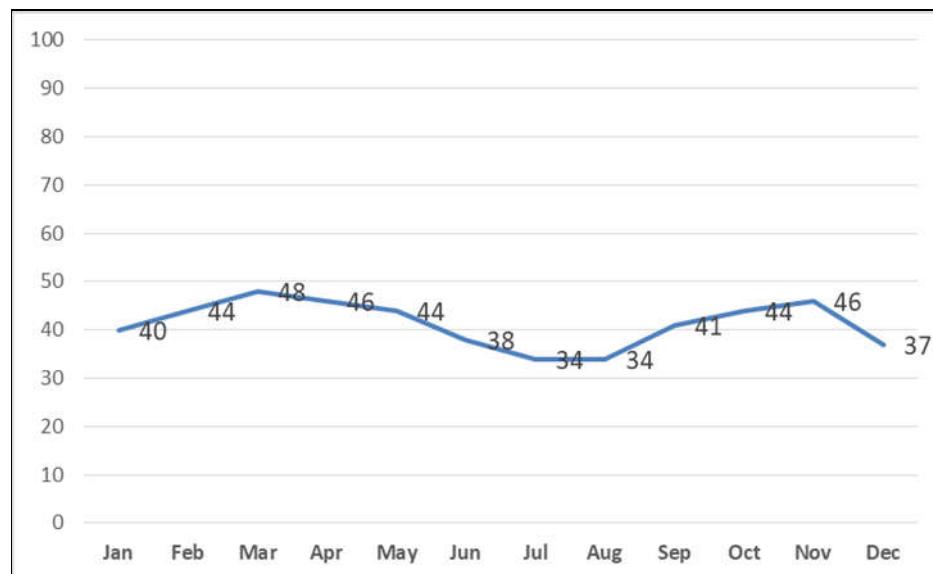


Figure. Seasonal Fluctuations of Search Queries for the Word "Strategy" from January 2004 to July 2025

Source: Google Trends³.

³ <https://trends.google.com.ua/trends/explore?date=all&q=strategy>

It is in the interaction between subjects and objects that information asymmetry is most acutely manifested, a phenomenon which largely reinforces subject-object and object-object relationships in society, and prevents their transformation into subject-subject relationships.

The presented BAA and its associated concepts form a GETS that facilitates the interpretation of societal development.

Development of Society from the Perspective of GETS: Strategiarchy

The development of society is viewed as the interaction between subjects and objects, both with each other and among themselves. Within this approach, the following definitions can be provided for concepts such as feudalism, capitalism, and communism.

Feudalism is an economic system in which members of the object class can hardly become members of the subject class, serving exclusively as resources for subjects to achieve their local profit through the exploitation of dependent resources, secured by the institution of feudal land ownership. The subject class largely overlaps with the class of feudal lords, while the object class aligns with the class of peasants.

Capitalism is an economic system in which members of the object and subject classes interact with the possibility of transitioning between classes, aiming to increase their (private, local) profit through market competition and to secure control over the means of achieving goals through the institution of private ownership. The subject class largely overlaps with the class of capitalists, while the object class aligns with the class of hired workers.

Unlike feudalism and capitalism, **communism** is defined as an economic system in which, theoretically, members of the object and subject classes interact without fixed class divisions, with the goal of maximizing overall profit through the institution of universal planning and collective management of resources held in public ownership. In practice, the subject class largely overlaps with the class of officials (nomenclature), while the object class aligns with hired employees across all sectors of employment.

Although all examined economic systems are examples of societies dominated by subject-object and object-object relationships, there is a noticeable trend toward increasing subject-subject relationships.

In the extreme case (a Kantian maximum), a situation may arise wherein subject-subject relationships do not just quantitatively dominate in society, but all actors are subjects. The economic system in which all actors can be subjects (i.e., have their own current strategy) is termed **strategiarchy**. However, maximizing the potential to become a subject and maintain that status does not imply the necessity of such a transformation. Within the framework of free will, an actor always has the option to remain among the members of the object class or to transition from the subject class to the object class. Unlike communism, strategiarchy does not assume the mandatory construction of a classless society – or more precisely, a single-class society of subjects – but only offers the potential for such a construction.

As demonstrated in previous studies (Vyshnevskiy, 2023, p. 60), strategiarchy is characterized by each actor having, on the one hand, a publicly presented strategy and, on the other hand, the ability and opportunity to

evaluate the strategies of other actors (i.e., knowledge). As a result, the greater the knowledge of one's own strategy and the strategies of counterpart actors, the lower the information asymmetry. A practical tool for organizing such an economic system is **platform strategiarchy**, which involves the placement of actors' strategies on a digital platform or a set of digital platforms (Vishnevskiy, 2024).

Conclusions

1. Goal setting and strategizing remain a focus of attention for modern researchers, but their rethinking from the perspective of economic theory is not widely practiced. At the same time, the priority of goal setting is not used to reconsider the key principles and concepts of economic theory.

2. On the one hand, by generalizing the ideas about the subject of activity from the perspectives of leading schools of economic theory and conducting their phenomenological reduction, a basic axiom of activity can be derived, which serves as the foundation for defining general economic concepts. If an actor exists, this implies action, which is always goal-oriented, sometimes even strategically goal-oriented.

On the other hand, the axiom of individual activity is augmented through the dialectical method with premises of organizational activity and the presence of an institutional environment. This enables a transition from methodological individualism to institutionalized strategizing.

3. The proposed schemes of economic dynamics, including development and crises, from the perspective of GETS describe four states: (1) simple reproduction (stability of goals and capital); (2) expanded reproduction (development of goals and capital); (3) crisis of the first type (identification of goals with capital, which can be characterized as stagnation); (4) crisis of the second type (a systemic crisis where the mismatch between goals and capital leads to their contraction).

4. Examining an economic system from the perspective of GETS allows for not only the rethinking of the definitions of well-known economic systems dominated by objectness (feudalism, capitalism, communism), but also the justification of the definition of strategiarchy, which represents a society with potentially dominant subject-subject relationships.

Directions for Future Research

A promising direction for future research is deepening GETS by expanding the list of economic concepts from the perspectives of goal setting and strategizing.

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