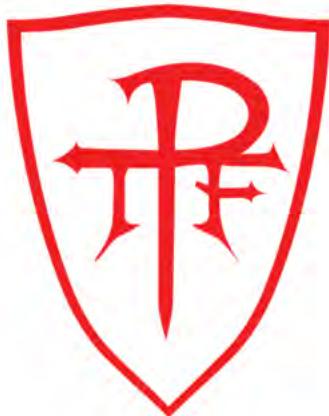


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TUDOMÁNYOS MOZAIK

SCIENTIFIC MOSAIC

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TARTALOMJEGYZÉK / CONTENTS

MAGYAR NYELVŰ TANULMÁNYOK / SCIENTIFIC PAPERS IN HUNGARIAN LANGUAGE:

VÁLSÁGRÓL – TÖBB NÉZŐPONTBÓL KÖZELÍTVE

ABOUT CRISIS – APPROACHED FROM SEVERAL POINTS OF VIEW

GYULAFFY BÉLÁNÉ DR. BERÉNYI MÁRIA – HOLMÁR KRISZTINA	3
--	---

ÁTLAGBÉREK ÉS MINIMÁLBÉREK ELEMZÉSE AZ EURÓPAI UNIÓ TAGORSZÁGAIBAN, KIEMELVE SZLOVÁKIA ESETÉT

ANALYSIS OF AVERAGE AND MINIMUM WAGES IN THE MEMBER STATES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION, HIGHLIGHTING THE CASE OF SLOVAKIA

SUHÁNYI LADISLAV – SUHÁNYIOVÁ ALŽBETA.....	12
--	----

ANGOL NYELVŰ TANULMÁNYOK / SCIENTIFIC PAPERS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE:

THE IMPACT OF DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION ON BUSINESS MANAGEMENT IN TURKISH ORGANIZATIONS

BARISCIL AHMET – YAVUZASLAN ABDULKERİM	22
--	----

THE PHILOSOPHY BEHIND THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF STRATEGIC THINKING

BUSKU SZILVIA.....	30
--------------------	----

MACROECONOMIC INFLUENCES AND GENERATIONAL SHIFTS: A COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY IN HUNGARY (2014-2023)

HEGEDŰS MIHÁLY	40
----------------------	----

INVESTMENT DECISION MAKING USING SIMULATION AND OPTIMIZATION TOOLS

JANEKOVÁ JAROSLAVA	55
--------------------------	----

VÁLSÁGRÓL – TÖBB NÉZŐPONTBÓL KÖZELÍTVE***ABOUT CRISIS – APPROACHED FROM SEVERAL POINTS OF VIEW*****GYULAFFY Béláné DR. BERÉNYI Mária – HOLMÁR Krisztina****Absztrakt**

A jelen tanulmány fontos vizsgálati feltétele, hogy a válságok soha nem fordulnak elő tisztán csak egy területen, hanem összekapcsolónak más területek változásaival. Ennek megfelelően az egyes területek válságai bizonyos időszakokban összegződhetnek szuperválság formájában, amely magában foglalja a gazdasági, pénzügyi, társadalmi, természeti és klímafolyamatok kérdéseit, a globalizációt, valamint az egyes régiók és övezetek katonai, gazdasági kérdéseit/érdekeit és az ezekből adódó következményeket is. A jelen időszak válságkezelése más megközelítést igényel a korábbiakhoz képest és szoros együttműköést követel a világ országaitól és vezetőitől a feltételek átalakításával. A tanulmány a legfontosabb kérdéseket érinti, ám részletesebb elemzésre nem ad módot.

Abstract

An important research condition of the present study is that crises never occur purely in one area but are connected to changes in other areas. Accordingly, the crises of certain areas can sum up in certain periods in the form of a super crisis, which includes issues of economic, financial, social, natural and climate processes, globalization, as well as the military and economic issues/interests of some regions. The crisis management of the current period requires a different approach compared to the past and wants to form close cooperation from the countries and their leaders in transforming the conditions. The study deals with the most important issues but does not allow for a more detailed analysis.

Kulcsszavak: válság, ember, gazdaság, globalizáció, válságkezelés

Keywords: crisis, person, economy, globalization, crisis management

BEVEZETÉS

„Az ökoszisztemák egészsége gyorsabban romlik, mint valaha. Világszerte pusztítjuk gazdaságunk, megélhetésünk, élelmiszerbiztonságunk alapjait, saját egészségi állapotunkat, és életminőségünket.”

(Sir Robert Watson, a Biodiverzitási és Ökoszisztemá-szolgáltatási Kormányközi Tudományos Testület, az IPBES elnöke, Sajtókonferencia – Párizs, 2023. május 6.)

1. AZ EMBER ÉS A TERMÉSZET KAPCSOLATÁNAK KÉRDÉSEI

Alfred Marshall (1842-1924) brit közigazdász, a neoklasszikus iskola megalapítója, a korabeli közigazdaságtan, filozófia (ennek területén foglalkozott az etika értékeivel) és matematika kérdéseinek alapos ismerője, aki a fejlődés értelmezése kapcsán elkülöníti a rövid és a hosszú távot, és végül a közigazdaságtan felé fordulva e területen is szerephez juttatja az evolúciót. Megfogalmazza, hogy a közigazdaságtan „szélesebb értelemben véve a biológiának egy ága” (Gyulaffy, 2005, p. 61.). Filozófiai értelemben az evolúció fokozatos mennyiségi változások útján kialakuló fejlődés, amely az egyszerűbből az összetettebb irányban halad, míg biológiai értelemben a fauna és a flóra természetes kiválasztódás útján való fejlődése, amelyet Charles Robert Darwin (1809-1882) angol természettudós fogalmazott meg. Általában azt lehet mondani, hogy a dolgok időben megjelenő változása, amely nem tervezett, és a fejlődés irányában halad. Változnak a fajok, a kultúra, a társadalmak, a technológia stb.

Az ember és a természet szoros kapcsolatban van, a flóra és a fauna változása jelentősen függ az ember magatartásától, döntéseitől, alakítva környezetét kedvező vagy kedvezőtlen irányban. Kedvező lehet a növényi, állati közösségek sokszínű megjelenése, az új fajok kialakulása, míg kedvezőtlen irány a fajok pusztulása, azaz az élő környezet, valamint a természeti környezet romlása (az élettelen környezet változásai, a levegő, víz és talaj szennyeződése). A környezeti tényezők

erőteljesen az élő környezeti tényezőkre hatnak, bár hatásukat éreztetik az élettelen környezetben is, ám itt hosszú távon hallgatag a természet, és egyszerre fog rendkívüli változást érzékeltetni.

Dr. Major István már 1979-ben felhívta a figyelmet az ember által okozott kedvezőtlen folyamatokra, amelyek kapcsán a Lesz-e sas 2000-ben? című könyvében fogalmazta meg, hogy „Pusztul az állatvilág. ... Az utolsó 300 esztendőben 72 emlős-, és 139 madárfaj pusztulását jegyezte fel a tudomány.” (Major, 1979, p. 5.) Az ember természetatalakító tevékenysége csökkentette az állatok életterét, miközben a környezet szennyezettsége is nőtt a gazdálkodási folyamatok során (például műtrágyák, gyomirtók alkalmazása, mely a kisállatok nagyfokú pusztulásához vezetett, a tápláléklánc esetében hiányokat megjelenítve, ami felborította a tápláléklánc egyensúlyát). 2022-ben több mint 41 100 faj – a világszerte mintegy 147 500 nyilvántartott állat- és növényfajból – szerepelt a veszélyeztetett kategóriában, több, mint valaha. A Természeti Világszövetség (IUCN – International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources) honlapja szerint – többek között – a kétéltűek 41%-a, az emlősök 27%-a, a madarak 13%-a került vészhez. (Magyar Hírlap, 2022) Ez rendkívül súlyos adat, mivel a természetben nincs önálló részegység, minden mindenkel szoros kapcsolatban áll. Amennyiben a kihalás mértéke jelentős, esetenként már egyetlen állat kihalása is kritikus állapotot (esetleg egy biológiai közösség eltűnését) eredményezhet. Gondolunk csak a méhekre: nincs beporzás, nincs virág, nincs gyümölcs, elpusztulnak a növények, az ezt fogyasztó álatok, majd az ember is! Ebből a gondolatsorból adódik, hogy a leginkább veszélyeztetett állatok a nagy termetűek, mert jelentős mennyiséggel táplálékra van szükségük. Sokak szerint az ember a méhek kihalását követően már négy évet képes megmaradni.

A gazdaság és a természet kapcsolatrendszerére, a természet és a társadalom ideális rendszerű működésére a fiziokraták hívták fel a figyelmet. Quesnay művéből idézte Földes Béla, hogy „határozott természeti rend és termézzettörvények az emberi társadalmak fölött is uralkodnak” (Gyulaffy, 2005, p. 62.). Amennyiben elfogadjuk ezt a megállapítást, akkor célszerű párhuzamot vonni a természetben jellemző fejlődés és a társadalmi-gazdasági változások tekintetében:

1. minden „élő” szervezet, azaz a természet a föld, flóra, fauna és az ember szerves egysége, együttműködő rendszere, a másik, a társadalmi-gazdasági környezet pedig az épített környezet, ennek működtetése, valamint az ember létének és tevékenységének együttese;
2. minden az érdekkreendszerének megfelelően cselekszik, a természet védi önmagát (most éppen klímaválság mutatja a védekezést), a társadalmi környezetet pedig az ember alakítja a saját kényelmének, érdekkreendszerének megfelelően (nem figyelve sajnos a környezetére);
3. mindennek megvan a közvetítő közege, azaz a természet energiája, és az ebből eredő fejlődés, illetve az emberi társadalom esetében a pénz és energiafelhasználás, ami a fejlődést lehetővé teszi;
4. a fejlődést minden esetben súlyosan érintik a korlátok és a kockázatok, azaz természetükben és jellemzőjük tekintetében veszélyes és jelentős biológiai változások (a csernobili balesetet követően sokféle állat maradt a környéken, amelyek DNS-ében lényeges módosulás történt), valamint a gazdasági változások súlyos nehézségei (ami sok esetben emberi gondok, megoldások mellett gazdasági fejlődést eredményez);
5. minden jellemzője a rendszerszemlélet, azaz ha bármely területen az együttműködés harmóniájában gond adódik, a változás a rendszer működésének egészét nehezíti meg (ez egyben lehetőséget is teremt a válság létrejöttére, azaz az ok az ember igénye, rendszerbe történő beavatkozása nem természetnek megfelelő módon, ami veszélyezteti a flóra és a fauna egészét, esetleg egy faj kihalásával dominóhatást megjelenítve);
6. állandó változás, fejlődés jellemzi mindenket, részben a működés során természetes módon (evolúció), részben pedig tudatos fejlesztés (innováció) útján (létrehozva Wallerstein megfogalmazásával a centrum és periféria jellemzőit);
7. a közigazdasági gondolkodás és általában az emberi tevékenység törvényeinek alakítása kapcsán fontos, hogy az ember a törvényszerűségeket a természettől próbálta leképezni a saját gazdasági tevékenységére, ami jól vagy rosszul sikerült;

8. mindenktől függ a Föld természeti jelenségeinek alakulásától (pl.: földrengések, cunamik, hurrikánok, éghajlatváltozás, vulkánok működése, klímakatasztrófa).

Fontos tehát, hogy az ember figyeljen a természeti környezetére, mert ennek hiánya súlyos természeti katasztrófákhoz vezethet, amely válságként jelentkezhet az emberi élet folyamatában. Az utóbbi idők villámárvizei, hatalmas erdőtüzei és más természeti katasztrófák az adott területen helyi válságként jelennie meg. Következménye lehet a terület elnéptelenedése, kényszerköltözés, nehéz feltételek között egy élet újrakezdése, az állatvilág élőhelyének megváltozása, új élőhely keresése és a védettség csökkenése stb. Külön súlyos kérdést jelentenek a háborúk, a hadicselekmények, amelyek részben környezetszenyezzel (pl.: új vegyi anyagok alkalmazása, robbanóanyagok környezetszenyező hatásai, levegőszennyezés), részben emberi tragédiákkal (lakóterületek elpusztulása, vegyi szennyezése, flóra és fauna pusztulása, pusztítása, mint pl.: napalm, lombhullató vegyi anyag), részben migrációval (ellehetetlenített területről az ember menekül új életlehetőséget keresve) járnak. Fontos tehát észrevenni, hogy a feltételek kialakulásában, a változásokban rendkívüli szerepe van az emberi tevékenységnek.

2. VÁLSÁG – MÁS SZEMLÉLETBEN

Válság, általános válság... Félelmetes tartalmú kifejezés sokak számára. Úgy is lehet fogalmazni, hogy krízishelyzet vagy általános megrázkoztatás egy vagy több területen. Olyan rendkívüli helyzetet, eseményt jelöl, amelynek kimenetele bármilyen lehet, előnyös és hátrányos is. Más értelmezésben adott területen a kockázatok (környezeti, gazdasági, pénzügyi, döntésemeléti, természeti stb.) hirtelen és jelentős változása, amely egyszerre sokat érint, ezért nagy erővel változtatja a vizsgált közösséget körülvevő feltételeket. Gazdasági értelmezésben a termelés, forgalom és a fogyasztás nem megfelelő összehangoltsága, amely minden esetben súlyos gondokkal jár. minden válság jellemzője, hogy a változásnak el kell érnie egy kritikus pontot, amikortól az adott működési rendszer nem tud a korábbi, rendezett formában fejlődni. Ezek azon változási pontok is lehetnek, amelyek egy ország, egy gazdaság esetében megváltoztathatják a nemzetközi kapcsolatokban betöltött szerepét, felemelkedő vagy süllyedő folyamatot jelölnek ki, de lehet egy emberi életben egy betegség fordulópontja is. A válság tehát adott időszakban egy olyan állapotot jelöl, ahol kiélezettek a működés, a létezés feltételei és a határok, hogy meddig tart a folyamat és milyen területeket fog érinteni, nem meghatározhatók, előre nem programozhatók, mert sok egyszerű, apró emberi döntés fogja a feltételeket alakítani.

Sokféle dolog hozhat válságot, és sokféleképpen alakulhat ki a válság, ezért célszerű áttekinteni a fontosabb lehetséges eseteket – a teljesség igénye nélkül:

1. társadalmi válság, amely az egyes ember és a társadalom esetében alakulhat ki, amikor az együttműködés feltételrendszere a résztvevők számára kritikussá válik;
2. kultúra és művészet területén lehet egy művész alkotói válsága, és lehet az egész rendszer nem megfelelő működése;
3. értékválság, amely megkérđezi a korábbi értékrendet, de az új értékrend még nem alakult ki;
4. politikai válság, amelynek súlyos esetben polgárháború lehet a következménye;
5. klíma és természeti környezet válsága, amely az emberi környezetet, a flóra és fauna teljes rendszerét veszélyeztetetheti (ilyen lehetett a dinoszauruszok kipusztulása);
6. gazdasági válság, amely a gazdasági környezet, a gazdasági élet rendkívül erős megrázkoztatása;
7. pénzügyi válság, amely a forgalomban lévő pénzek értékváltozásában nyilvánul meg, és események szerint lehet adósságválság (ez a pénzvilág válsága, amely esetben az állam a külföldi adósságkötelezettségét nem tudja megfelelően kezelni), árfolyamválság (jelentős értékcsökkenést kijelölve adott ország fizetőeszköze tekintetében, rövid időszak alatti kialakulással és az ország részére megterhelő kezelési feltételekkel), és bankválság (a bank-

és a pénzügyi rendszer válsága, ez lehet bizalomhiány a bankokkal szemben vagy egy erős bank tevékenységének megingása).

A válság, mint szó értelmezése – amint az előzőekből kitűnt – sokféle területről eredhet, tartalma nehezen leírható, így esetében egyszerű definíció nem fogalmazható meg. Sokféle területen és sokféle esemény válthatja ki bármely válság kialakulását. Megjelenhet az ember életében (pl.: betegség, gazdasági/megélhetési problémák), bekövetkezhet a tudományban, művészettel (például kulturális válság), lehetséges értékválság (jelen időszakban jól érzékelhető az értékválság a világgazdaság egészében), gazdasági válság és politikai válság (adott ország esetében a további fejlődés lehetőségét meghatározza), stb.

Az ember életfélételeit a jelen időszakban az épített környezet és a gazdasági feltételek változásai alakítják alapvetően (a jelen időszakig a természet nem érezte hatását, segítette az emberi élet fejlődését), ezért a válságok tekintetében a gazdasági és a pénzügyi válságok feldolgozása, ezek értelmezése, a kialakult feltételek elemzése jelenti a gyakori közelítést. Ritkábban – bár az utóbbi időben kiemelt jelentőséggel – foglalkozik a tudomány a válságok természetből eredő nehézségeivel. A jelen időszakban a flórával, faunával és a klímaváltozással foglalkozó kutatók próbálják a világ közvéleménye felé jelezni a rendkívül súlyos környezeti kérdések következményeinek hatásait (úgy tűnik nem túl nagy eredménnyel). Megfigyelhető jellemző, hogy a piaci, gazdasági, technikai változások és az internet működése ellenére sem azonosak a válságjellemzők a világgazdaság egészében. Más környezeti és eszközfeltételek figyelembe vétele mellett vannak sajátosan, csak az adott közösségre, terüetre megjelenő változások, amelyek jellemzik a válság folyamatát. 2022-ben a Pécsi Tudományegyetem rendezett ehhez kapcsolódóan egy válságkonferenciát, ahol a tanulmányainkban a válsággal kapcsolatos jellemzők összefoglalását tették meg a kutatók (Barcsi, Diósi, 2022).

Az embert a jelen időszakban legközvetlenebbül érintő gazdasági válságok tekintetében Farkas Péter három csoportra osztotta a válságokat, ezek (amelyekről részletesen korábbi tanulmányainkban már szoltunk) említés szintjén a következők (Farkas, 2009):

1. klasszikus gazdasági ciklusokra visszavezethető válságok,
2. globális világválságok és
3. csomópontválság, amely adott működési rendszer teljes újragondolását igénylő folyamat.

A fentiek alapján fontos kérdés a válság, mint folyamat kiteljesedése és ennek ok-okozati összefüggései.

3. OK ÉS OKOZAT A VÁLSÁG KIFEJLŐDÉSBEN

Az előbbiekből szó esett arról, hogy a válság az ember életében is megjelenhet, betegség vagy gazdasági nehézség formájában. Az előbbihez kapcsolódóan célszerű elfogadni Philippus Aureolus Theophrastus Bombastus von Hohenheim, közismert álnevén Paracelsus (1493-1541) orvos, író, asztrológus, kémikus, filozófus, természettudós véleményét, mely szerint a betegségek fő oka, hogy az ember nem él harmóniában a természeti törvényekkel, így a betegség ennek a diszharmóniának a következménye. Az emberi élet egyik válságos időszaka tehát a törvények be nem tartásából következik.

Amennyiben tovább vizsgáljuk ezt a folyamatot feltűnik, hogy a nehezebb időszakok kialakulása, azaz a kockázatok bekövetkezése egy lassú, hosszan tartó folyamat végén, a korábban összeadódott, a természethez nem alkalmazkodó tevékenységek következménye. Ez természetesen minden korszakban más és sok területen megjelenhet, mivel nemcsak gazdasági, társadalmi, hanem a természeti környezet átalakítása is okozhat feszültségeket.

A fejlődés korai szakaszában az ember a természettől annyit vett el, amennyi a saját és családja életének fenntartásához szükséges volt, így **harmóniában élt a környezetével**. Ezt a harmóniát az indián területeken az emberek a mai napig tiszteletben tartják (Föld anyának nevezik az életlehetőséget adó földet). Ebben az időszakban, sőt több évmillión keresztül a természet nem

termelt hulladékot! A későbbi időszakban azonban fontossá vált az ember kényelmének, gazdasági ellátottságának kedvezőbbé tétele, és elkezdődött a természet törvényeinek nem megfelelő figyelembe vétele. Az épített környezet a korai időszakban a természetben megtalálható anyagokból még megfelelő volt, védte az építőt, és ha tönkre ment is, nem maradt hulladék, mert a természet visszavette a természetes anyagot és újra hasznosította (agyagból épült házak, természetes fából készült termékek stb.). Amikor azonban az égetett (agyag)termékek megjelentek, létrejött a hulladéktermelés lehetősége. Minél fejlettebb – a XX. század közepétől mesterséges úton előállított – anyagok felhasználására került sor, annál több hulladékanyag keletkezett, és – kényelme okán – annál kevésbé volt az ember tekintettel a természeti környezetére. A modern technológiával készült anyagok minősége kiemelkedő, de megsemmisülésük szinte alig vagy egyáltalán nem lehetséges (főként rövid távon és környezetszennyezés nélkül). Ilyen pl. a zöld energia esetében a szélerőműveken alkalmazott lapatkerek anyaga is, amely nem megsemmisíthető, leszerelésük után a földbe ássák, temetik őket, de említhető a villanyautó is, amelynek energiáját is szén-, gázerőművekben lehet megtermelni és akkumulátorai esetében a litium bányászata és a használt elemek megsemmisítése tekintetében is környezetszennyezés jelenik meg.

A fogyasztás növekedésével fontossá vált az élelmiszerök termelése, üdítőitalok előállítása tömegméretekben, majd ezek nemzetközi kereskedelme (hajózás, amelynek fűtőanyaga szén vagy gázolaj), szállítása és csomagolása, amely újabb gondot okozott a természettel való együttélés tekintetében (pl. tengerbiztos csomagolás, zsugorfolíázás, ahol a csomagolóanyagok előállítása, ezek tárolása, megsemmisítése ugyancsak súlyos kérdéssé vált). Így jutott el az emberi fejlődés egy olyan szintre, amikor az óriási hulladékmennyiségek okán a természet védeni próbálja az általa fontosnak tartott és évmilliárdban alatt fenntartott törvényeit, és megpróbálja az ember által okozott károkat a Föld a saját érdekeiben enyhíteni. Ezzel a gondolatsorral jutottunk el addig, hogy **az ember saját környezetét a XXI. századra rendkívüli mértékben terhelte, és ezzel a Föld védekezését kikényszerítette**. Ez természeti csapások számának növekedésében nyilvánul meg az utóbbi időszakban (hurrikánok, villámárvizek, esők, hóviharok, földrengések, aktivizálódó vulkánok stb.), ami a **környezeti válság** megjelenését jelzi.

A kínai Shandong Egyetem kutatócsoportja vízmintákkal igazolta az ember környezetszennyező tevékenységét. A Taj-hegy tetejéről, a felhőkből vett vízminták esetében a 28-ból 24 esetben mikroműanyagot találtak (PET, polietilén, polisztirol). Hasonlóan súlyos eredményre jutottak japán kutatók is, akik a Fudzsi és a Oyama-hegy csúcsán vett mintákban találtak mikroműanyagot. A szennyezőanyag az eddigi megállapítások szerint a levegőben terjed (igen nehezen közelíthető helyekről vettek a kutatók mintákat, ahová a szennyeződés a légáramlattal kerülhetett). Ezek az eredmények azonban lehangolóak az ember számára, ugyanis azt jelentik, hogy a felhőkben lévő szennyezőanyag bejut a talajba, onnan a növényeken, állatokon keresztül az ember életét is alakítja. A felhők pedig az esőkkel egy adott terület éghajlatát befolyásolják. Fontos megérteni, hogy a jelen világban a kölcsönös együttélés, egymás életterének kölcsönös tiszteletben tartása lehet csak a válságból kivezető megoldás.

Rövid gondolatkísérletként nézzük meg, hogy *mit is tett az ember a kényelmesebb élet érdekében?*

Először is kialakította a munkáját segítő eszközöket. Ezek működtetéséhez energiára volt szükség. Kezdetben ez igavonó állatokkal, majd robbanómotorokkal történt. Ez utóbbi a bányászattal megszerezhető javakat (szén, olaj, gáz, urán) igényelte, amely a környezetet, a talajt, a talajban lévő vízbázist és a levegőt egyszerre tudja szennyezni.

Fontos lett a kényelmesebb lakhatás, a korszerű fűtés, amely a levegőszennyezés mellett a bányászatnál megismert károsítást is okozza, de a csővezeték előállítása ipari szennyezést és környezeti szennyezést is eredményez. A lakhatás és termelés folyamatossá tétele érdekében szükséges a fény, amelynek előállítása ugyancsak energiaigény. Az újratermelhető energia kevésnek bizonyult, az erőművek kezdetben szénnel, majd olajjal, gázzal és a jelen időszakban uránnal való ellátása is (mint korábban már jelezük) rendkívül környezetszennyező.

A bányászati tevékenység egyre költségesebb, hiszen a könnyen kitermelhető termékek lassan elfogytak, és egyre mélyebb munkaterületeket kell művelésbe vonni. Ez újabb anyagigény, logisztika és jelentős környezeti terhelés formáját ölti.

Az eddigiek csak a tevékenység eszközökigényét jelezték. Emellett vannak olyan időszakok, amikor maga, a tevékenység sem zajlik zökkenőmentesen, megjelenhet alultermelés vagy túltermelés, szakmunkáshiány vagy rossz munkaerőképzés, amely nehezíti a folyamatokat. Ekkor még nem is szóltunk a rossz döntésekről, és ezek következményeiről! Ez a megközelítés arra hívja fel a figyelmet, hogy a természet és az ember viszonyában igen fontos tényező maga, az odafigyelés. Amennyiben az ember nem alkalmazkodik a természet törvényeihez, sajnos viselnie kell a természet által a saját védelmére adott súlyos természeti válaszokat. Szükséges észre venni, hogy a természet védekezése ma klímaválság formájában jelentkezik. Ez a válság sajnos egybeesik a társadalmak tekintetében megjelenő válságos időszakkal (társadalmi elégedetlenségek, tüntetések, polgárháborúk, háborúk, migráció stb.), amely ugyancsak folyamatként jelenik meg. Amennyiben két vagy több területen válságos feltételek alakulnak ki, felerősíthatik egymás hatásait, ami sokkal súlyosabbá változtathatja az emberi létfelvételt.

Az eddigi gondolatkísérlet mellett fontos szólni a **globalizáció** világgazdasági kérdéseiről is. Többen foglalkoztak az ehhez kapcsolható tényekkel. Richard Falk például megkülönbözteti a felülről szervezett globalizációt, amely állami, politikai érdek, valamint az alulról, a civil társadalmi szervezetek által szervezett globalizációt (Falk, 1994). Emellett fontos említeni az „érdekglobalizációt“ vagy „közönségi globalizációt“ is (Gyulaffy, 2005, p. 11.), amely azon emberek más országokba történő költözését jelenti, akik a kommunikációs csatornák által bemutatott életképek kapcsán önálló döntéssel indulnak más, kedvezőbb életet ígérő országokba. Ez nemcsak más életszínvonalat, hanem kedvezőbb természeti feltételeket is jelenthet a migráció résztvevői számára (pl.: tiszta ivóvíz, kisebb népsűrűség, más hőmérséklet és környezeti viszonyok), ám megváltoztathatja a választott régió területén a kialakult munkamegosztást népsűrűségnövekedést és más (gazdasági-társadalmi) feltételváltozást is okozva. A kultúrák keveredése is számos kérdést vet fel, az eltérő szocializációs folyamat súlyos következményű lehet, párhuzamos társadalmak kialakulását is eredményezheti.

A globalizáció megváltoztatja a termelést, kereskedelmet, pénzfolyamatokat, az egyes országok egymással való kapcsolatát, esetleg függőségét, és a munkaerő áramlását is. A világgazdaságban azonban eltérő fejlettségi szinten vannak államok, szervezetek, termelési rendszerek stb., ezért kialakulhat minden területen egyenlőtlenség, létrejöhet termelési, kereskedelmi, társadalmi stb. válság. Amennyiben ez összegződik, és a klímaválság is hozzáadódik, létrejöhet egy olyan helyzet, amely **szuperválság** formáját öltheti.

Gondolatkísérletünkben a szuperválság azt jelenti, hogy a világgazdaság legnagyobb részében (természet, társadalom, gazdaság, pénzügyi folyamatok) egyenlőtlenség, súlyos zavar alakul ki, mégpedig egyszerre. Ez a zavar olyan mértékűvé válhat, hogy a korábbi működési feltételek szerint nem tud tovább működni az adott terület, azaz a **csonóponti válság** felé tart. Az ember a gazdasági, társadalmi, kereskedelmi, pénzügyi kérdések tekintetében tud beavatkozni, de a természeti jelenségek önálló mozgását nem képes megakadályozni, ami felerősítheti az előbb említett folyamatok válságát, és kiteljesítheti a legnehezebb időszak létrejöttét. A Föld válasza lehet tűzhányók erőteljes működése, esők és szélvihar, villámárvizek, esetleg forróság, erdőtüzek, jelentős állatpusztulás, amivel szemben bármilyen megoldást megvalósítani, csak nyugodt gazdasági feltételek között lehet, szinte korlátlanul felhasználható pénzkerettel, és csak védekező formában. A klímaválság hatásait ma is lehet érzékelni, amihez már társadalmi válság társul (óriási migrációs nyomás, ami ténykérdés), miközben a bányászati feltételek egyre nehezednek, és a természet erői rendkívüli aktivitással működnek. Mindezeket tetézi az egyes országok, világgazdasági résztvevők versenye, amely hol nyílt konfliktusban (háború), hol sérülékeny kapcsolatokban, elhidegülésben (hidegháború) jelenhet meg. Mindezek a feltételek – amennyiben az emberi együttműködés továbbra is ellenséges lesz a globalizált világban – létrehozhatnak az elkövetkező években egy egyesült, sokféle területen egyszerre megjelenő válságot (több területen csomóponti válságot), azaz egy szuperválságot – amit fontos lenne elkerülni!

4. GONDOLATOK A VÁLSÁGKEZELÉSRŐL

Az eddigiekben a válság formálódását, az egyes területeken megjelenő válságlehetőségeket latolgattuk. Nem esett szó azonban arról, hogy az egyes időszakokban *mi motiválja a válságkezelést és ez hogyan valósulhat meg?*

A gazdasági, pénzügyi válságok tekintetében kiemelkedő volt az 1873. évi, majd az 1929-33 közötti válság ok és okozati kérdéseinek kezelése. Mindkettőre jellemző, hogy a kialakult helyzetet elemezve, törekedtek a kiváltó okok megszüntetésére, amelyet konkrét változtatásokkal értek el. Ez a válságkezelés a konzervatív gondolkodás, a teljes feltételrendszer részletes elemzése és az új lehetőségek kidolgozása formáját jelentette.

Az 1867-es kiegyezést követően az európai bankok (a gazdaság élénkítése érdekében) igen jelentős tömegben nyújtottak jelzáloghiteliket, amelyek gyenge ellenőrzés mellett visszaélésekre adtak lehetőséget. A gazdasági előrejelzések optimizmusá mellett a valós gazdaság gyengén tudott csak teljesíteni. Az európai bankok nehéz pénzügyi helyzetbe kerültek, miközben az angol bankok jelentős tőkét birtokoltak (de kockázatosnak tartották volna kihelyezni), ám az európai bankok nehézségei (magas kamatók, egymás közti hitelezés, bankcsödök) nemcsak az európai területeken, hanem az Egyesült Államok bankműveletei kapcsán is éreztették hatásukat. A részvénypiacok összeomlása az USA esetében négy év, Európában pedig hat év visszaesést eredményezett. A válság jellemzőinek elemzése kapcsán fontos felismerésre jutott a gazdasági vezetés, arra, hogy bármely területen jelenik meg válság, mindenéppen a pénzügyi feltételek rendezése ad lehetőséget a válság okainak megszüntetésére.

Ezt a tanulságot lehetett felismerni a következő, rendkívül jelentős világgazdasági válság kezelése esetében. Az 1929-33-as években igen sok pénzügyi, gazdasági intézkedésre került sor, hogy sikerrel lépjenek fel a válság okainak kezelése tekintetében. 1929-31 között jellemzően túltermelési válság volt, amelynek következményeként előfordultak pénzügyi problémák is. A pénzügyi válság 1931-ben indult, bizalmi válságként, mivel nemzetközi szinten is a kiegyenlítések során többször fennakadás történt. Ezt rendezendő, létrehozták a kötött devizagazdálkodás rendszerét, kidolgoztak egy új fizetési módöt, az akkreditívét, nemzetközi szinten egységesítették a váltó és a csekk felhasználásának feltételeit, és kidolgozták az INCOTERMS szabályait. A pénzügyi folyamatok szabályozása felől indulva, sikeressé vált a válság kezelése. Ezen legfontosabb intézkedések viszonylag hosszú időszakra kedvező együttműködési feltételeket biztosítottak a nemzetközi kapcsolatokban.

A II. világháborút követően, a 60-as évektől fokozatosan felszínre kerülő nehézségek kapcsán más jellegű recesszió, illetve válságkezelés jelent meg a világgazdaságban. Sokféle tényező megváltozása mellett **az egyik leginkább fontos feltételt a cégméretek jelentős növekedése és nemzetköziesedése okozta, ami jelentősen eltérő beavatkozási formát és más megoldást igényelt a korábbiakhoz viszonyítva.** A válság okainak feltárását követően kezelní próbálják a válság okozta gondokat, amelyben minden, a világgazdaságban jelentős szerephez jutott ország részessé válik. A világgazdaságban működő gazdasági, pénzügyi erőközpontok együttműködésével a gazdaságvezető országok a válság legsúlyosabb következményei, hatásai mérséklésére törekszenek, jól átgondolt pénzügyi megoldásokat keresve. Ez történt a XX. század második felében és a XXI. században megjelent válságok esetében. Az együttműködő megoldásban nemcsak az európai, és amerikai bankok, hanem Kína és India nagy bankjai is részt vállaltak, elérve ezzel a nemzetközi tőkemozgatással a részvényekben megnyilvánuló tulajdonszerkezet alakítását és a gazdasági központok lassú elmozdulását is. A válságkezelés felszínre hozta a világ pénzügyi központjainak részeseit, megismertetve a pénzügyi központok helyszíneinek változásait is. A három erőközpont az európai, az észak-amerikai, valamint a Japán és távol-keleti terület, ez utóbbi egyre erőteljesebben részese a gazdasági versenynek is. **A jelen időszak válságkezelése azért más, modern gondolkodást takaró, progresszív formájú**, mint a korábbi, mert **nem az okok megszüntetését helyezi előtérbe, hanem pénzügyi, költségvetési eszközökkel koncentrál a feltételek átalakítására**, a problémák valamilyen, az adott területre, az ok és okozat kérdéseinek megoldására kedvezően ható módon történő feloldására.

ÖSSZEGZÉS

Tanulmányunkban formabontó válságfolyamat bemutatására vállalkoztunk. A fogalmak és a feltételek értelmezését követően a jelen időszak súlyos természeti, gazdasági, társadalmi, politikai, globalizációs kérdéseit próbáltuk a válság folyamatának értelmezésébe bevonni. A klímaválság ugyanis felszín, amely a természet oldaláról próbálja az emberrel megértetni, hogy tevékenysége súlyosan károsítja a természet egészét. Ennek megfelelően a természet nem segítő partnere az embernek (mint korábban sok évezreden keresztül), hanem védekező mechanizmusával nehezíti az emberi tevékenységeket. Ez hátrálthatja a gazdasági folyamatokat, nehezíti a pénzfolyamatok gördülékenységét, ami súlyos esetben válságperiódusba fordulhat. Amennyiben az egyes folyamatok egyszerre hoznak kockázatos feltételt, létrejöhét egy olyan válság, amely minden területen a csomóponti válság szintjére kerülhet, és ami ezen okból következően szuperválság kialakulását eredményezheti.

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ÁTLAGBÉREK ÉS MINIMÁLBÉREK ELEMZÉSE AZ EURÓPAI UNIÓN TAGORSZÁGAIBAN, KIEMELVE SZLOVÁKIA ESETÉT

ANALYSIS OF AVERAGE AND MINIMUM WAGES IN THE MEMBER STATES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION, HIGHLIGHTING THE CASE OF SLOVAKIA

SUHÁNYI Ladislav – SUHÁNYIOVÁ Alžbeta

Absztrakt

A munkabér a munkáltató által a munkavállaló számára a munkájáért fizetett pénzösszeg. A tanulmány célja megvizsgálni az Európai Unió tagállamai közötti bérkülönbségeket, hangsúlyt fektetve az átlagbérek és minimálbérek kutatására. A kutatás során felhasznált másodlagos adatokat az Eurostat adatbázisából nyertük. Az adatfeldolgozás során a leíró és a matematikai statisztikai módszerek kerültek alkalmazásra. A kutatás eredménye arra utal, hogy az egyes Európai Unió tagországai között mind az átlagbér, mind a minimálbér szempontjából jelentős bérkülönbségek vannak, azonban ezek növekedésének mértéke eltérő. Ez az átlagbér különbségeire vonatkozó S80/S20 mutató vizsgálatakor is megmutatkozott. A minimálbérről szóló 2022/2041/EU irányelv rendelkezései fontos lépést jelenthetnek a uniós által kitűzött célok megvalósítása felé.

Abstract

Wage is the amount of money paid by an employer to an employee for his work. The aim of the study is to examine wage differences between the Member States of the European Union, with an emphasis on research on average wages and minimum wages. The secondary data used in the research were obtained from the Eurostat database. Descriptive and mathematical statistical methods were applied during the data processing. The results of the research indicate that there are significant wage differences between the individual Member States of the European Union in terms of both average wages and minimum wages, but the rate of their increase is different. This was also reflected in the examination of the S80/S20 indicator relating to the differences in average wages. The provisions of Directive 2022/2041/EU on minimum wages can be an important step towards achieving the goals set by the European Union.

Kulcsszavak: munkabér, átlagbér, minimálbér, bérkülönbségek.

Keywords: wage, average wage, minimum wage, wage differences.

BEVEZETÉS

Az ember életszívonálonak és munkakörülményeinek értékelésekor elkerülhetetlen a bérsszintekkel kapcsolatos információk figyelembevétele. Az előző évek során számos országban, különösen a közép-európai térség országaiban nőttek a bérengyenlőtlenségek, amelyek a túl alacsony bérékkel együttvéve gyakran a gazdaságilag aktív népesség oldaláról elutasításához, elégtelen kihasználásához, munkanélküliség növekedéshez, ill. külföldön történő munkavállaláshoz vezethet. A bérengyenlőtlenségek gyakori oka lehet az eltérő iskolai végzettség, az elérő képesítés, a korkülönbség, a munkatapasztalat, a munkáltató bevonása a gazdaság iparágába, végül, de nem utolsósorban a különböző nemek is.

A munkabér Štibl (1991) meghatározása szerint a munka ára, ami a piacgazdaságban elsősorban a munkakínálat és a munkakereslet kapcsolatától függ. A munkabér fogalmához közvetlenül kapcsolódnak olyan fogalmak, mint például a bruttó bér, az átlagbér, a minimálbér, a nettó bér, stb.

Bajzíková (2004) szerint a bér számos gazdaságilag objektív feladatot lát el. E feladatak ellátásához szükséges, hogy a bér megfeleljen a munkavállalók és családtagjaik elvárásainak, méltányosnak kell lennie a többi munkavállalóval szemben, érthető legyen a függőség a teljesítmény mennyisége és minősége, valamint a bérsszint között. Biztosítani kell továbbá azt is, hogy a munkavállaló nagyobb erőfeszítése és kezdeményezőkészsége a bér összegében is megjelenjen.

A Szlovák Köztársaság Munka Törvénykönyvének 118. §-a értelmében a munkabér fogalma alatt pénzbeli vagy nem pénzbeli fizetést (természetbeni bért) kell érteni, amit a munkáltató nyújt a munkavállalónak munkájáért. A bérfeltételekről a munkáltató az illetékes szakszervezeti szervvel kollektív szerződésben, illetve a munkavállalóval munkasherzödésben állapodik meg. A munkavállaló bruttó béréről a munkáltató előnyben részesíti a társadalombiztosításra, az egészségbiztosításra, valamint a jövedelemadó-előlegre vonatkozó levonásokat. A bruttóbérrel történő levonások után a munkavállalónak nettó fizetés marad.

A havi átlagos bruttó bér a munkajog szempontjából mutatónak tekinthető, ami kiszámítása egy adott időszak összes bruttó bérénak számítani átlagaként történik. Az átlagbér kiszámolható egy vállalatnál, egy városban vagy településen, egy régióban vagy a nemzetgazdaságban. A havi átlagos bruttóbér lehet nominálbér és reálbér (Suhányiová 2018).

A nominálbér az a pénzösszeg, amit a munkavállaló ténylegesen megkap a munkájáért cserébe, tehát a munkabér nominális értéke. Ez független annak vásárlóértékétől, nincs korrigálva az inflációval, és általában egy adott időszakban, például havonta, hetente vagy óránként van meghatározva.

A reálbér ezzel szemben a közgazdaságtan szerint a nominálbér inflációval kiigazított szintje. Azt mutatja meg, hogy a megkeresett pénz mekkora vásárlóerőt képvisel, azaz a termékeknek és szolgáltatásoknak az a mennyisége, ami a bérból megvásárolható. Amennyiben az infláció nő, de a nominálbér nem emelkedik hasonló szinten, akkor az a reálbér csökkenéséhez vezet, ami azt jelenti, hogy a munkavállaló kevesebb terméket és szolgáltatást tud megvásárolni ugyanabból a pénzből.

A szlovák Munka Törvénykönyvének 119. § (1) bekezdése értelmében minden munkavállaló jogosult legalább a minimálbérre. A minimálbér intézetét Szlovákiában a Minimálbürről szóló 663/2007. számú törvény és későbbi módosításai szabályozzák. A minimálbér a következőképpen kerül meghatározásra (1. sz. táblázat):

- havi (euró/hónap)
- óránkénti (euró/óra).

1. sz. táblázat: A minimálbér összege 2024-ben Szlovákiában.

A munka nehézségi foka	Minimálbér koefficiens	Minimálbér/hónap euróban	Minimálbér/óra euróban
1	1,0	750	4,310
2	1,2	866	4,977
3	1,4	982	5,644
4	1,6	1 098	6,310
5	1,8	1 214	6,977
6	2,0	1 330	7,644

*Forrás: A Szlovák Köztársaság Munkaügyi, Szociális és Családügyi Minisztériumának
372. számú közleménye*

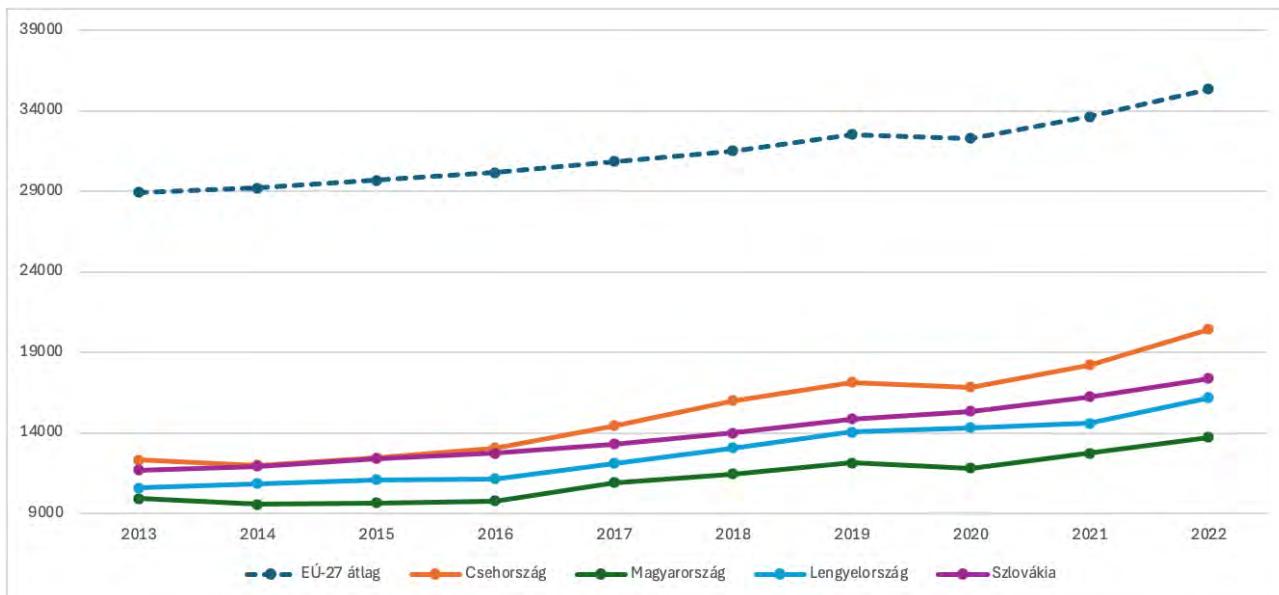
A minimálbér megállapításának módja Szlovákiában olyan elven működik, hogy a munkáltatók és a munkavállalók képviselői minden év július 15-ig megállapodnak a jövő évre vonatkozó havi minimálbér összegében. Amennyiben az említett felek nem állapodnak meg ennek összegében (így volt ez a 2023-as évben is), akkor a Gazdasági és Szociális Tanács augusztus 31-ig ezt újra tárgyalja. A tanácsnak lehetősége van háromoldalú megállapodást kötni. Ha ezen határidőig sem születik közöttük megállapodás, akkor a következő naptári évre vonatkozó havi minimálbérének összege a Statisztikai Hivatal által közzétett két évvel ezelőtti átlagos havi nominálbér 57 %-ának megfelelő összeg lesz. A 2024-évi havi 750 eurós minimálbér azokat a dolgozókat illeti, akik teljes munkaidőben dolgoznak és a munkájuk az első nehézségi fokba sorolható.

A jelen kutatás célja megvizsgálni és értékelni az EU tagországai közötti bérkülönbségeket, átlagberek és a minimálberek szempontjából. Ezzel igazolásra kerülhet az a feltételezés, hogy a bérkülönbség egyik meghatározója lehet az állampolgárok eltérő életminőségének.

eredmény pozitívnak tűnik, de figyelembe kell venni a nominálbér-mutató használatából adódó korlátokat, amelyek a reálbér-mutatótól eltérően nem feltétlenül tükrözik a tényleges értéket a lakosság számára (vagyis a javak mennyisége, amelyet adott árszint mellett megengedhet magának az ember). A fentiek alapján elmondható, hogy az átlagos nominálbérek pozitívan értékelt növekedése önmagában nem jelenti azt, hogy az adott ország lakosságának életminőségét pozitívan befolyásolja. A nominálbér nagyon fontos előjelzőnek tekinthető, amit célszerű azonban összefüggésbe hozni a fogyasztói kosár árszintjének változásával (inflációs/deflációs tényező).

Súlyosnak tekinthető az a megállapítás, hogy az elmúlt tíz évben a tagországok csaknem kétharmada nem érte el az uniós átlagot. Itt 17 országról van szó, amelyek közül Bulgária a legrosszabb helyezést éri el, ezt követi Magyarország és Románia. Görögország és Lengyelország jelenleg hátulról a negyedik és az ötödik helyen áll. Ebben a nem hizelgő rangsorban Szlovákia a végétől számítva a hatodik helyet foglalja el. Szintén érdekes összehasonlítani Szlovákiát a közvetlen szomszédos országokkal, akik egyben a Visegrádi Négyek (V4) csoportját is alkotják. Az alábbi 1. számú ábra a V4 országok átlagbéréinek alakulását és az Európai Uniós átlagot hasonlítja össze.

1. sz. ábra: Teljes munkaidőben alkalmazásban állók éves átlagbéra a V4 országokban, összehasonlítva az EU átlaggal (euróban)

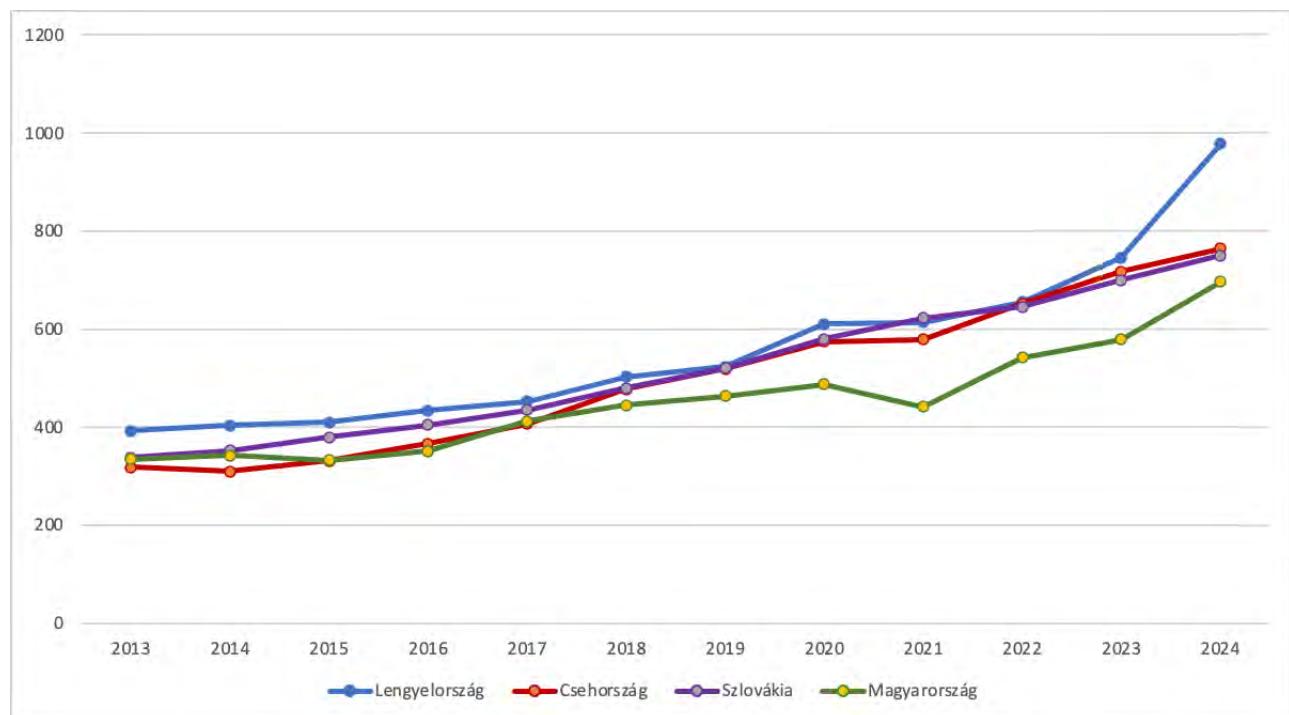


Forrás: Saját feldolgozás az Eurostat adatainak felhasználásával, 2024a

Az alábbi rész az uniós tagországokon belüli jövedelmek különbségeire összpontosít. Itt olyan mutató kerül ismertetésre, amely a vizsgált időszak során a legjobban keresők 20 %-ának és a legkevesebbet keresők 20 %-ának arányát jelenti meg (3. sz. táblázat) az egyes tagországokban.

Érdekességeként megemlíthetjük azt, hogy négy országban volt olyan év, amikor az évközi változás mértéke negatív volt: Németországban 2020-ban 17 euróval csökkent a minimálbér 2019-hez képest, Csehországban 2014-ben 8 euróval csökkent 2013-hoz képest, Magyarországon 2015-ben 9 euróval csökkent 2014-hez képest, Romániában 2021-ben 8 euróval csökkent 2020-hoz képest. Fontosnak tartjuk továbbá összehasonlítani Szlovákiában lévő minimálbert a közvetlenül szomszédos országokkal, amelyek egyben a Visegrádi csoportot is alkotják. A 2. sz. ábra a minimálbérek alakulásának összehasonlítását mutatja a V4 országokban.

2. sz. ábra: Minimálbérek a V4-es országokban (euróban)



Forrás: Saját feldolgozás az Eurostat adatainak felhasználásával, 2024c

A vizsgált 12 éves időszak alatt a Lengyelországban regisztrálják a legjelentősebb növekedést a V4-es országok közül, ahol a minimálbér 148,65 %-kal (585 euróval) nőtt. A legszerényebb növekedés Magyarországon figyelhető meg, annak ellenére, hogy a minimálbér 108,06 %-kal (362 euróval) emelkedett a vizsgált időszak alatt.

Lengyelországban a legjelentősebb növekedés 2024-ben történt, 2023-hoz képest 232 euró összeggel, azaz 746 euróról 978 euróra nőtt. Csehország és Szlovákia a vizsgált időszakban közel azonos szinten mozgott, de mégincsak 2021-ig Szlovákiában valamivel magasabb volt a minimálbér Csehországéhoz képest. A fordulópont 2022-ben következett be, amikor Csehország megelőzte Szlovákiát. Jelenleg minden összesen 14 euró a különbség a cseh és szlovák minimálbér között. 2024-ben Szlovákia a harmadik helyen van a négy országgal összevetve. Legjelentősebb különbség az első helyen álló Lengyelország és negyedik helyen álló Magyarország minimálbéré között figyelhető meg, a különbség 281 euró.

A fentiekre tekintettel elmondható, hogy a vizsgált időszak elején a minimálbér mind a négy államban minimálisan változott. A minimálbérek páros éves mérsékelt fejlődése után a világot válság rázta meg, mégpedig a Covid-19 világjárvány kirobbanása következtében. Emiatt Szlovákia kivételével a V4 országokban stagnálás állt be, Magyarországon 2021-ben még csökkent is a minimálbér 35 euróval. A világjárványt követő években a minimálbér-fejlődési görbe meredekébb emelkedése figyelhető meg, különösképpen Lengyelország és Magyarország esetében.

ÖSSZEGZÉS

A vizsgálat eredményei egyértelműen azt mutatják, hogy az Európai Unió tagországai között jelentős a bérkülönbség, ami kihatással lehet ezen országok állampolgárainak életminőségére is, hiszen az életminőség meghatározásánál a gazdasági-pénzügyi terület egyik tényező az öt közül. (jellemző szubjektív és objektív paraméterekkel).

Elmondható, hogy az Európai Unió tagországai között lényegesen eltérőek az átlagbérek is. Ezt az állítást igazolja az a tény is, hogy a vizsgált időszak utolsó évében a legmagasabb éves átlagkereset Luxemburgban volt (75 409 euró összegben), a legalacsonyabb pedig Bulgáriában (csak 11 850 euró összegben). Itt meg kell jegyezni, hogy a megfigyelés során ezek az extrém értékek nem egyedülállóak. Több állam átlagbérénél összege megközelíti a fent említett minimum és maximum összeget. Az egyes országok pozíciója a vizsgált időszakban azonban stabil, mivel az átlagbérek nagysága szerinti sorrend nem változott. Nagyon negatívnak tekinthető az a megállapítás, hogy a tagországok közel kétharmadában (17) alacsonyabb az átlagbér, mint az uniós átlag. Bérkülönbségek nemcsak az egyes országok között figyelhető meg, hanem az egyes országokon belül is. Ezt az állítást a kvintilis S80/S20 mutatója is igazolja, e szerint ismét Bulgária van a legrosszabb helyzetben.

Minimálbér az Európai Unió 27 tagállama közül 22 tagállamban kerül meghatározásra. A minimálberek nagyságának rangsorában Szlovákia 2024-ben a tizennyolcadik helyen áll, ami azt jelenti, hogy a 22 tagország közül a minimálbér itt az ötödik legalacsonyabb. Szlovákiában a minimálbér először 2000-ben került meghatározásra, és feladata, hogy a lakosság számára biztosítja a minimális standardot és az életminőség alapszintjének növekedését. A „magas” minimálbérrel rendelkező országok csoportjába tartozó összes ország az Európai Unió kezdeti időszakában lépett az unióba (5 állam 1958-ban és egy állam, Írország 1973-ban). Az "alacsony" minimálbéres csoporthoz tartozó nyolc ország csak 2004-ben és ezt követően csatlakozott az unióhoz. Ezek az országok húsz év tagság után is többszörösen alacsonyabb szintű minimálbérrel rendelkeznek, mint a „magas” minimálbérrel rendelkező országok. Mišudík (2024) szerint Szlovákiában jelenleg körülbelül 140 ezren kapnak munkájukért minimálbert. A kutatásunk alapján elmondható, hogy 2024-ben jelentősen nőttek az európai minimálberek. Az országok jobban figyelembe vették az inflációt, és érvényesülni látszik az új európai irányelv hatása is.

A minimálberek területén felmerülő hiányosságok kiküszöbölésére az Európai Parlament 2022 őszén irányelvet fogadott el, ami szerint a tagállamok kötelesek megfelelő minimálbert bevezetni. Ezt a dokumentumot ugyanazon év októberében az Európai Unió Tanácsa is megerősítette. Az irányelv célja, hogy az európai munkavállalók számára megteremtse a tiszteséges munka- és életkörülmények javítását. A megfelelő minimálberek a nemzeti gazdasági és szociális feltételek mellett biztosítják a munkavállaló és családja szükségleteinek kielégítését, ösztönzik a foglalkoztatáshoz jutást és a munkakeresést is. A minimálberek által nyújtott védelem és az e téren fennálló különbségek kezelése hozzájárul a békrek felzárkóztatásához, az uniós munkaerőpiacának méltányosabbá tételehez, és a szociális egyenlőtlenségek csökkentéséhez. Az irányelv tiszteletben tartja a tagállamok eltérő nemzeti hagyományait; azt, hogy a minimálbérből fakadó védelem egyes országokban jogszabályi alapon nyugszik, más országokban pedig kollektív szerződések alapul. Ezen túlmenően az intézkedés egyéb előnyökkel is jár, mint például az életminőség javulása, a szegénység csökkentése, a termelékenység növelése stb. Az Európai tagállamoknak 2024 decemberéig az irányelvek rendelkezéseit be kell építeni saját nemzeti jogszabályába (az Európai Unió Tanácsa 2022a).

A bérkülönbségek kihatással vannak egy államon belül, de különböző iparágakban dolgozó állampolgárok életminőségére is. Példaként felhözható Szlovákia esete, ahol 2023-ban a pénzügy és biztosítás területén dolgozók havi átlagbéra (2 428 euró) és a vendéglátásban dolgozók havi átlagbéra (835 euró) között óriási a különbség (Statisztikai Hivatal SR 2024). Úgyszintén említésre méltó az, hogy a nőknek és a férfiaknak joguk van azonos munkakör betöltésér, azonos értékű munkára egyenlő béréssel, de a gyakorlatban mégis jelentős különbség figyelhető meg köztük. A nemek közötti bérszakadék az Európai Unióban megközelítőleg 12 %-ot tesz ki, a nők hátrányára. Szlovákia esetében ez 18,8 %. Az Európai Bizottság 2020 márciusában politikai prioritásaként jelölte meg

a díjazások átláthatóságát, amikor közzétette a nemek közötti egyenlőség stratégiáját 2020-2025 közötti évekre vonatkozóan (Európai Bizottság 2023). A javadalmazás átláthatóságáról szóló irányelv 2023. június 6-án lépett hatályba. Ebben a bekezdésben említett bérkülönbségek kutatása alkotja e tanulmány szerzőinek további érdeklődését és kutatási területét.

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THE IMPACT OF DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION ON BUSINESS MANAGEMENT IN TURKISH ORGANIZATIONS

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Abstract

The purpose of this article is to show how the digital transition took place and is taking place in the Turkish economy, where larger companies already took serious steps in the 2010s in the field of distribution of cloud-based services and big data analysis, while in the early 2020s, artificial intelligence was already enthusiastically used by them.

The business practices of Turkish companies are presented with the help of academic analytical writings, case studies and the companies' websites. The research points out that, in order to increase efficiency and profits, as well as expand the market, Turkish companies perform almost world-class work, despite the fact that Internet penetration and the development of infrastructure lags behind Western standards. The reason for this can be found in the fact that Turkish companies can spend less on innovations than their European competitors. At the same time, it is clear that digital transformation increases competitiveness and offers new opportunities for the future of the Turkish economy.

Keywords: Turkey, Digital Economy, Business, Management

INTRODUCTION

Digital transformation means the broad integration of digital technologies into business processes, structures and strategies, which fundamentally changes how businesses operate and create value. This transformation involves not only the use of technology, but also companies reassessing and redesigning their business models, workflows and customer relationships to increase efficiency, flexibility and competitiveness. The digital transition is essential for all businesses, including Turkish companies, as they must remain successful in a global economic system and an increasingly internationalized market. Digitization makes companies resilient in the aforementioned environment and enables them to continuously renew themselves. Innovation can be a challenge at first, but at the same time, during long-term work, these are integrated into corporate methodology as good practice. Continuous technical and technological renewal can contribute to companies conquering new markets and reaching new customers.

In the first half of the 2020s, several global trends can be mentioned as examples of the digital and technological transition. The use of artificial intelligence is spreading all over the world, from industrial design to service sectors. In addition to the revolutionary expansion of artificial intelligence, the proliferation of cloud-based data storage and related business solutions is also striking. In addition to these, the role of big data analysis in the practice of the global capitalist companies is becoming more and more important. There are numerous international examples like Amazon, Tesla or GE, and the leading large Turkish companies are also taking advantage of the opportunities provided by new technologies. Turkcell, the Turkish infocommunications giant with the largest market share, uses AI and cloud-based technologies to analyze customer data and automate customer service processes, improving service quality and efficiency. Ziraat Bankasi, which advanced from a network of savings cooperatives to become one of the largest commercial banks, developed its mobile application using similar methods, but also managed to speed up financial transactions. Arcelik, the leading Turkish manufacturer of ultra-modern household appliances, likes to use artificial intelligence when designing its products.

The aim of the present article is to examine how digital transformation affects business management practices in organizations in Turkey. The study seeks to explore how the integration of digital technologies is transforming management strategies, business processes and decision-making processes in Turkey

1. OVERVIEW OF DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN TURKEY

Turkey's internet penetration rate -according to Simon Kemp's global digital survey- reached 83.4% in 2023, which on the one hand represents an increase of 0.6%, and on the other hand places the country somewhat behind the world leaders in international rankings. This value therefore shows that just over four-fifths of the Turkish population and consumers regularly use the Internet in this way, that is the number of people who are able to fit into the digital commercial practice both financially and in terms of knowledge. (Kemp, 2023) The survey by Turkey-based TURSTAT paints a much more favorable picture of Turkish families' internet access and internet habits. According to this data, in 2022, 94.1% of Turkish households had a device for accessing the World Wide Web, which means an increase of 2.1% compared to the previous year. According to this source, 89.1% of Turkish men and 80.9% of women surf the Internet regularly. (Kahveci, 2023)

Although Turkey thus lags somewhat behind the developed West, Turkish businesses, including the largest groups, started preparing and practicing the digital transition at the same time. One of the best examples is one of the country's largest corporate conglomerates, Koc Holding, which started this work in 2016. KocDigital, which already existed within the group, then created KocSistem in cooperation with the Boston Hedge Funds Consulting Group and is focused on advanced analytics. Koc Holding did not get stuck at the level of reorganizing the group's commercial practice in accordance with the challenges of the new age, but quickly started training employees. An organization called Koc Digital Academy was created, the purpose of which is to train employees in the field of data analysis for business purposes (Kanat Dogan, 2023).

After the business sector, the Turkish government also tried to embrace the issue of the digital transition, which it connected with territorial development projects covering the provinces of Istanbul, Kocaeli and Izmir. Thanks to this, an Industry and Technology Strategy Plan was created for 2023. Good practices such as Turkish Technology Team Foundation and Teknofest were also launched on central initiative. (Kanat Dogan, 2023) The most recent Teknofest was held in October 2024 in the southern Turkish metropolis of Adana.

Although a serious digitization process was already observed among large companies in Turkey in the mid-2010s, in the case of small and medium-sized companies, digital strategy creation will only become typical in the early 2020s. However, a European-level survey in 2020 also showed that, in the case of Turkish companies in this segment, the interest in the topic far exceeded the EU average. While only 21% of EU companies had a developed digital transition plan, this ratio was already 49% in Turkey. And when asked whether a digital transition is or will be necessary for the company, 90% of Turkish entrepreneurs answered yes, while in Europe this number was only 76%. (Incekara et al., 2023)

Despite a lower level of internet usage than in the West, by the early 2020s, Turkey had a historic advantage in the corporate use of digital tools. The most striking difference between Turkey and the EU member states is in terms of smart devices. While 53% of Turkish businesses use smart sensors, displays or touch screens in some work process, only 21% of the companies in the EU can state the same. In the field of robotics, the difference is more than double, since 12% of Turkish factories already have such equipment, while in the EU only every 20th factory has it. The difference is almost the same in favor of Turkish companies if one considers the field of big data analytics. 19% of Turkish companies take advantage of this opportunity, while only one in ten Western companies do so. Of course, there are also areas where the difference is not significant. In cloud-based data storage and management, 43% of EU companies and 46% of Turkish companies can be classified as active users (Incekara et al., 2023).

In the 2020s, there are still certain obstacles that prevent the rapid implementation of the digital transition in Turkish business life. More than a third of Turkish small and medium-sized enterprises complain about the lack of financial resources, and the situation seems to be much worse here than in the European Union, where the same issue was mentioned by only 23% of the respondents. Slightly more people in Turkey than in the EU commented negatively on the lack of adequate infrastructure and high-speed internet (Incekara et al., 2023). Of course, there are statistical indicators in which Turkish companies lag far behind Western ones. According to some surveys, only

9% of Turkish companies employ a separate info-communications specialist, while only 10% of cases are able to place orders in a digital environment (Sinanoglu, 2021).

Although the leading companies of Turkish economic life can be characterized by a more serious use of digital tools than their Western counterparts, despite the lower Internet usage habits, the other extreme also exists. The lower segment of Turkish business is completely cut off from the world of the Internet and the digital transition. A 2021 survey showed that a quarter of Turkish small and medium enterprises do not even have a website (Sinanoglu, 2021).

For the Turkish government and public sector, integrating digital transformation into the industrial sector is a key aspect of the development framework, which focuses on value-added production. The 2023 Industrial and Technological Strategy, which serves as the precise implementation plan for the National Technology Initiative, identifies digital transformation as one of its five pillars. Technological developments are creating significant disruptions in different economic and social areas and present both opportunities and challenges for nations. The National Technology Initiative strategically aims to exploit these emerging opportunities to the fullest extent. Specific strategies and action plans are being developed to this end, including the Digital Agenda for Industry, which is currently being finalised for formal publication by the Ministry of Industry and Technology (Costu, 2022).

The half-hearted Turkish digital transition is taking place in a slowly improving social environment, where the government mostly recognized the need for economic support in this direction during and after the COVID-19 epidemic. It can still be said that Turkey spends a small proportion of its budget on research and development. While Israel uses 4.95% of its GDP and South Korea 4.81% for this purpose, in the case of Turkey it is only 1.03%. At the same time, it is worth underlining that, as a result of the pandemic, there was a nearly 10% increase in this field between 2019 and 2020 (Izmen et al. 2021).

Regarding the online public services index, Turkey is in the middle of the developed world. The value of 0.86 in 2021 is, on the one hand, a significant improvement compared to the times before the epidemic, and on the other hand, it means that this range of Turkish government services is ahead of developed countries that are at the forefront of digitalization, such as Italy, Ireland or even Israel (Izmen et al., 2021).

In order to remedy the uneven development, the Turkish government started implementing pilot programs. Their aim is to develop an organic digitization model in the Turkish economic environment. In 2022, demonstration plants were opened in eight cities, namely Ankara, Bursa, Gaziantep, Izmir, Kayseri, Konya, Mersin and Adana, on the model of which the Ankara cabinet wants to transform Turkish industrial practice. The long-term goal of the Turkish leadership is to connect these enterprises to the global networks of the fourth industrial revolution, in which the World Economic Forum also supports the Asia Minor country (Costu, 2022).

2. IMPACT ON BUSINESS MANAGEMENT PRACTICES

In Turkey, examples of large companies using digital tools to optimize their performance can now be found in all areas of the economy. At one of the Swiss-owned giants of the trade sector, corporate operations aimed mostly at operational efficiency can be observed. Migros, one of the largest retail companies, uses artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning to optimize inventory and predict demand. Thanks to this innovative technological solution, the company reduced the number of stock shortages by 20% and achieved a 15% increase in sales. This result shows that digital transformation and technological developments can bring not only efficiency gains, but also significant business benefits. With the help of AI and machine learning, Migros was able to more accurately analyze customer behavior, predict changes in demand, and adapt its inventory and procurement strategy accordingly. In addition, the 15% increase in sales also indicates that technological developments have a direct impact on the company's profitability. Through more accurate demand forecasting and inventory management, Migros is better able to adapt to customers' needs, thereby increasing revenues (Kaya, 2024).

According to a research, the automation of processes is useful not only in the field of commercial services, but also in human spheres such as higher education and healthcare. A study showed that robotic process automation (RPA) applied at Bakircay University in Izmir was very successful in the 2020s. The goal was to start an administrative process, i.e. to prepare a student internship obligation document, which applies to more than a thousand students every year. Before automation, this process took 480 minutes with four workers, but after the introduction of RPA it was reduced to just 16 minutes and one worker, representing a 96.67% time and 75% labor saving. Costs were reduced by 98.51%. With the introduction of RPA, it was possible to completely eliminate the possibility of human errors, and the sending of documents with a digital signature is also done automatically (Olucoglu et al., 2023).

According to a survey conducted in 2021, in which 402 healthcare professionals out of 23,992 Turkish family doctors were involved, and the average age of the participants was 34.56 years, the use of artificial intelligence had only slightly penetrated the Turkish healthcare sector at that time. According to the results, the majority of doctors have not received AI training and their level of concern about AI is extremely low. The introduction of AI applications and appropriate training can improve the attitude of family doctors and contribute to increasing patient safety. AI applications may play an important role in primary healthcare in the future, especially in supporting diagnostic and administrative tasks (Baser et al., 2021).

The year 2021 is important not only because of the aforementioned investigation, but also because it was then that the Turkish government's national artificial intelligence strategy for the period 2021-2025 was formulated. The aim of the strategy was to increase the contribution of AI to the growth of the Turkish economy. Erdogan's cabinet hoped that this would create 50,000 new jobs and that the training of artificial intelligence specialists would also support increasing the country's competitiveness. Turkey's goal in 2021 was to become one of the 20 most developed countries in the world in the field of AI and to increase its GDP by 5% thanks to this field. The strategy identifies six main directions, such as training experts, supporting research and innovation, and accelerating socio-economic adaptation (Shkurti Ozdemir, 2021).

In addition to the increasing use of artificial intelligence, cloud-based solutions are very popular among larger companies in Turkey. However, according to a survey, 8% of small and medium-sized enterprises were already interested in cloud computing in 2014, which still means more than 200,000 companies and a market worth 105 million dollars per month. SMBs spend an average of \$509 per month on these services. The performance of the Turkish IT industry increased to 139 million dollars per month in 2015. (Silahtaroglu et al., 2014) The revenue in the public cloud market is projected to reach 2020 billion USD in 2024. The infrastructure of the the market is worth 698.3 billion USD in 2024 (Statista, 2024).

The most active sectors are retail, shipping and warehousing, which account for 40% and 14% of the market. According to the survey, companies that have been operating for more than 9 years or are newly founded show the greatest interest in cloud services (75%). Security and data protection concerns (40%) and refusal to change the business model (36%) are behind the rejections (Silahtaroglu et al., 2014).

Cloud-based technologies in human resources management support the work of Turkish companies' specialists in simpler reporting, analysis and follow-up, saving time and helping to make strategic decisions. However, some companies complain about the confusion of the legal regulations and worry about potential cyber-attacks, currency fluctuations and unexpected audits, but it is expected that Turkish companies will increasingly use cloud-based technology in the near future. According to the optimistic approach, human resources will not decrease as people will perform tasks that require machine-human interaction. However, according to the pessimistic approach, machines can replace physical work, and even activities that require creativity will be performed with artificial intelligence tools (Ergen, 2020).

3. CHALLENGES OF DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION IN TURKISH ORGANIZATIONS

The spread of digital solutions was opposed by Turkish culture, but the emergence of the Internet in the 90s was a turning point, as many traditional cultural and economic monopolies were abolished and new opportunities opened up for young people. NOMAD and other groups such as Düğümküme and f.reeP_ have become active players in the process of digital renewal, combining local knowledge and international connections. Due to the relative underdevelopment of the infrastructure and the lack of funding, economic actors often look for opportunities abroad, which hinders the development of local digital culture (Senova, 2013).

Perhaps the biggest obstacle to the spread of digital technologies in Turkey is the fear of them. Business actors name two basic reasons. On the one hand, they are afraid of the lack of cyber security options, and on the other hand, they feel that there is not enough legislation to protect them. The situation is that the Turkish political elite already started to create the most comprehensive regulation in the early 1990s. Council of Ministers Resolution No. 2012/3842 was the first modern step, which entered into force in June 2012. This document regulated the operation of organizations providing public services and the framework for cyber protection, including ensuring the security and confidentiality of services, data and systems. The Ministry of Transport and Infrastructure (formerly the Ministry of Transport, Maritime Affairs and Communications) is responsible for overseeing the operation of e-government services and coordinating cyber defense tasks with other government agencies. The ministry's responsibilities include developing national cyber defense strategies, guaranteeing the security of IT and communication infrastructures, and the ministry oversees the training of cyber defense personnel, international cooperation, and issues security certificates to actors operating in the field (Liszkowska, 2024).

In 2016, Turkey decided to issue a series of three-year cyber security plans, the first of which was titled "National Cyber Security Strategy and Action Plan 2016-2019", with the aim of maintaining cyber security at an acceptable level. The main goals of the strategy included strengthening the protection of critical infrastructures, fighting cybercrime, developing awareness and human resources, building a cybersecurity ecosystem, and integrating it into national security. At the same time, the first comprehensive e-government strategy and action plan (2016–2019) was completed, which aimed at Turkey's digital transformation and development. In 2020, for the period 2020-2023. This is why, in August 2023, Türkiye was ranked 55th in the National Cyber Security Index, which means that Turkey is not among the leaders in the world in this field, but it is not significantly behind (Liszkowska, 2024).

In addition to the issue of cyber security, many Turkish business actors and private individuals are also worried about the security of personal data, and as a result, there is a kind of resistance to the digital transition. In the Turkish legal system, the protection of privacy is ensured by several laws, including the Turkish Constitution, the Criminal Code and the Turkish Data Protection Act No. 6698 (DPA), which entered into force in 2016 and is based on the EU data protection directive. Like the GDPR, the aim of the Turkish regulation is to protect privacy and data security, but the need for legal harmonization with the European Union and European jurisprudence still exists, especially in the area of "right to be forgotten" and data management. In some cases, however, the DPA imposes stricter rules than the GDPR, for example in the case of transferring personal data abroad, which hinders the operation of international companies (Ersoy, 2023).

4. OPPORTUNITIES PRESENTED BY DIGITAL TRANSFORMATION

In the Turkish market, there are more and more actors that implement the good practices resulting from the digital transition in practice. These exercises have two basic purposes. On the one hand, these innovations enable the continuous renewal of the given companies and their adaptation to the challenges of the global market. On the other hand, these practices contribute to the fact that customers increasingly enjoy the experience of shopping and making economic connections, which makes them returning guests and contributes to break down the so-called bazaar approach, i.e. so that a company only wants to serve a client once, since a new customer always comes. Here are a few successful examples.

Trendyol is one of the leading Turkish online clothing distributors, their website also proves the company's commitment to digital transformation in the retail sector. As Turkey's leading e-commerce platform, Trendyol uses technology to improve customer experiences, and also applies digital technologies to simplify operations and improve logistics. Their goals include providing innovative solutions that effectively connect consumers with different products (Trendyol, 2024).

Yemeksepeti is one of Turkey's most successful food delivery businesses. The company was founded in 2000 by Nevzat Aydin and two partners, but today it is part of a network based in Germany. The company initially started by taking orders by telephone, then switched to e-commerce, providing significant cost and profit advantages. The website provides a service available 24/7, which increases sales. Yemeksepeti enables customers to find cheaper and better quality products, thus expanding the target customer base. The company uses a B2C model, which helps in managing customer information and optimizing the marketing strategy (Gencer, 2017).

Another successful home delivery company in Turkey is Getir, which means "Bring it here!". It is a mobile application that is available 24/7 and can quickly deliver a thousand products to your home within 10 minutes. The advantages of the application include significantly reducing the time and effort of shopping, and the delivery of products is carried out in a secure manner. Environmentally conscious Getir also offers unique packaging to preserve the quality of the products. Thanks to continuous digital renewal, this Turkish company is also preparing for global expansion (Eken and Gezmen, 2020).

CONCLUSION

Business digitization, as the examples from Turkey above clearly show, is essential for the spread of modern economic methods and for businesses to successfully integrate into the global market, reach consumers more easily and provide them with a better shopping experience.

In the case of Turkey, there are many successful examples of how the digital transition has brought about a revolutionary change in the life of companies. Merchants originally set up for telephone orders have used artificial intelligence, cloud-based technologies and smart devices to increase their revenues with the use of mobile communication. This is behind the business success of Trendyol, Yemeksepeti and Getir.

However, the profitable practice of some companies does not mean that the entire Turkish SME sector will benefit from the transition. Many enterprises struggle with a lack of financial resources and therefore cannot develop their infrastructure sufficiently, which is a prerequisite for the digital transition.

However, it is also worth mentioning that the Turkish government is trying to promote the digital transition through its industrial and technological strategies. If government and business representatives can work together effectively, the potential effects of the spread of digital technologies can be applied to economic growth and access to new markets.

However, the key to this is training and awareness. For the effective application of digital technologies, it is essential to sensitize the Turkish people, increase internet penetration, and train workers and increase cyber security awareness.

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THE PHILOSOPHY BEHIND THE BUILDING BLOCKS OF STRATEGIC THINKING

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Abstract

Economic theory starts from regular economic decisions and explores their circumstances. The classical theory of the firm is based on the rational behaviour of economic agents, which presupposes perfect information. Since this is not always achieved in the economy, the rationality of economic decisions is generally limited. Uncertainty must therefore be taken into account and incorporated into decisions.

Business decisions are influenced by the degree of certainty, uncertainty and risk, as well as the potential for conflict. The preparation of decisions starts with information gathering and information quality assessment, and ends with modelling, using decision support tools to evaluate alternatives. To help navigate between the many different models and identify the characteristics of a good model, they can be grouped according to their usability.

Keywords: managerial decision making, strategy theories, time horizons, forecasting

INTRODUCTION

Strategy is a distinctive, forward-looking approach that is increasingly eclipsing the traditional approach of analysing the past. As the economic environment in which companies operate has changed dramatically and fundamentally - from stability to volatility, from predictability to uncertainty, from national scale to global scale, from production-centric to marketing-centric, from capital-centric to knowledge-centric - these effects have required changes in corporate governance. The conventional, company-focused, past-driven, trend-following approach has been replaced by a strategic, environment-focused, market-driven, competitive advantage-driven approach that looks to the future and in which the role of time has changed.

The strategy distinguishes between several important time horizons. The time horizons of the processes and events that play a role in strategic planning are determined by the length of the innovation cycles in the life of the company and the foreseeable time horizon required. The need to anticipate change would require forecasts that look as far ahead as possible, but there are limits to what can be predicted. The right time horizon should provide a secure framework for development decisions. However, the foreseeable time horizon can vary widely. The typical time horizons of the production structure will be framed by the length of the market life curves of the priority product-technologies and the improvement-renewal life cycles of the associated major production tools and skills.

The anticipation of dynamic changes is of great importance in the strategy. The aim of a sound strategy is to establish the set of objectives necessary for the future survival of the company. Strategic forecasting can contribute to this by identifying the expected changes and trends that will help or hinder the achievement of strategic objectives.

Small and medium-sized enterprises are also the ones that can keep up with the changes and stay competitive in the market. It is therefore important for strategic planners to anticipate significant changes that may occur in the company's operations and to develop responses to those changes. In addition to a specific approach, strategy is also a set of long-term plans, which are not, of course, based on a simple extrapolation of past processes. It is also "worth and necessary to fundamentally rethink our thinking on SMEs, and it is therefore particularly important for the SME sector to develop new alternatives." (Hegedűs, 2012). Good planning and management require an accurate understanding of the company's position in the market environment, the position of competitors and the interactions of market capital flows. Economic development must imply that more and more small and medium sized enterprises are operating in the field of production, which already requires business forecasting. For more information on the economic role of small businesses; on the changes caused

by external circumstances, which are the reason for the crisis resilience rooted in tradition, see the studies entitled: The specific way out of the crisis for small businesses (Hegedűs, 2011) and on the motivations and effects of possible fraud in the SME sector (Hegedűs, 2014).

1. FORECASTING THE ACTIVITY OF SMALL AND MEDIUM-SIZED ENTERPRISES

The aim of any forecast is to obtain preliminary information about the future. Forecasting can meet this general objective if the outcome of the process is effective information. The information is considered effective if it has the potential to generate new information. The forecasting process involves finding out what scientific knowledge, ready-made forecasts, statistical data and analyses already exist on the subject of the forecast, and the subsequent forecast is based on this knowledge. Companies are developing strategies in many, many areas. Large companies mainly focus on sales, human resources and financial investments, followed by product development and production. Half of the companies develop strategies for quality, environment, IT, education, R&D and occupational health and safety. These have an average time span of 3-6 years. "Service companies and enterprises prepare strategies mostly for service development and delivery, education and IT. Then come human resources, financial investment, logistics, R&D and quality assurance. On average, the strategies have a time span of 4-6 years." (Nováky, 1998-2005).

The use of forecasts is very wide-ranging. Four-fifths of large companies produce them, and nearly 50-50% have them produced or buy ready-made forecasts. 84% of service companies and enterprises use forecasts. Companies that use forecasts mainly produce them, but also either have them produced or buy ready-made forecasts. The more open and technology-sensitive a company is, whether in large enterprises or in the service sector, the more it needs to obtain forecasts of its external environment.

Large companies use forecasts for several purposes. The most important of these are strategic interest and improving competitiveness. They also play an important role in anticipating market trends, competitors and macro factors, and in improving profitability. Service providers also use forecasts for a number of purposes, the most important of which are strategic interest and gaining a priori knowledge of market developments and competitors. "Improving competitiveness and profitability also play an important role. However, forecasts are not used at all to anticipate technological developments and consumer habits. Managers in both large companies and service companies and enterprises believe that top management can best shape the future of the company/enterprise by participating in the development of corporate strategy." (Nováky, 1998-2005). In addition, the effort to increase the adaptability of the company and the attention to balancing the budget are important tools. "Some enterprises have been forced to take life-saving, cost-cutting measures in order to survive." (Hegedűs, 2012).

Forecasting the business process involves forecasting economic policy. Changes, turning points and, consequently, forecasts of these changes are also of paramount importance for business management. In developed countries, a system of leading, lagging and lagging indicators has been developed to indicate the cyclical nature of economic movements.

The leading indicators:

- the real value of GDP
- the volume of industrial production
- population income
- industrial sales
- retail trade turnover

Leading indicators are indices of economic variables whose maximum and minimum values tend to precede the peaks and troughs of the conjunct cycle and to start falling or rising earlier than the conjunct cycle curve. The change in inventories and order books, and the development of investment are leading indicators (their increase is an indication of the expected increase in supply).

Price indices are also leading indicators in the sense that they anticipate the expected change in monetary policy (for example, an increase in the policy rate): if prices start to rise sharply, central banks will sooner or later react by raising interest rates.

The co-moving indicators:

- the average length of the working week
- average monthly unemployment benefits
- the evolution of industrial order books
- the change in stock prices

The turning points of the co-moving indices indicate the approximate peaks and troughs of general economic activity cycles. The co-moving indicators of the business cycle include the volume index of industrial production as an indicator of supply or the index of retail trade turnover, which indicates the evolution of household demand, exports and imports.

Lagging indicators are:

- the evolution of investment in fixed capital formation
- the consumer price index
- the evolution of the base rate of the central bank.

The lagging indicator indices reach their maximum and minimum values after the peaks and troughs of the business cycle. Labour variables are generally treated as lagged variables, given the lagged nature of wage and employment cycles. The earlier the indicator indicates the development of the business cycle, the more useful it is for economic policy.

1.1 Forecasting methods

A full description is of course not possible, but for this reason I would like to present a classification. All forecasting methods can be traced back to two basic procedures:

- extrapolation (forecasting)
- extrapolation (back-calculation)

Extrapolation is the hypothetical projection into the future of identified past and present regularities and trends, assuming their continuation. In back-calculation, the starting point is the future. The present situation is compared with hypotheses for the future. These two procedures interact, and it is by using them together that objective reality is best approximated.

Forecasting methods are roughly the same in substance and description worldwide, but the way in which they are organised and used is very different. They have been grouped by Erich Jantsch according to their nature as follows (Jantsch, 1967):

- *intuitive thinking*
- brainstorming
- delphi method
- utopia and science fiction
- intuition

- *exploratory forecasting*
- extrapolation of time series (models using analogy and separate phenomenology-based models)
- learning curve
- environmental exploration
- morphological research

- scriptwriting and synoptic iteration
 - historical analogy
 - elements of probabilistic reconnaissance forecasting
 - economic analysis
 - operations research models
 - forecasting at aggregate level
- *normative forecasting*
- horizontal and vertical decision matrix
 - mathematical programming
 - hierarchical family tree method
 - network analysis
 - economic analysis
 - decision theory analysis
 - systems analysis
- *feedback procedures*
- simple loops
 - an integrated system of information procedures.

When applying these methods to business forecasting, subjective factors and the influence of chance cannot be ignored.

Developing a business strategy is a complex series of decisions. Gathering information, processing information and preparing decisions is a long process. The development of strategic plans is based on a well-functioning corporate information communication system. However, small and medium-sized enterprises are not in a position to develop an information system that fully meets the needs of managers in this area. They can call on the support of external service providers and research institutes for some of the preparatory work. The development of a strategic management system also serves to improve decision preparation. Its tools will help to better inform decisions on corporate and business strategies and strategic programmes.

2. STRATEGIC DECISION-MAKERS IN BUSINESS

The strategic decision-makers of companies are the managers of companies. Decision-making is a complex activity and cannot be reduced to simply choosing between alternatives. This last stage must be preceded by a long period of analysis, exploration and reflection. Herbert Alexander Simon sees decision-making as a central element of managerial activity, irrespective of the level of management or functional area, which in fact describes the manager's work. The most important skill for a leader is the ability to make decisions. This is a skill that all managers must develop. Decision-making ability is not an instinct born with the leader. "The skills necessary to gather information, plan and choose between alternatives can and must be learned in order to stay on one's feet in the long run." (Helbert A, 1982).

In managerial work, where decision-making is often defined as the essence of leadership, this activity takes many forms in practice, so in describing the relevant elements the relevant aspects. The way in which decisions are made in a given situation implies a choice between variations. This is called the static conception of decision-making. If we want to understand the nature of managerial decision making in more depth, we need to deal with its process, its dynamic conception.

Recognizing the decision situation is a very important phase of decision making, since the timing of the decision, the judgement of the situation when it becomes necessary to make a decision, cannot be indifferent. Since timely decisions require creativity and intuition, decisions are often taken too early or too late. Once the situation has been identified and perceived, the recognition phase is the start of the concrete process of action. The next step is the collection and analysis of information,

which is usually carried out by professional organisations or groups, where the necessary information is collected and organised in preparation for the decision. It is then, presumably by the same group, that the manager develops the options from which he or she will subsequently have to choose. This is followed by an evaluation and rating of the options using a set of criteria, which then outlines the decision to be taken. After the decision moment, after the choice, the decision process in the narrow sense of the word, the process of will formation is essentially completed. However, in order to implement the option developed and selected during the decision-making process, the process of will fulfilment is necessary, i.e. the possibilities, constraints and conditions for implementing the decision must be worked out.

The implementation of the chosen solution essentially means applying a system of resources to realise the decision. The importance of the monitoring process is demonstrated by the fact that it is essentially the feedback of the decision making process, where the activity allows the decision maker to determine whether feedback is needed for a phase and subsequently to make corrections, and to identify errors to be avoided in the future. The control process also includes the control of decisions taken during the implementation of the will, since errors may occur during the implementation that do not allow the quality of the original good decision to be achieved.

Depending on whether the decision making process focuses on strategy implementation or on control, three levels of decision making can be distinguished:

- strategic
- tactical
- operational

Decisions on corporate strategy are made at senior management level, are high risk, have a long-term impact and are usually heuristic and intuitive. Tactical decisions are medium-term, medium-risk and are usually preceded by qualitative analysis. Operational decisions are short-term, lower risk, solve a well-defined problem, usually following some form of quantitative analysis.

However, typical mistakes made by managers in the decision-making process can occur, the most common of which are:

- overestimating the importance of the decision
- creating a crisis situation
- failure to consult
- failure to acknowledge mistakes
- fear of the decision
- ignoring experience
- using incomplete and/or outdated data
- unfulfilled promises.

In economic decisions, there are usually cases where the decision-maker has all the information about possible events. Managerial decision-making may also involve risk, uncertainty and conflict, situations most often encountered in the competitive environment of a business.

In a business decision, the business information system cannot work on the basis of the theory of "this is the way it is done" or "this is probably the way it will be". If a business decision is imprecisely formulated, only half-baked, even if it contains hidden inconsistencies, it can still be implemented in the traditional way. In contrast, the computer cannot be programmed on the basis of "[w]e don't know exactly how it should be done yet. In fact, every special, rarely occurring case must be clarified down to the smallest detail. It is the intelligence of the human community that self-corrects the ill-conceived details. The computer cannot do that." (Locsmándi, 1992). Strategic decisions, with their inherent uncertainty, are made at the level of the management of small and medium-sized enterprises.

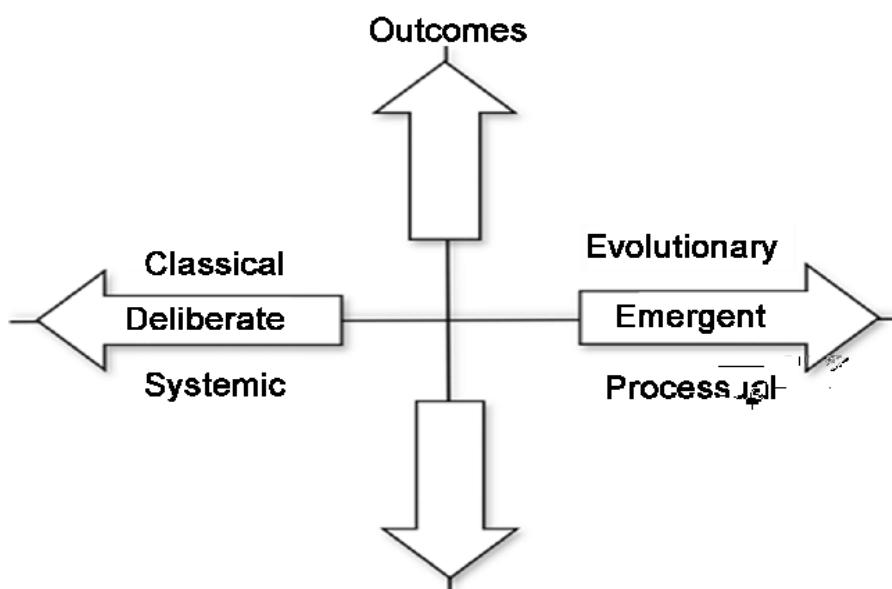
3. STRATEGY THEORIES

When we talk about corporate strategy, we most often talk about the tools and techniques of strategy making, strategy implementation, corporate policy making and strategy categorisation. Although the concept of strategy is still dominant in strategic management literature, there are other approaches to strategy. These are theories of strategy that use different basic assumptions about corporate behaviour and objectives, the content of inter-company relations and intra-company relations, and the macroeconomic environment, and accordingly capture the essence of strategy in different ways.

Strategy theories are delimited on the basis of their underlying assumptions about two important issues. The first relates to what is considered to be the objective of the company, and the second to the process in which the strategy is conceived. For both questions, two opposing assumptions can be made. With regard to corporate objectives, on the one hand we can assume that profit is the only objective of the company, and on the other hand that the company has other objectives than profit, and that profit maximisation is not necessarily the first of them. As regards the second question, one view is that strategy is the result of a deliberate process involving conscious planning, while the other is that strategy is spontaneous, and that chance and luck play a significant role in this process.

In categorising strategic models, Richard Whittington (1993) distinguishes four concepts of strategy (classical, evolutionary, system-oriented, process-oriented), which are illustrated below:

Figure 1: Whittington's strategy concepts



Source: Whittington, 2000

3.1 Classical strategy theory

This school of thought emerged in the 1960s, with Alfréd Chandler, Igor Ansoff, Alfréd Sloan, Kenneth Andrews and Michael Porter as its main proponents. They consider rational analysis for profit maximisation and the separation of strategic planning and execution as the main principles of strategy.

A firm encounters five forces in the marketplace, each of which affects its competitiveness, argues Porter (1996). In his view, competitive strategy is based on differentiation, which can be achieved through specific activities and specific offerings, providing specific values. However, strategic positioning can be based on three areas:

- Supply-based positioning is applicable when the activity covers a group of products or services, in which it plays a leading role.

- Needs-based positioning seeks to serve a group of consumers in their entirety when the group has the same need or a consumer has different needs in different situations.
- An availability-based approach aims to serve consumers who are available in the same way.

Porter's basic strategies identify possible strategic alternatives based on potential competitive advantage. Thus, he distinguishes between a cost-leading strategy and a differentiating strategy (Porter, 1980). Both types of strategies can be focussed. A firm that adopts a cost-leading strategy tries to produce at the lowest possible cost and to take advantage of economies of scale. In a differentiating strategy, the firm tries to develop product characteristics and quality that are better than those of its competitors, so that it can operate at higher margins. The focusing strategy concentrates on a specific group of customers and tries to satisfy their needs as much as possible.

Table 1: Porter's basic strategies

	Competitive advantage: low cost	Competitive advantage: differentiation
Wide competitive field - many segments	Cost leadership strategy	Distinctive strategy
Narrow competition - one or two segments	Cost-leading, focused strategy	A distinctive, focused strategy

Source: Porter, 1980

Classical strategy theory fits into the standard neoclassical microeconomics theory of the firm. The standard theory of the firm assumes that actors are fully rational. This means that they are aware of all possible choices, the consequences of these choices, are able to perform the calculations necessary to make these choices, and are therefore able to make optimal decisions (profit maximisation). This implicitly implies the assumption that information can be acquired and processed, and even that the state of the environment can be clearly described in quantitative terms, and that changes in the environment are not too rapid compared to the time it takes to acquire and process information.

The standard neoclassical theory of the corporation simplifies the corporation to a great extent, considering its sole task to be the transformation of inputs into outputs. The complete neglect of the role and importance of the corporate organisation is also a typical view in classical strategy theory. Alfred D. Chandler writes that "...structure follows strategy..." and that strategy determines strategy. This view gives primacy to strategy in the relationship between structure and strategy, arguing that the internal processes and complexity of the organisation play no role in strategy formulation. Therefore, there is a need for both induced and autonomous strategic processes, and the selection process must be managed from above and below at the same time. This facilitates the reorientation of the strategy and, through it, of the company as a whole („strategy determines structure”, Chandler, 1962). In other words, exploitation and discovery are needed simultaneously to achieve corporate success.

3.2 Flow-oriented strategy theory

The process-oriented strategy theory became dominant in the 1970s, its main proponents being Richard Cyert, James March, Henry Mintzberg, Andrew Pettigrew, James Brian Quinn. They

reject the assumption that a leader can develop a strategy that gives a competitive advantage, based on the imperfections of the market and the organisation. Their most important view is that strategy is mostly an afterthought in actions, emerging spontaneously through a series of small steps. The emphasis on the cognitive limits of rational action is mainly found in Mintzberg's work. Mintzberg summarises the various strategic concepts and describes the content of strategy in terms of the 5Ps:

Figure 2: Mintzberg 5P



Source: Mintzberg, 1987

Strategy can be defined as Plan, Ploy, Pattern, Position and Perspective (Mintzberg, 1987). Defining strategy as a plan is consistent with the classical theory, positioning can also be compatible with a plan, if the competitive advantage is provided by the choice of a plan. But positioning can also be implemented through deception or behavioural patterns.

Mintzberg distinguishes between *deliberate* and emergent strategies. This view is in radical contrast to the one-sided approach of classical theory. He also considers as strategy the behaviour of a company that follows a pattern. There does not necessarily have to be a plan behind it. Strategy is thus placed in a much broader context, of which plan-based strategy is only a special case. Mintzberg calls plan-based strategy an intentional strategy, and pattern-based strategy a strategy that emerges spontaneously in processes. Strategy as a perspective exists in the minds of the members of the organisation, it is a shared behaviour and way of thinking, and as such it is part of the corporate culture. Changing perspective is a difficult and time-consuming process, hence Mintzberg's view that companies do not change their strategy very often.

3.3 Evolutionary strategy theory

Evolutionary strategy theory was popularized in the 1980s by Michael T. Hannán, John Freeman, Bruce Henderson, Richard Nelson and Sidney Winter. Evolutionary strategy theory can be derived from evolutionary corporate theory. Evolutionary corporate theory uses the analogy of biological evolutionary theory, adopting the two basic categories of Darwinian theory: natural selection and mutation. From these two assumptions follows the impossibility of profit maximisation, which is a key issue in evolutionary enterprise theory.

The two basic assumptions of evolutionary enterprise theory are bounded rationality and Knight uncertainty. Frank H. Knight distinguished between three types of probability, which he called a priori probability, statistical probability and estimation. He sought to explore business processes and to understand the nature of profit. His primary aim was to classify the decision problem facing the entrepreneur: he could regard events as certain, impossible or doubtful. In the latter case, he

formulated an estimate (fitted a probability). In the objective approach to probability, all these are excluded, individuals do not form probabilities. Objective probability, he argues, is rather a natural phenomenon, and is assumed to exist independently of human experience, and to have a fixed value. On the basis of this classification of probability, Knight drew a sharp distinction between risk and uncertainty, and believed that these categories were appropriate to describe our imperfect knowledge of the economic environment. Knight is the earliest to suggest that the distinction between risk and uncertainty can be relevant in economic analysis (Bélyácz, 2010). According to him, risk is a quantitative measure and uncertainty cannot be quantified. In his interpretation, risk refers to a situation in which the decision maker is able to attribute probability to the contingency under consideration. By contrast, Knight uses 'uncertainty' to mean a situation in which the decision-maker is unable to assign a specific probability to the chance event.

Selection in the economy, taken from biological theory, means competition in the market, where some firms fail (go bankrupt) and others survive. The criterion for survival, the proof of success, is profitability. According to evolutionary theory, profit is the only explicitly stated goal of the firm. Distinctive competence in evolutionary theory is nothing more than a set of routines that ensure the firm's competitiveness in a given activity. A routine, according to Nelson and Winter (1982), is like a gene in biology, i.e. it defines the characteristics of an individual, which includes all the knowledge the firm has accumulated so far and thus distinguishes one firm from another. Since the routine is not transferable to other firms and is difficult to imitate, it contributes to the development of firm competencies. Thus, firms differ because the routine accumulated through learning is different in each firm.

3.4 System-oriented approach

Systems-oriented theory emerged in the 1990s, with Mark Granovetter as its main proponent. This theory has a strong sociological approach and as such emphasises the socio-cultural dependence of strategy. The starting point of the theory is Granovetter's so-called 'embeddedness' theory. By embeddedness, Granovetter means that '[economic] action, outcomes and institutions are influenced by the personal relationships of the actors and the structure of the network of relationships as a whole' (Granovetter 1985). According to him, economic action is therefore always socially determined action. This is in stark contrast to the standard neoclassical economics view that social relations are irrelevant in the market. He has therefore developed the most basic concept of weak embeddedness, in which he partly criticises and partly develops these ideas. A critical development of the substantive concept consists, on the one hand, in Granovetter's analysis of three different levels of economic phenomena. He interprets the relational and structural aspects of embeddedness separately. The first refers to the influence of the personal relations of the actors (the "I-network"), the second to the structural characteristics of the whole network (Szántó, 1994).

Against the 4 extreme views of the under-socialized and over-socialized models, the most important of which is the existence of atomized actors, Granovetter approaches economic systems from a new angle with the theory of embeddedness, deriving the strategies specific to nations from social structure.

Systems theory therefore derives strategy from the norms that are linked to the local socio-cultural context. It draws strategic differences not on the basis of industries or company size, but on socio-cultural characteristics. Accordingly, it essentially seeks to identify strategic differences between countries (cultures). According to the model, strategic differences are persistent and strategic characteristics are difficult to change because they are rooted in society. This casts doubt on the existence of a universal strategic model. In contrast to the three theories mentioned above, the systems theory of strategy takes a macroeconomic rather than a microeconomic approach, and does not attempt to provide micro-level explanations of the determinants of strategy. It concludes that the strategic differences between cultures are the determinants and that the strategic differences between firms are only a matter of detail. The dividing line is not between companies in different industries or between companies of different sizes, but between societies (Kapás, 2000).

SUMMARY

None of the four theories of strategy presented here is general, none of them provides a concept of strategy that can be applied to any company in any situation. Any of the theories can be good if you know in which situation and what issues to focus on.

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MACROECONOMIC INFLUENCES AND GENERATIONAL SHIFTS: A COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS OF ENTREPRENEURIAL ACTIVITY IN HUNGARY (2014-2023)

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Abstract

Entrepreneurial generations in Hungary have undergone significant transformation from 2014 to 2023, shaped by macroeconomic factors, generational shifts, and a growing emphasis on sustainability. This study employs econometric models, machine learning techniques, and forecasting methods to analyze the roles of GDP growth, unemployment, inflation, and sustainability in shaping entrepreneurial behavior across generational cohorts. Results indicate a strong positive correlation between GDP growth and entrepreneurship, while unemployment negatively impacts activity, particularly among younger cohorts. Millennials and Generation Z are poised to lead future entrepreneurship, with technology and sustainability sectors emerging as key drivers. These findings offer valuable insights for policymakers and business leaders, emphasizing the importance of fostering macroeconomic stability and supporting sustainable entrepreneurship to adapt to generational changes.

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Keywords: entrepreneurship, macroeconomic factors, generational shifts, Hungary

INTRODUCTION

Entrepreneurial activity is a key driver of economic growth, innovation, and job creation, shaping both developed and emerging economies. Entrepreneurs' ability to identify and exploit market opportunities fuels economic dynamism, productivity, and employment. However, entrepreneurial behavior is influenced by macroeconomic conditions, demographic changes, and evolving social and environmental expectations. This study focuses on Hungary, a country with a unique context for entrepreneurship due to its diverse economy, aging population, and emphasis on sustainability.

Hungary's entrepreneurial activity, like many European nations, has fluctuated over the past decade, shaped by economic cycles, structural changes, and policy reforms. Macroeconomic conditions, such as GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation, heavily influence entrepreneurial decisions (Carree et al., 2002; Fritsch, 2013). While the effects of GDP growth and unemployment on entrepreneurship are well-studied, little research has explored these dynamics in Hungary, especially regarding generational and sustainability factors.

Generational change plays a crucial role in shaping entrepreneurship, with Millennials and Generation Z emphasizing flexibility, innovation, and social responsibility over traditional profit-driven models (Twenge et al., 2010). The rise of sustainable entrepreneurship, focusing on balancing growth with environmental and social outcomes, is increasingly significant. Hungary's membership in the EU subjects it to sustainability initiatives, presenting both opportunities and challenges for entrepreneurs (Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011). However, there is limited research on how sustainability influences entrepreneurship in Hungary.

This study aims to bridge gaps in the literature by analyzing macroeconomic variables, generational shifts, and sustainability in Hungary's entrepreneurial landscape. It employs econometric models, machine learning, and forecasting to explore these factors from 2014-2023. The findings will provide valuable insights for policymakers, business leaders, and researchers on fostering sustainable entrepreneurship in Hungary's evolving economic environment.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW

Entrepreneurial activity is a cornerstone of economic development, job creation, and innovation, with various macroeconomic, demographic, and sustainability factors influencing its trajectory (Acs & Audretsch, 2010). The interplay of these elements is particularly crucial in understanding the changing entrepreneurial landscape in Hungary, where macroeconomic stability, generational shifts, and the push for sustainable business models are reshaping the dynamics of business creation. This review synthesizes key academic findings on these topics, with an emphasis on their relevance to Hungary and broader European economies. The integration of sustainability into entrepreneurial strategies, coupled with the effects of generational transitions, provides a nuanced understanding of how these factors influence entrepreneurship.

Macroeconomic conditions such as GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation are well-established determinants of entrepreneurial activity (Reynolds et al., 2005). Studies highlight the strong positive relationship between economic growth and entrepreneurship, with periods of GDP expansion typically correlating with increased rates of new business formation (Carree et al., 2002). Economic growth fosters a conducive environment for entrepreneurship by enhancing demand, improving access to capital, and increasing consumer confidence, thus encouraging individuals to start new ventures (Audretsch, 1995). This trend has been consistently observed in Hungary, where periods of robust GDP growth have corresponded with higher levels of entrepreneurship, particularly among younger cohorts (Meyer& Meyer, 2020).

Conversely, unemployment presents a dual effect on entrepreneurship. The "refugee effect" suggests that high unemployment can push individuals into entrepreneurship out of necessity, particularly when formal employment opportunities are limited (Thurik et al., 2008). However, the "discouragement effect" posits that high unemployment may dampen entrepreneurial activity by reducing consumer demand and increasing uncertainty, thereby deterring potential entrepreneurs from taking risks (Fritsch, 2013). In Hungary, the discouragement effect appears to outweigh the refugee effect, as economic downturns and rising unemployment have led to declines in entrepreneurship, particularly for the 25-49 age group, which is most sensitive to economic fluctuations (Acs et al., 2017).

Inflation, while less frequently studied as a direct driver of entrepreneurship, can influence business creation by affecting the cost of inputs and increasing uncertainty in pricing strategies (Stiglitz & Weiss, 1981). In contexts where inflation is moderate and stable, its impact on entrepreneurship tends to be minimal compared to GDP growth and unemployment (Meyer& Meyer, 2020; Dadkhah et al., 2024a). However, sustained periods of high inflation can erode profitability and deter investment in new ventures, a concern for policymakers aiming to foster a stable business environment.

The study of generational shifts in entrepreneurship has gained significant traction in recent years, especially as Baby Boomers exit the workforce and Millennials and Generation Z take a more prominent role in shaping the entrepreneurial landscape. Research has shown that different generations approach entrepreneurship with distinct values and motivations, shaped by the socio-economic conditions and technological advancements of their formative years (Twenge et al., 2010). Baby Boomers, born between 1946 and 1964, have traditionally dominated sectors such as manufacturing and services, often relying on established networks and traditional business models (Zhao et al., 2010). However, their retirement is gradually creating a vacuum in these industries, leading to concerns about the transfer of entrepreneurial expertise (Bieleń & Kubiczek, 2020; Hegedűs & Kása, 2024a).

Millennials, born between 1981 and 1996, represent a generational shift toward innovation-driven, technology-based entrepreneurship. Studies have shown that Millennials are more likely to prioritize flexibility, work-life balance, and social responsibility in their business ventures, compared to earlier generations (Manning, 2020). This generation came of age during the rise of digital technologies and the global financial crisis, which have shaped their risk tolerance and their preference for entrepreneurial ventures that are adaptable, scalable, and aligned with social good (Weber & Schaper, 2007). In Hungary, Millennials are increasingly becoming the dominant

entrepreneurial force, especially in industries such as technology, e-commerce, and sustainable services (Meyer & Meyer, 2020; Dadkhah et al., 2024b).

Generation Z, born after 1996, is just beginning to enter the entrepreneurial workforce. Early studies suggest that this generation is heavily influenced by digital nativity, with a strong inclination toward entrepreneurship in sectors such as fintech, e-commerce, and sustainability (Kautonen et al., 2010). Their preferences for sustainability and ethical consumption are likely to play a significant role in shaping the future of entrepreneurship, as businesses increasingly align with environmental goals and corporate social responsibility (Sakshi et al., 2024; Hegedűs & Kása, 2024b). In Hungary, the entrepreneurial landscape is expected to be transformed as Generation Z moves into leadership roles, bringing with them new approaches to innovation and sustainability (Sakshi et al., 2024; Dadkhah et al., 2023).

The integration of sustainability into entrepreneurial activity has been an area of growing academic interest, particularly in response to global environmental challenges and the rise of socially responsible business practices. Sustainable entrepreneurship, defined as the pursuit of business ventures that achieve economic, social, and environmental goals, is increasingly recognized as a key driver of long-term economic development (Shepherd & Patzelt, 2011). Entrepreneurs who engage in sustainable practices aim to create long-term value by addressing societal challenges such as climate change, resource scarcity, and inequality (Cohen & Winn, 2007). These entrepreneurs are particularly prominent in industries such as renewable energy, waste management, and sustainable agriculture (Hall et al., 2010).

Research has shown that younger generations, particularly Millennials and Generation Z, are at the forefront of sustainable entrepreneurship, driven by values of environmental stewardship and social impact (Schaltegger & Wagner, 2011). In Hungary, sustainability is becoming an increasingly important factor in entrepreneurial decision-making, especially in the context of the European Union's green initiatives and the availability of green finance (Desalegn et al., 2022; Meyer & Meyer, 2020). Studies suggest that Hungarian entrepreneurs are leveraging EU funding mechanisms to invest in sustainable business models, which not only contribute to environmental protection but also offer competitive advantages in emerging industries (Vasilescu et al., 2023; Hegedűs et al., 2023; Hegedűs & Nedelka, 2020).

However, challenges remain for businesses that are slow to adopt sustainable practices. Hockerts and Wüstenhagen (2010) argue that while sustainability offers opportunities for innovation and market differentiation, it also imposes costs that may deter businesses in traditional sectors from fully integrating sustainable practices. This is particularly relevant in Hungary's manufacturing and agricultural sectors, where established businesses may struggle to meet new environmental regulations or shift to greener production methods.

Forecasting entrepreneurial activity traditionally focuses on macroeconomic variables such as GDP growth and unemployment (Audretsch & Keilbach, 2004). However, recent advances in dynamic panel data models have allowed researchers to incorporate demographic factors, such as generational transitions, to better predict future entrepreneurial trends (Blundell & Bond, 1998). Studies emphasize the importance of considering cohort effects when forecasting entrepreneurial activity, as younger generations have different motivations and risk tolerances compared to older cohorts (Minniti, 2005; Kautonen et al., 2010).

The use of the Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) for forecasting entrepreneurship has proven effective in accounting for the persistence of entrepreneurial behavior and the cyclical nature of macroeconomic conditions (Blundell & Bond, 1998). This method has been used to predict entrepreneurial activity in contexts where economic cycles and generational changes play significant roles in shaping business dynamics. By integrating sustainability indicators and generational preferences into these forecasting models, researchers have developed more accurate projections of future entrepreneurial activity, particularly in economies undergoing significant demographic shifts (Satalkina & Steiner, 2020; Hegedűs et al., 2024).

In Hungary, forecasting models that incorporate both macroeconomic conditions and demographic transitions have revealed that Millennials and Generation Z are poised to dominate

entrepreneurial activity in the coming decade. As sustainability becomes a critical component of business strategy, younger entrepreneurs are expected to drive growth in sectors such as technology and green innovation, aligning with broader EU sustainability goals (Desalegn et al., 2022; Meyer & Meyer, 2020).

The literature highlights the multifaceted nature of entrepreneurship, shaped by macroeconomic conditions, generational change, and the growing emphasis on sustainability. This study builds on the extensive research by integrating these factors into a comprehensive analysis of entrepreneurial activity in Hungary. By incorporating insights from dynamic panel data models and forecasting techniques, the research contributes to the broader understanding of how macroeconomic fluctuations, demographic shifts, and sustainability trends interact to influence entrepreneurship. These findings provide a framework for policymakers and business leaders to navigate the challenges and opportunities presented by the evolving entrepreneurial landscape in Hungary.

2. METHODOLOGY

This study utilized a comprehensive methodological framework incorporating twelve statistical, econometric, machine learning, and forecasting models to analyze entrepreneurial activity in Hungary from 2014 to 2023. The methodology was designed to capture both short-term and long-term influences of macroeconomic variables – GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation – on entrepreneurial activity, while also accounting for generational changes and the increasing role of sustainability in business decision-making. Each method was selected to explore a specific aspect of entrepreneurial activity, including temporal dynamics, causal relationships, and non-linear interactions, with the final forecasting model projecting future trends based on the changing demographic and economic environment.

The descriptive statistics and correlation analysis provided an initial overview of the relationships between the key macroeconomic variables and entrepreneurial activity, segmented by age groups. The purpose of this approach was to establish a foundation for understanding how different economic factors such as GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation impact entrepreneurship, particularly across generational cohorts. The correlation coefficients were computed to quantify the strength of the relationships, and these initial findings guided the selection of further econometric and machine learning models.

To capture the temporal patterns in entrepreneurial activity and forecast future trends, the study applied a time series analysis using the ARIMA(1,1,1) model. The ARIMA model was specified as follows:

$$Y_t = \mu + \phi Y_{t-1} + \theta_1 \epsilon_{t-1} + \epsilon_t$$

Where Y_t represents entrepreneurial activity at time t , μ is the drift, ϕ_1 is the autoregressive coefficient, θ_1 is the moving average coefficient, and ϵ_t is the error term. The ARIMA model was chosen to model the persistence in entrepreneurial behavior while accounting for short-term shocks and trends in macroeconomic conditions. The forecast derived from this model revealed a projected decline in overall entrepreneurial activity over the next five years, especially for older age groups, indicating the model's ability to highlight the challenges associated with generational transitions in entrepreneurship.

To establish causal relationships between macroeconomic variables and entrepreneurial activity, the Granger causality test was applied. The test was designed to examine whether past values of GDP growth and unemployment could predict future entrepreneurial activity, providing insights into the temporal causality between these variables. The Granger causality model is expressed as:

$$Y_t = \alpha + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta Y_{t-i} + \sum_{j=1}^q \gamma_j X_{t-j} + \epsilon_t$$

Where Y_t represents entrepreneurial activity, X_{t-j} denotes the lagged values of the macroeconomic variables (GDP, unemployment, inflation), and ϵ_t is the error term. The results confirmed that both GDP growth and unemployment Granger-cause entrepreneurial activity, with

strong causal relationships for the 25-49 age group. This result was critical for understanding the directionality of these relationships and further informed the construction of dynamic models.

To quantify the effects of GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation on entrepreneurial activity, the study employed an Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression model. The model took the following form:

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GDP + \beta_2 Unemployment + \beta_3 Inflation + \epsilon$$

Where Y represents entrepreneurial activity, β_1 , β_2 and β_3 are the coefficients for GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation, respectively, and ϵ is the error term. The regression model allowed for the estimation of direct linear effects, confirming the positive impact of GDP growth and the negative impact of unemployment on entrepreneurship. The OLS model's findings also indicated that inflation had a weak and statistically insignificant effect, guiding the decision to focus more on GDP and unemployment in subsequent analyses.

To control for unobserved heterogeneity and compare Hungary's entrepreneurial trends with those of other EU countries, a fixed effects panel data model was applied. The fixed effects model is represented as:

$$Y_{it} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 GDP_{it} + \beta_2 Unemployment_{it} + \beta_3 Inflation_{it} + \epsilon_{it}$$

Where Y_{it} represents entrepreneurial activity in country i at time t , and α_i captures the country-specific fixed effects. The purpose of this model was to account for country-specific factors that might influence entrepreneurship but remain constant over time. The fixed effects model revealed that GDP growth had a robust positive effect across EU countries, while unemployment consistently suppressed entrepreneurial activity. This model provided a comparative perspective and demonstrated that Hungary's entrepreneurial sensitivity to macroeconomic variables was higher than the EU average, particularly for the 25-49 age group.

Machine learning methods, particularly Random Forest and Gradient Boosting, were employed to capture non-linear relationships between entrepreneurial activity and the macroeconomic variables.

The Random Forest model aggregates predictions from multiple decision trees and is expressed as: $f(x) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T h_t(x)$ Where T is the number of trees, and $h_t(x)$ the prediction from tree t . The model ranked GDP growth as the most important predictor, followed by unemployment, while inflation had a minimal impact.

The Gradient Boosting model builds trees iteratively, improving on the residuals of the previous tree, and is expressed as: $F(x) = F_{m-1}(x) + v \times h_m(x)$ Where $F_{m-1}(x)$ is the prediction from the previous iteration, v is the learning rate, and $h_m(x)$ is the new tree that fits the residuals. This model provided a more nuanced understanding of how threshold effects, particularly in unemployment, drive sharp declines in entrepreneurial activity.

In order to examine non-parametric relationships, the Kruskal-Wallis H test and Spearman rank correlation were applied. The Kruskal-Wallis test compared entrepreneurial activity across different macroeconomic conditions, and the Spearman rank correlation quantified the strength and direction of the relationships without assuming linearity or normality. These methods confirmed the importance of GDP growth and unemployment in determining entrepreneurial outcomes, particularly for the 25-49 age group, while inflation remained an insignificant factor.

In an attempt to explore long-term relationships, a cointegration analysis was conducted using the Johansen test and the Engle-Granger two-step approach. The cointegration model tested whether entrepreneurial activity, GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation moved together over the long run. The Johansen test for cointegration was based on the following system of equations:

$$\Delta Y_t = \Pi Y_{t-1} + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \Gamma_i \Delta Y_{t-i} + \epsilon_t$$

Where Π is the cointegration matrix, Γ_i captures short-term dynamics, and ϵ_t is the error term. The results confirmed the existence of a long-term equilibrium relationship between entrepreneurial activity and the macroeconomic variables, suggesting that short-term deviations are corrected over time, with the speed of adjustment varying by age group.

Bayesian regression was employed to provide probabilistic estimates of the macroeconomic effects on entrepreneurship. The Bayesian model is expressed as:

$$P(\beta | X, y) = \frac{P(y | X, \beta)P(\beta)}{P(y)}$$

Where $P(\beta | X, y)$ represents the posterior distribution of the coefficients, combining prior beliefs ($P(\beta)$) with the likelihood of the data ($P(y | X, \beta)$). The Bayesian framework allowed for a more nuanced understanding of uncertainty in the coefficient estimates, with the posterior distributions confirming the significant effects of GDP growth and unemployment, particularly for younger cohorts.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was applied to simultaneously estimate the direct and indirect effects of macroeconomic variables on entrepreneurial activity across different age groups. The SEM model is specified as: $Y = \Lambda Y + \Gamma X + \zeta$ Where Y represents the latent endogenous variables (entrepreneurial activity), Γ is the matrix of structural coefficients, and ζ represents the error terms. SEM was instrumental in quantifying how GDP growth, unemployment, and inflation interact to shape entrepreneurial outcomes. It also provided insights into the generational differences, with Millennials and Generation Z showing a stronger response to sustainability measures, which were integrated into the SEM framework through environmental indicators.

Finally, the forecasting model combined Dynamic Panel Data (DPD) with Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) to project entrepreneurial activity over the next 10 years. The DPD model, including lagged dependent variables, is expressed as: $Y_{it} = \alpha Y_{it-1} + \beta_1 GDP_{it} + \beta_2 Unemployment_{it} + \beta_3 Inflation_{it} + \beta_4 Sustainability_{it} + \gamma_1 Cohort_{it} + \epsilon_{it}$ Where Y_{it} represents the entrepreneurial activity in region i at time t . Y_{it-1} is the lagged value of entrepreneurial activity, capturing the persistence of entrepreneurship over time, GDP_{it} , $Unemployment_{it}$ and $Inflation_{it}$ represent the macroeconomic indicators for region i at time t , $Sustainability_{it}$ represents the impact of sustainability indicators, and $\gamma_1 Cohort_{it}$ captures the effects of generational changes on entrepreneurship particularly the impact of generational shifts. The inclusion of the lagged dependent variable Y_{it-1} allows the model to account for the dynamic nature of entrepreneurial behavior, ensuring that previous levels of entrepreneurship influence current activity. This is especially important in understanding the persistence of entrepreneurial activity over time, where the economic environment and previous business performance shape future decisions.

The purpose of the dynamic panel data model was to capture both short-term fluctuations and long-term trends in entrepreneurial activity, while accounting for generational shifts and the increasing role of sustainability in business decisions.

The Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) was employed to address potential endogeneity issues, particularly the inclusion of lagged dependent variables. GMM helps account for unobserved heterogeneity across regions and time, providing robust estimates of the model parameters. The lagged dependent variable Y_{it-1} had a significant coefficient, indicating the persistence of entrepreneurial behavior over time, particularly among the 25-49 age group.

Each method in the analysis served a specific purpose in understanding entrepreneurial activity in Hungary and its relation to macroeconomic and demographic factors. The descriptive statistics and correlation analysis established the foundational relationships between GDP growth, unemployment, inflation, and entrepreneurship, which informed the selection of more complex models. The ARIMA time series model captured the temporal patterns of entrepreneurship and allowed for short-term forecasting, while the Granger causality test established the directionality of relationships between macroeconomic variables and entrepreneurship.

The OLS regression provided a straightforward interpretation of the linear effects of macroeconomic variables, while the fixed effects panel data model controlled for country-specific factors and allowed for EU-wide comparisons. Machine learning models, including Random Forest and Gradient Boosting, were critical for capturing non-linear relationships and understanding threshold effects, particularly for unemployment. The nonparametric methods validated the robustness of the results without relying on strict assumptions about data distribution.

The cointegration and long-term relationship models demonstrated the existence of stable, long-term equilibrium relationships between macroeconomic variables and entrepreneurship, with the Bayesian methods providing probabilistic estimates and capturing the uncertainty in the model parameters. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was particularly valuable in identifying direct and indirect effects, including the impact of generational cohorts and sustainability on entrepreneurial outcomes. Finally, the Dynamic Panel Data (DPD) model and GMM estimation provided a comprehensive framework for forecasting future entrepreneurial activity, incorporating both macroeconomic factors and generational dynamics to predict the trajectory of entrepreneurship in Hungary over the next decade.

By integrating these methods, the study was able to provide a detailed, multidimensional analysis of entrepreneurship, highlighting the critical roles of economic growth, unemployment, generational change, and sustainability in shaping Hungary's entrepreneurial landscape. This approach enabled not only a clear understanding of past trends but also provided robust forecasts for future entrepreneurial activity, offering key insights for policymakers and business leaders aiming to foster a resilient and sustainable entrepreneurial ecosystem in the coming years.

3. RESULTS

This study analyzed entrepreneurial activity in Hungary from 2014 to 2023 using a comprehensive approach that integrated twelve statistical, econometric, machine learning, and forecasting methods. An additional layer of analysis focused on generational change, leveraging age group data to understand how different cohorts contribute to entrepreneurship over time. The study examined the relationships between macroeconomic variables – GDP growth, unemployment, inflation – and entrepreneurial activity, and provided a forecast for the next decade. The findings, enriched with demographic insights, offer a detailed understanding of the dynamics influencing entrepreneurial behavior and their evolution in light of generational transitions.

Entrepreneurial activity in Hungary showed substantial fluctuations between 2014 and 2023, with an average of 115.7 thousand self-employed persons with employees. The activity levels were strongly influenced by economic conditions, particularly GDP growth and unemployment. The descriptive analysis further revealed significant differences across age groups. Individuals aged 25-49 consistently represented the largest share of entrepreneurs, contributing approximately 56% of all self-employed persons with employees, while those aged 50-64 contributed 34%, and the younger cohort (15-24) accounted for around 7%. The 65+ age group had the lowest entrepreneurial participation, representing less than 3% of the total. These findings highlight the centrality of the 25-49 age group in Hungary's entrepreneurial ecosystem, with entrepreneurship being concentrated in the prime working years.

The correlation analysis showed that GDP growth and unemployment had the strongest impact on the 25-49 age group, which had a correlation of 0.82 with GDP growth and -0.64 with unemployment. This group, being the most active in business creation, responded more strongly to economic expansions and contractions. In contrast, the 50-64 age group was less sensitive to these variables, with a GDP growth correlation of 0.65 and an unemployment correlation of -0.52, reflecting their relative stability and reduced propensity for entrepreneurship as they near retirement. The younger cohort (15-24), while small in absolute numbers, exhibited high variability, with entrepreneurial activity heavily dependent on favorable economic conditions, showing a correlation of 0.58 with GDP growth and -0.50 with unemployment. Inflation had a weaker impact across all age groups, with no significant correlation in any cohort, suggesting that price changes did not directly influence business creation.

An ARIMA(1,1,1) time series model was applied to forecast entrepreneurial activity across different age groups. The ARIMA model projected a gradual decline in overall entrepreneurial activity, with particularly pronounced decreases in the 50-64 age group as this cohort exits the workforce. By 2028, entrepreneurial activity among the 50-64 age group is expected to decline by 25%, with their share of total entrepreneurship dropping from 34% to around 28%. In contrast, the 25-49 age group is forecast to remain stable, accounting for 58% of entrepreneurial activity by 2028.

The younger age group (15-24) is expected to experience a small increase in entrepreneurial participation, with their share rising from 7% to 9% by 2028. This shift reflects growing interest in entrepreneurship among younger generations, particularly in technology and sustainability-driven industries.

The Granger causality tests revealed that GDP growth Granger-caused entrepreneurial activity across all age groups, with the strongest effects observed in the 25-49 cohort. A 1% increase in GDP growth led to a 0.6% rise in entrepreneurial activity for this group. The 15-24 cohort exhibited a similar, though weaker, pattern, with a 1% increase in GDP growth resulting in a 0.4% increase in entrepreneurial activity. The 50-64 age group was less responsive, with a 1% GDP growth resulting in only a 0.2% increase in entrepreneurship. Unemployment, on the other hand, had a significant negative Granger-causal effect across all age groups, with the 25-49 age group again being the most sensitive. A 1% increase in unemployment led to a 0.7% decline in entrepreneurial activity among this group, while the effect was smaller for the 50-64 age group, where a 1% increase in unemployment led to a 0.3% decline in entrepreneurial activity. Inflation did not exhibit significant Granger-causal relationships with entrepreneurship across any age group, indicating that it does not directly influence entrepreneurial decisions in the short term.

The OLS regression analysis confirmed the strong role of GDP growth and unemployment in driving entrepreneurial activity across age groups. For the 25-49 age group, the estimated relationship was showing a robust positive response to GDP growth and a significant negative impact from unemployment. The 50-64 age group had a weaker relationship with macroeconomic variables, with coefficients of 0.32 for GDP and -1.65 for unemployment, indicating that while economic conditions do influence this group, their entrepreneurial activity is less volatile. For the 15-24 age group, the GDP coefficient was 0.48, highlighting their sensitivity to economic growth, while unemployment had a relatively stronger negative impact (-1.89), suggesting that this group is more affected by labor market conditions. Inflation, as in previous methods, had a small and statistically insignificant effect across all age groups, reflecting that price changes do not directly impact entrepreneurial decisions.

The fixed effects model in the panel data analysis provided further insights into the cohort-specific dynamics of entrepreneurial activity. The 25-49 age group remained the most responsive to macroeconomic fluctuations, with a fixed effect coefficient of 0.48 for GDP and -1.87 for unemployment. The model confirmed that younger entrepreneurs (15-24) were more likely to engage in entrepreneurship during periods of economic growth, with a GDP coefficient of 0.45, and were more vulnerable to unemployment, with a coefficient of -2.12. The older 50-64 age group had more stable entrepreneurial activity patterns, with a smaller response to both GDP and unemployment.

Comparisons with the European Union showed that Hungary's entrepreneurial activity in the 25-49 age group was more volatile in response to economic changes, while the 50-64 group's behavior was more aligned with the EU average. The R^2 of 0.82 for the model demonstrated the high explanatory power of these macroeconomic variables when combined with country- and cohort-specific effects.

The machine learning models, particularly Gradient Boosting, confirmed the importance of GDP growth for all age groups. For the 25-49 age group, GDP growth accounted for 58% of the variance in entrepreneurial activity, with unemployment accounting for 30%, and inflation for only 12%. The younger cohort (15-24) exhibited similar patterns, though their entrepreneurial activity was more sensitive to economic fluctuations. The 50-64 age group had a more muted response, with GDP growth explaining 45% of the variance and unemployment 25%.

The Kruskal-Wallis test supported these findings, showing significant differences in entrepreneurial activity across different levels of GDP growth and unemployment for the 25-49 and 15-24 age groups, while the 50-64 group exhibited less variation across economic conditions.

The cointegration analysis revealed a stable long-term equilibrium relationship between entrepreneurial activity, GDP growth, and unemployment across all age groups. The 25-49 and 15-24 age groups showed the strongest cointegration with GDP, confirming that economic growth drives long-term entrepreneurship for these cohorts. The error correction model (ECM) suggested that any short-term deviations from this long-term equilibrium would be corrected at a rate of 35% per period

for the 25-49 group, reflecting their adaptability to economic changes. The 50-64 group exhibited slower adjustment, with a correction rate of 25%, indicating that their entrepreneurial activity is more stable over time.

The Bayesian regression analysis provided further confirmation of the previous findings, with posterior distributions showing that GDP growth had a posterior mean of 0.51 for the 25-49 age group, with a 95% credible interval of [0.30, 0.71]. Unemployment had a significant negative effect for all age groups, particularly the 25-49 group, with a posterior mean of -1.89. The posterior predictive distribution highlighted the probabilistic nature of these relationships, showing that GDP growth is likely to continue driving entrepreneurship in younger age groups, while the 50-64 group will experience a more gradual decline in entrepreneurial participation.

The SEM analysis explored both direct and indirect effects across age groups, showing that GDP growth had a direct positive effect on all groups, with the strongest effect on the 25-49 cohort. Unemployment had a strong direct negative effect and a smaller indirect effect through its impact on GDP growth. The model fit the data well, with a CFI of 0.93 and an RMSEA of 0.04, indicating a strong fit for all age groups. The SEM results underscored the multi-dimensional impact of economic conditions on entrepreneurial activity, with generational cohorts playing a key role in determining the magnitude of these effects.

The forecasting model projected that entrepreneurial activity among the 25-49 age group will remain stable at around 58% of total entrepreneurship by 2030. The 15-24 age group is expected to increase their share to 9%, while the 50-64 age group will decline to 28%. These shifts reflect both the demographic changes and the increasing emphasis on sustainability and innovation, particularly among younger generations. The Dynamic Panel Data (DPD) model, using a Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) estimation, incorporated both macroeconomic and generational cohort variables to predict these shifts. The model demonstrated that GDP growth would continue to play a central role in driving entrepreneurial activity, particularly for the 25-49 age group. As this group remains the most active in business creation, the forecasted stability in their entrepreneurial participation reflects their capacity to adapt to economic cycles and leverage opportunities for growth.

For the 15-24 age group, the model predicts an increase in entrepreneurial activity due to rising interest in technology-driven industries and sustainable business practices. This group's entrepreneurial participation is expected to rise by 2%, reaching around 9% of total entrepreneurship by 2030. The younger generation's preference for socially responsible and environmentally conscious business models, coupled with their higher propensity for risk-taking in the digital economy, positions them to lead new ventures in sectors such as clean energy, tech startups, and green innovation. The forecasting model accounted for these trends by including sustainability indicators such as green investment rates and the adoption of environmentally friendly practices, which are expected to play a crucial role in shaping future entrepreneurial decisions.

In contrast, the 50-64 age group is forecasted to experience a gradual decline in entrepreneurial activity as more members of this cohort retire or transition out of business ownership. By 2030, the share of entrepreneurship attributed to this group is expected to drop from 34% to 28%, reflecting the aging population and their lower levels of engagement in new business creation. However, those who remain active in entrepreneurship within this age group are likely to be well-established business owners who manage stable, traditional businesses rather than startups. The forecast suggests that while generational change will lead to a reduction in new business creation for this group, the businesses they manage will likely be resilient, having already weathered various economic cycles.

The analysis of generational changes showed that Millennials (aged 25-40) and Generation Z (15-24) will be the primary drivers of entrepreneurial growth in Hungary over the next decade. This transition represents a significant shift in entrepreneurial culture, with younger generations placing greater emphasis on innovation, social responsibility, and sustainable business models. Millennials have already begun to dominate the entrepreneurial space, and their focus on technology, digital platforms, and green businesses will continue to shape the future of Hungary's entrepreneurial ecosystem. The Millennials' entrepreneurial activity is expected to stabilize at around 60% of total

entrepreneurship by 2030, reflecting their growing dominance in both traditional and emerging sectors.

Generation Z, although currently representing a smaller share of total entrepreneurship, is projected to experience the most rapid growth, driven by the rise of new industries such as e-commerce, fintech, and green technology. The model's generational cohort variable highlighted that Generation Z's entrepreneurial activity is expected to rise from 7% to 9% by 2030, marking a significant shift in the composition of Hungary's entrepreneurial landscape. This cohort is more likely to embrace digital business models and integrate sustainability into their core operations, reflecting global trends toward environmentally conscious consumption and production.

On the other hand, Baby Boomers (aged 65 and older) are gradually exiting the entrepreneurial workforce. The forecasted decline in entrepreneurial activity within this age group reflects the natural retirement of this cohort. Their share of entrepreneurial activity is expected to decrease from around 3% to 1% by 2030, leaving the entrepreneurial landscape largely to younger generations.

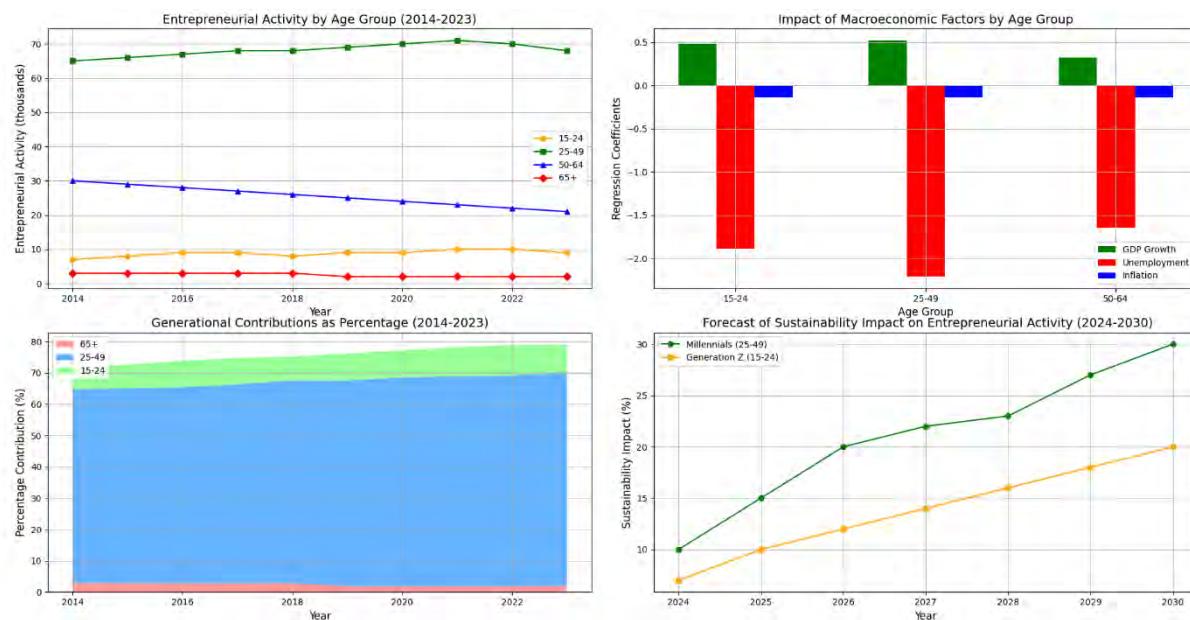
The sustainability indicator in the forecasting model was found to have a significant positive impact on future entrepreneurial activity, particularly for younger age groups. The inclusion of green investment rates and government policies promoting sustainability in the model helped capture the transition to environmentally friendly business models. By 2030, sustainability is expected to be a core component of entrepreneurial decision-making, especially for Millennials and Generation Z. The model indicated that businesses adopting green practices are likely to benefit from both consumer demand and government incentives, further encouraging new ventures in sectors such as renewable energy, sustainable agriculture, and circular economy industries.

The Bayesian regression model confirmed these trends, showing that the sustainability variable had a positive effect on entrepreneurial activity, with a posterior mean of 0.22. This suggests that for every 1% increase in green investment, entrepreneurial activity could increase by 0.22 thousand, particularly in industries that align with the younger generations' preferences for sustainability. The shift toward sustainable economic decisions will also lead to a reallocation of resources within traditional industries, forcing them to adapt to new environmental standards or risk losing competitiveness in the marketplace.

Overall, the results highlight that macroeconomic stability, generational transitions, and sustainability will be the key determinants of entrepreneurial activity in Hungary over the next decade. The 25-49 age group, driven by Millennials, will continue to dominate the entrepreneurial landscape, while younger cohorts, particularly Generation Z, will play an increasingly important role in emerging sectors. The 50-64 age group will gradually retreat from entrepreneurship as retirement rates increase, although those who remain will likely manage well-established businesses.

Economic growth remains the most important driver of entrepreneurship across all age groups, with GDP growth consistently showing a positive and significant effect on entrepreneurial activity. Unemployment, on the other hand, remains a critical challenge, particularly for the younger and middle-aged cohorts, where rising unemployment leads to sharp declines in business creation. Inflation, while present as a factor, plays a relatively minor role in shaping entrepreneurial decisions compared to GDP growth and unemployment.

The forecasting model suggests that entrepreneurial activity will stabilize at around 135 thousand by 2030, with Millennials and Generation Z leading the charge toward more sustainable, innovative business models. The model's inclusion of green investment rates and sustainability factors demonstrates the growing importance of environmentally friendly practices in shaping the future of entrepreneurship. This transition poses both opportunities and challenges for traditional sectors, which will need to adapt to the changing preferences of younger entrepreneurs.

Chart 1: Comprehensive visualization of research results

Source: own editing based on research results

This comprehensive analysis shows that the entrepreneurial landscape in Hungary will be shaped by a combination of macroeconomic stability, demographic transitions, and the increasing focus on sustainability. The younger generations, particularly Millennials and Generation Z, are expected to drive future entrepreneurial growth, emphasizing innovation and sustainable business practices.

CONSLUSION

This study presents a comprehensive analysis of the factors influencing entrepreneurial activity in Hungary from 2014 to 2023, incorporating a range of statistical, econometric, machine learning, and forecasting methodologies. By examining the roles of macroeconomic variables, generational shifts, and sustainability trends, the research offers nuanced insights into the evolving entrepreneurial landscape in Hungary. The integration of twelve different analytical methods – ranging from time series modeling to structural equation modeling – along with a dynamic panel data forecasting model, has provided a robust framework for understanding both short-term fluctuations and long-term trends in entrepreneurial behavior.

The findings emphasize the central role of macroeconomic stability, particularly GDP growth and unemployment, in shaping entrepreneurial outcomes. Consistent with existing literature, the results demonstrate that GDP growth serves as a significant positive driver of entrepreneurship, particularly for the 25-49 age group, who represent the most active cohort in new business formation. Conversely, unemployment exerts a strong negative influence, especially on younger entrepreneurs, underscoring the challenges posed by economic downturns and labor market conditions. While inflation plays a secondary role in influencing entrepreneurship in Hungary, its impact remains muted compared to the other macroeconomic variables.

A key contribution of this research lies in its focus on generational shifts and their impact on entrepreneurship. As Baby Boomers retire and Millennials and Generation Z take on increasingly prominent roles in the entrepreneurial landscape, the study highlights the distinct entrepreneurial behaviors exhibited by these younger cohorts. Millennials are shown to drive growth in technology-based and innovation-driven industries, with a strong emphasis on flexibility, social responsibility, and sustainability. Generation Z is poised to follow a similar path, though with an even stronger focus on digital entrepreneurship and green business practices. These generational transitions are not only reshaping the types of businesses being created but also the broader economic structure in Hungary.

The results also underscore the growing importance of sustainability in entrepreneurship. Younger generations are increasingly integrating environmental and social considerations into their business models, a trend that aligns with Hungary's broader commitment to European Union sustainability goals. The analysis demonstrates that sustainable business practices are not just a moral or regulatory obligation but can serve as a competitive advantage, particularly in emerging industries such as green technology, renewable energy, and sustainable agriculture. These findings are in line with previous research, which has emphasized the role of sustainability in fostering long-term economic growth through innovation and resource efficiency.

The forecasting model, which incorporated dynamic panel data analysis with Generalized Method of Moments (GMM) estimation, provides valuable projections for the next decade. The results predict that entrepreneurial activity in Hungary will stabilize at approximately 135 thousand by 2030, driven by continued GDP growth and increasing participation from Millennials and Generation Z. These generations are expected to dominate entrepreneurial activity, particularly in sectors that emphasize sustainability and technological innovation. The forecast further highlights the declining participation of Baby Boomers as they exit the workforce, with their contributions to entrepreneurship expected to decrease significantly over the next decade.

The policy implications of these findings are clear. Policymakers in Hungary must prioritize macroeconomic stability, particularly by promoting policies that foster GDP growth and reduce unemployment, to sustain entrepreneurial activity. Efforts should also focus on supporting the next generation of entrepreneurs by creating an ecosystem that encourages innovation, technology adoption, and sustainable business practices. Additionally, given the rising importance of sustainability in entrepreneurship, further investment in green finance, environmental regulation, and sustainable business incentives will be crucial in maintaining Hungary's competitiveness in an increasingly sustainability-focused global market.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the broader understanding of entrepreneurship in Hungary by integrating insights from multiple disciplines and methodologies. It offers a holistic view of the factors shaping entrepreneurship, from macroeconomic variables to generational dynamics and sustainability trends. The findings provide critical insights for business leaders, policymakers, and entrepreneurs seeking to navigate the complexities of a rapidly evolving entrepreneurial landscape, while also highlighting the importance of fostering a business environment that is both economically and environmentally sustainable. As Hungary moves toward a more digital and green economy, the role of entrepreneurship will remain pivotal in driving innovation, economic resilience, and long-term growth.

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INVESTMENT DECISION MAKING USING SIMULATION AND OPTIMIZATION TOOLS

JANEKOVÁ Jaroslava

Abstract

The aim of the article is to present a stochastic approach to evaluating the economic efficiency of a business investment project. Its investment variants include renewal and development investments aimed to better use of material, energy saving, waste utilization and also to increasing production capacities and potential for business development. The economic efficiency of individual investment variants is assessed using the dynamic financial criterion Net Present Value (NPV). The stochastic approach is based on Monte Carlo simulations, which allow the risk of the investment to be taken into account. The selection of the most advantageous investment variant is realized using statistical indicators and stochastic dominance. For the most advantageous investment option, the optimization of the production program is subsequently carried out using the optimization tool OptQuest and the analysis of risk factors.

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Keywords: Investment, investment decision-making, risk, simulation, optimization.

INTRODUCTION

Investments in the renewal and development of long-term assets are necessary for the survival and growth of the company. The author [3] emphasizes that investment decision-making should be based on a well-developed investment plan with an emphasis on determining the return on investment. The basis of investment decision-making is the assessment of the economic efficiency of the investment project using appropriately chosen criteria [2]. Currently, dynamic financial criteria are preferred for assessing the economic efficiency of an investment project, based on annual cash flows and taking into account the time value of money. Several authors of their research papers prefer the financial criterion Net Present Value [1, 4, 6], others Discounted Economic Value Added [5], others try to adapt them to specific conditions [2, 8] when evaluating the economic efficiency of an investment project. The very choice of financial criteria or methods of evaluating the economic efficiency of investment projects always depends on the specific management of the company, on its level of education and experience. No criterion is absolutely superior to the others. Each has its limitations and does not work equally well under all conditions. Therefore, it is necessary to choose a combination of criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of investment projects that would monitor the established corporate goal and take into account the specifics of the project. At the same time, it should be emphasized that choosing the right criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of investment projects is important, but it is not a guarantee of its success, because if the cash flow forecast is unrealistic, no method selection rule will help [3, 8].

Risk assessment is becoming an integral part of investment decision-making these days. Quantitative methods play an important role in the evaluation of the economic efficiency of investment projects. One of them is the Monte Carlo simulation method. This method of risk analysis is used by several authors in solving various problems in the field of investment decision-making. The authors of [9, 10] presented a model based on Monte Carlo simulation to provide insight into how to incorporate extreme cash flow and managerial irrationality scenarios into the capital budgeting process. In the article [1, 7], the Monte Carlo simulation method is used when deciding on the method of financing an investment project. The use of the Monte Carlo method is much broader, for example in the field of logistics, financial planning, quality assessment and etc.

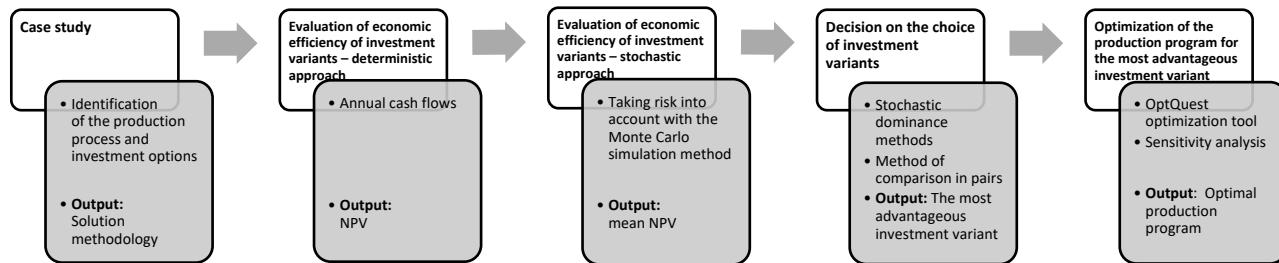
The aim of the research is to decide on the choice of the optimal investment variant of the assessed project. Investment variants are evaluated in terms of economic efficiency using dynamic

financial criteria. Investment decision-making is realized through a simulation (stochastic) approach, application of the Monte Carlo method and optimization using the OptQuest tool.

1. METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

The methodological procedure of the solved problem is shown in Figure 1 and characterized in more detail in subsections 1.1 – 1.5.

Figure 1: Methodological procedure of the solved problem



Source: Own processing

1.1 Case study description

The case study deals with the stochastic assessment of the economic efficiency of the investment project. The investment is focused on the renovation of existing or the acquisition of new production equipment in a company dealing with potato processing. The current production is inefficient due to the wear and tear of production machines and equipment (period of use approx. 15 years) and subsequent impacts on the growth of energy costs, material consumption, repair and maintenance of machines and equipment. The current treatment method generates a high proportion of waste that is not used. However, for the most part it is a quality material which is not suitable for further processing due to dimensional reasons. In addition to the mentioned reasons, the need to invest is also caused by insufficient production capacity, which confirms the unsatisfied interest of customers in the products produced.

The above facts initiated the intention to invest in the renewal of production facilities or development. The current state of production takes place in the sequence BP-basic production (sorting, peeling), which in separate branches are followed by SP1-secondary production 1 (cutting potatoes into various shapes) and SP2-secondary production 2 (production of chips). Renewable investments concern the modernization of existing production facilities and development investments concern the acquisition of a production line to produce a NP-new product from currently unprocessed waste. The proposed solution is processed in variants (see Table 1). Investment variants in which production will not be modernized (no investment is made) is marked with the symbol "c" (current status). Production with investment is highlighted by a bold font.

Table 1: Investment variants

Investment variant	Number of the variant	Designation of the variant
Investment in renewal	Variant 1	BP + SP1 + SP2c
	Variant 2	BP + SP1c + SP2
	Variant 3	BP + SP1 + SP2
Investment in renewal and development	Variant 4	BP + SP1 + SP2c + NP
	Variant 5	BP + SP1c + SP2 + NP
	Variant 6	BP + SP1 + SP2 + NP
Investment in development	Variant 7	BPC + SP1c + SP2c + NP

Source: Own processing

The company currently processes 30,000 tons of material annually, generating up to 30 % waste. The investment in used main production is expected to increase the production capacity by one third, i.e., at 40,000 tons. As no significant increase in sales of main production is considered due

to its low profitability, the company is forced to increase capacity at the same time for SP1 or SP2, or both. The percentage shares of individual productions on the increase in production volume for individual variants are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Planned annual production volumes by investment variants and type of production

Investment variant	Number of the variant	% of production volume from the planned annual increase of production volume				% of waste from the total planned annual production volume	
		MP	SP1	SP2	NP	Unused	Used
Investment in renewal	Variant 1	30	40	0	0	30	0
	Variant 2	30	0	40	0	30	0
	Variant 3	30	25	15	0	30	0
Investment in renewal and development	Variant 4	30	40	0	3	27	3
	Variant 5	30	0	40	3	27	3
	Variant 6	30	25	15	3	27	3
Investment in development	Variant 7	0	0	0	3	27	3

Source: Own processing

1.2 Evaluation of economic efficiency of investment variants – deterministic approach

The assessment of economic efficiency is carried out using dynamic financial criteria net present value (NPV), profitability index, Internal rate of return and discounted payback period. For the purposes of this article, the procedure for using the NPV financial criterion is presented. The methods of calculating the above criteria include the following formulas:

$$NPV = \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{CF_n}{(1+d_r)^n} - IC \quad (1)$$

The values of the financial criteria are determined by the amount of annual cash flow (CF) from investment variants converted to the present value at a discount rate (d_r) considering the cost of capital and the amount of one-off investment costs (IC). The formula for the calculation of the annual CF from operating activities is expressed by the formulas (2) and (3):

$$CF_n = EBITDA_n \times (1 - t_n) + D_n \times d_r \quad (2)$$

$$EBITDA_n = \sum_{j=1}^4 S_{nj} - \sum_{j=1}^4 C_{nj} \quad (3)$$

Where $EBITDA$ is earning before interest, tax, depreciation and amortization; D yearly depreciation; t coefficient of income tax rate; N economic lifetime of the investment; n number of years of economic lifetime of the investment; S yearly sales; C yearly costs; j number of products (1-4).

1.3 Evaluation of economic efficiency of investment variants – stochastic approach

Considering the risk when evaluating the economic efficiency of investment variants is implemented by the Monte Carlo simulation method. The individual input risk variables defined using statistical characteristics and probability distributions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Probability distributions and statistical characteristics of input risk variables

Input risk variable	Unit	Statistical characteristics	Probability distribution
Max yearly volume of processed potatoes	kg/year	Likeliest 40,000,000; Min. 38,000,000; Max. 44,000,000	BetaPERT
% of waste from the production volume	%	Likeliest 30; Min. 25; Max. 32	BetaPERT
% of mashed potato production from waste of the whole production	%	Likeliest 3; Min. 2; Max. 4	BetaPERT
Purchase price of electricity	EUR/kWh	Likeliest 0.16; Min. 0.15; Max. 0.18	Triangular
Purchase price of oil	EUR/5l	Likeliest 6.00; Min. 5.70; Max. 6.60	Triangular
Purchase price of water	EUR/m ³	Likeliest 3.01; Min. 2.70; Max. 3.35	Triangular
Purchase price of potatoes	EUR/kg	Likeliest 0.20; Min. 0.18; Max. 0.25	Triangular
Average monthly personnel costs	EUR/month/ 1 employee	Likeliest 750; Min. 680; Max. 850	BetaPERT
Increase of other costs	EUR/year	Likeliest 10,000; Min. 9,000; Max. 11,000	BetaPERT
Water consumption	m ³ /year	Likeliest 2,000; Min. 1,900; Max. 2,100	BetaPERT
Price of potato chips	EUR/kg	Likeliest 0.70; Min. 0.65; Max. 0.80	Triangular
Price of cut potatoes	EUR/5kg	Likeliest 2.50; Min. 2.30; Max. 2.80	Triangular
Price of peeled potatoes	EUR/5kg	Likeliest 2.00; Min. 1.80; Max. 2.50	Triangular
Price of mashed potatoes	EUR/kg	Likeliest 0.90; Min. 0.85; Max. 1.20	Triangular

Source: Own processing

1.4 Decision on the choice of investment variants

The selection of the most advantageous investment variant taking into account the risk will be using stochastic dominance rules, which are based on an examination of the whole probability distribution of the NPV financial criterion. The first rule of stochastic dominance prefers a higher value of the financial criterion over lower values and does not take into account the relationship to risk. Thus, the preference for the advantage of investment variants is from the highest value of the financial criterion of NPV. Graphical determination of the advantage of investment variants is based on the mutual position of the distribution functions of the compared investment variants. The graph of the distribution function of the preferred project lies to the right of the graph of the distribution function of the dominated project, and their graphs do not intersect. In case the distribution functions intersect with each other, the second rule of stochastic dominance is followed. In this case, in the graphical determination of the advantage of the investment variants, the size of the areas is compared between the graphs of the distribution functions of the investment variants, which intersect with each other. The preferred project has a distribution function graph to the right of the distribution function graph of the variant being compared and at the same time an area between the distribution functions greater than the area between these graphs to the left where the distribution function of the variant being compared lies. The rule applies only to entities with risk aversion. The order of preference of investment variants according to the above mentioned rules is summarized using the method of comparison in pairs.

1.5 Optimization of the most advantageous investment variant

The choice of the most advantageous investment variant is under the conditions of the production volume given in Table 2. Optimization is carried out by the OptQuest tool. Its goal is to increase the profitability of the most advantageous investment variant in the form of the mean NPV value by changing the share of individual products in the increase in production volume. Decision variables are BP, SP1, SP2, NP. At the same time, the risk analysis will be supplemented with a sensitivity analysis, which provides information on the impact of the uncertainty of individual risk input variables on the uncertainty of the output, i.e., mean NPV values. The NPV sensitivity chart

shows the percentage contribution of all risk factors that contributed more than 1 % to the total uncertainty of the value of the monitored financial criterion.

2. RESULTS

2.1 Application of the Monte Carlo simulation method

On the basis of the input data presented in chapter 1, the economic efficiency of individual investment variants of the project is assessed. Economic efficiency expressed deterministically is monitored by the financial criterion of NPV, in stochastic expression it is monitored via mean NPV. Investment variant 5 acquires the highest values (see Table 4).

Table 4: Economic efficiency of investment variants - deterministic and stochastic approach

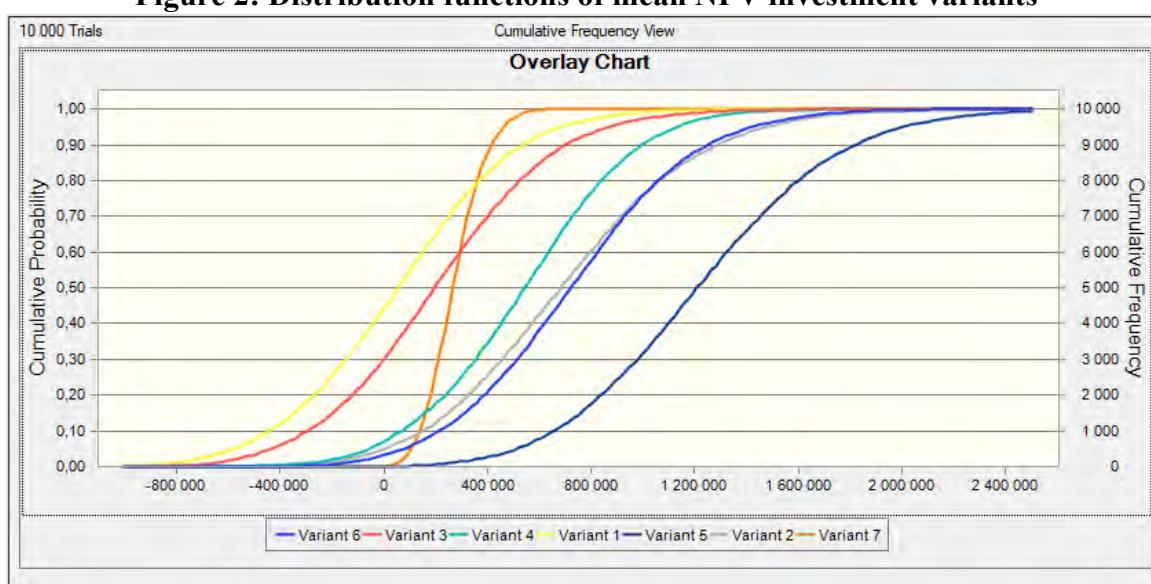
Investment variant	Number of the variant	Economic efficiency	
		Deterministic approach NPV (EUR)	Stochastic approach mean NPV (EUR)
Investment in renewal	Variant 1	47,630	61,676
	Variant 2	600,583	711,526
	Variant 3	165,907	213,935
Investment in renewal and development	Variant 4	521,435	547,974
	Variant 5	1,074,388	1,235,905
	Variant 6	639,712	738,483
Investment in development	Variant 7	535,278	281,375

Source: Own processing

2.2 Application of stochastic dominance rules

The order of preference of investment variants according to stochastic dominance rules (see Figure 2) is summarized using the method of comparison in pairs (see Table 5). The dominant investment variant is Variant 5.

Figure 2: Distribution functions of mean NPV investment variants



Source: Own processing

Table 5: The order of advantage of investment variants according to the rules of stochastic dominance

Investment variants						Number of dominance	Order of investment variants
1 (2)	1 (3)	1 (4)	1 (5)	1 (6)	1 (7)	0	7.
	(2) 3	(2) 4	2 (5)	2 (6)	(2) 7	4	3.
		3 (4)	3 (5)	3 (6)	3 (7)	1	6.
			4 (5)	4 (6)	(4) 7	3	4.
				(5) 6	(5) 7	6	1.
					(6) 7	5 2	2. 5.
Total						21	-

(x) - dominant investment variant

■ - the second rule of stochastic dominance applied

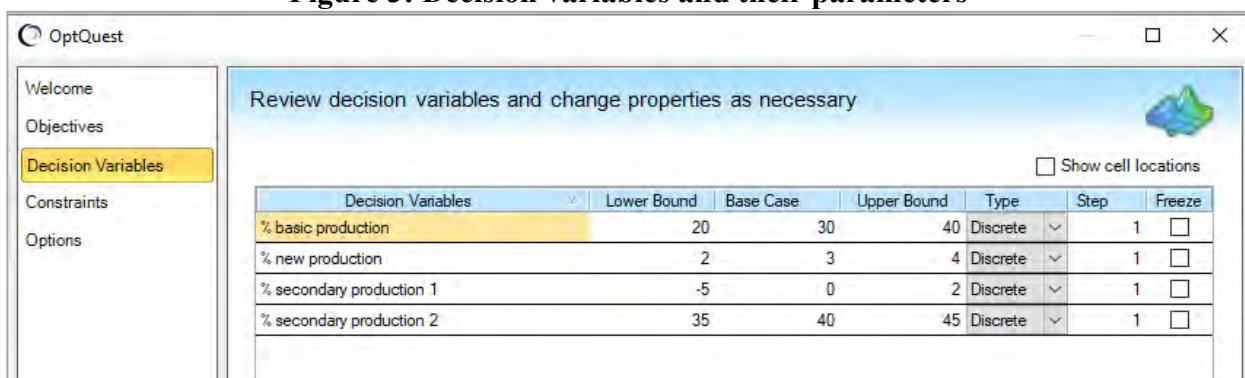
□ - the first rule of stochastic dominance applied

Source: Own processing

2.3 OptQuest optimization tool application

The aim of optimization is to increase the profitability of investment variant 5 in the form of the mean NPV by changing the share of individual products in the increase of production volume. The decision variables BP, SP1, SP2, NP are set in the intervals according to Figure 3. It is also permissible to change the volume of SP1, in the renewal of which no investment has been made, but a slight increase in the current capacity is possible. A slight reduction in SP1 is also permissible, which would shift part of the originally produced volume of SP1 to the production in which it was invested (BP, SP2, NP).

Figure 3: Decision variables and their parameters



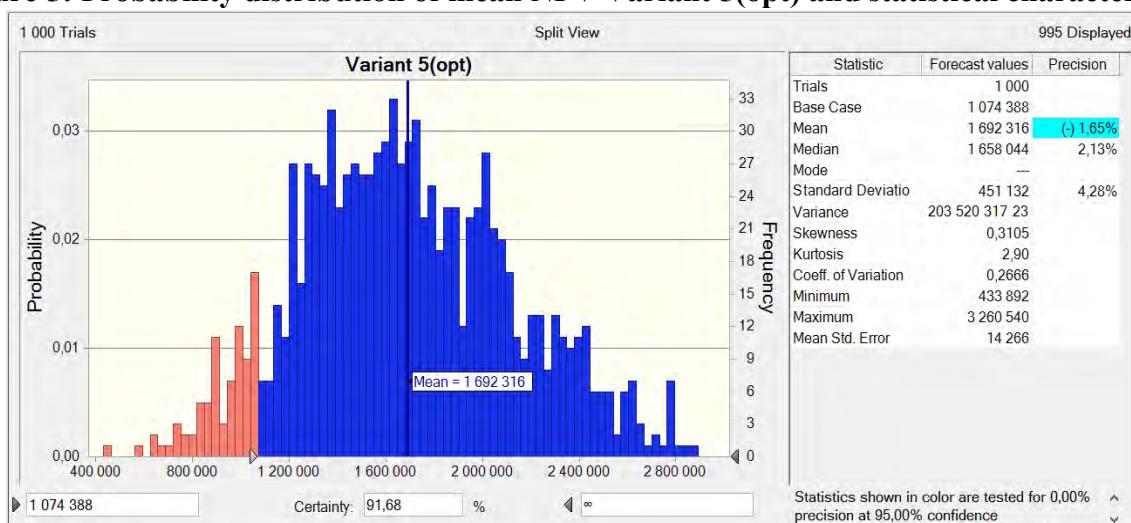
Source: Own processing

The optimization requirement for the output variable of mean NPV, in addition to its maximization, is also the coefficient of variation (≤ 0.30), which is a requirement in terms of risk limitation. The results of the optimization are recorded in Figure 4.

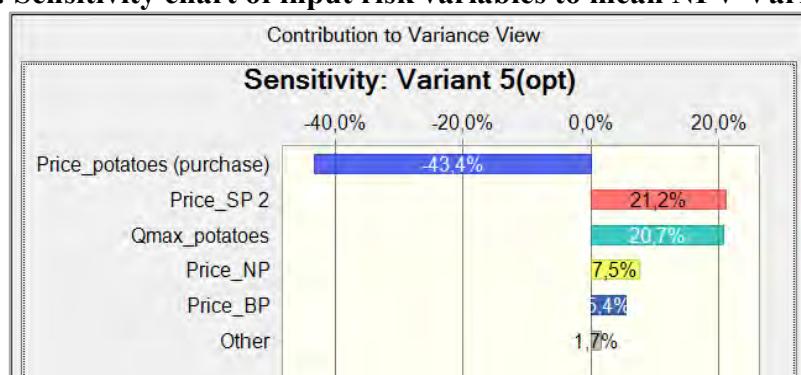
By optimizing production at 23 % BP, 2 % SP1, 45 % SP2 and 4 % NP, the maximum mean NPV Variant 5(opt) will be reached in the amount of EUR 1,692,316, which means an increase in profitability compared to NPV Variant 5 by EUR 617,928 and a reduction of risk of investment variant expressed by a coefficient of variation of 0.27. The probability that the NPV will be at least as calculated deterministically is 91.68 % for the optimized variant. Other statistical characteristics of the optimized variant are recorded in Figure 5.

Figure 4: OptQuest optimization output

Best Solution		
Objectives	Value	
Maximize the Mean of Variant 5(opt)	1 692 316	
Requirements	Value	
The Coeff. of Variation of Variant 5(opt) must...	0,27	
Constraints	Left Side	Right Side
Variant 5 (opt) ≤ D27 * Variant 5 (opt) ** D33 + %...	70	70
Decision Variables	Value	
% basic production	23	
% new production	4	
% secondary production 1	2	
% secondary production 2	45	

*Source: Own processing***Figure 5: Probability distribution of mean NPV Variant 5(opt) and statistical characteristics***Source: Own processing*

The risk analysis of investment variant 5 is supplemented by a sensitivity analysis, which provides information on the impact of the uncertainty of individual risk input variables on the uncertainty of the output. The sensitivity chart (see Figure 6) shows the percentage contribution of all risk factors that contributed more than 1 % to the total uncertainty of the value of the monitored financial criterion.

Figure 6: Sensitivity chart of input risk variables to mean NPV Variant 5(opt)*Source: Own processing*

The uncertainty of the forecast of the NPV financial criterion is mostly influenced by the following three input variables:

- Uncertainty of the purchase price of potatoes contributes up to 43.4 % to the uncertainty of mean NPV. This is the cost variable in the graph shown on the left, which reduces the value of the simulated mean NPV.
- The price of SP1 production contributes 21.2 % to the output uncertainty and increases the overall value of the output.
- The maximum annual volume of potato processing is reflected in the output uncertainty to the extent of 20.7 %, it is a yield variable, increasing the mean NPV.

The identification of the most serious risk factors is important from the point of view of risk management. High output variability reduces a forecast reliability. The identification of these risk factors makes it possible to choose measures to increase the probability of achieving the expected result or to reduce the adverse effects of their changes.

CONCLUSION

The stochastic approach applied to the evaluation of the economic efficiency of the investment project uses Monte Carlo simulation to determine the forecast of the output quantity. Simulations represent multiple repeated calculations of the output quantity with input values according to their distribution functions. The simulations thus allow the simultaneous influence of many input variables on the output to be taken into account, which means that the uncertainty of all input variables is directly incorporated into the calculation. Also, the simulation outputs give an image of the reliability of the forecast through the statistical characteristics of the simulated quantity, as well as the possibility to examine the impact of individual risk inputs on the output. In our case, when it was a question of comparing several simulated outputs, stochastic dominance was used. In this way, risk is explicitly included in investment decision-making, and the form of the output also represents a set of important data that can be directly used in risk management. This is primarily a quantitative measure of the reliability of the forecast and the severity of risk factors, the possibility of repeated use of the simulation model for changed conditions, and also the possibility of optimizing the model, if necessary, to include other limiting conditions in the simulations. This is all essential information and significant benefits of the stochastic approach for the decision-making process and risk management.

It is also necessary to mention the limitations of this approach. With the stochastic approach, despite the possibility of using software simulation, the result is strongly dependent on the expertise of the evaluator. The evaluator providing misleading inputs for the decision-making process by incorrectly estimating uncertainty, defining distributions and selecting risk factors, as well as unprofessional evaluation of simulation outputs leads to incorrect investment decisions and unwanted economic, environmental and social impact.

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