

7. COMPETITIVENESS OF THE LABOUR MARKET

Keywords

Labour market, competition, competitiveness

Introduction

The labour market has a significant economic and social importance that's why its functioning is closely observed, analyzed and discussed. It has been a subject of much debate that resulted in proliferation of the theoretical approaches to the labour market. However, among the existing theories on the labour market, basically two main groups can be distinguished: the first one includes the theories where the labour market is an arena for competition among entities, according to the theories of the second group, the labour market is shaped and controlled by the legislation, customs and the labour market institutions. Regardless of the points of view, the theory of the competitive labour market is usually a point of reference to all the discussions of the economists concerning the problems faced by the labour market.

Model of the competitive labour market— a traditional analysis

A model of competitive labour market derives from the classical economics¹, it is a complex approach to description of entities' behaviour on the labour market and contributed substantially to the development of modern concepts of the labour market. This model describes how labour demand and supply shape on the single, homogenous labour market where, thanks to flexible wages, obtaining long-term equilibrium is possible. As each economic model, it doesn't describe real processes on the labour market but indicates and identifies key aspects that enable to explain how the real labour market works.

The basis for assessing competitiveness of the labour market is a model where the **labour markets are perfectly competitive**. Perfectly competitive (and perfectly efficient at the same time) labour markets have the following characteristics:

- Large number of small independent firms trying to hire an identical type of labour force and numerous qualified people offer their services.
- Easy access to the labour market: new firms and employees may enter the market any time.

¹ Further reading on classical views on employment and unemployment can be found in the following: A.Marshall (1961), *Principles of Economics*, Macmillan, London (1st edition in 1890; Polish translation *Zasady ekonomiki*, Warszawa 1925 - 1928); W.H.Beveridge (1909), *Unemployment. A Problem of Industry*, Longmans, London; A.C.Pigou (1927), *Wage Policy and Unemployment*, "The Economic Journal" 1927, no 147; A.C.Pigou, (1915) *Unemployment*, William and Norgate, London; A.C.Pigou (1933), *The Theory of Unemployment*, Macmillan, London 1933; H.Clay (1929), *Post - War Unemployment problem*, Macmillan, London

- Each work done within the individual labour market requires identical skills and all employees have identical labour productivity (due to they are skilled identically), this means that each employee can do all kinds of work available on the labour market. Moreover, wages are the only advantages employees obtain from work. There aren't any employee benefits that would convince an employee to prefer a job from the others available on the market.
- There's a free movement of employees within and between firms offering a job and they are fully geographically mobile.
- Employers will rather keep already hired employees that replace them with the new ones because there's no fixed costs of employment and wages are the only cost borne by employers .
- Perfect information, all the employees and firms know the situation on the market and are able to foresee, predict all changes in the labour market.

As the model of the competitive labour market assumes, according to the principle of rationality, **individual entities strive to make the most of their objectives**. That is, when enterprises make a decision, they think of making their profits as high as possible and employees while making decisions on using their potential want to make it as useful as possible (*homo oeconomicus*).

The main principle for each company is the one concerning **the final labour productivity** [Kwiatkowski,1988]. The heart of the matter is an assumption that in a short time, in conditions of perfect competition on the labour market, tendency to real wages to come up to the same level as final labour productivity (i.e. additional profit made by enterprise thanks to the sale of product manufactured by labour). When wages are lower than final labour productivity, entrepreneurs may increase employment until it compensates the end labour productivity and wage rates. When wage rates are higher than final labour productivity, entrepreneurs cut down employment. The principle of marginal productivity of labour determines **demand for labour**, which in this aspect is a diminishing function of real wages.

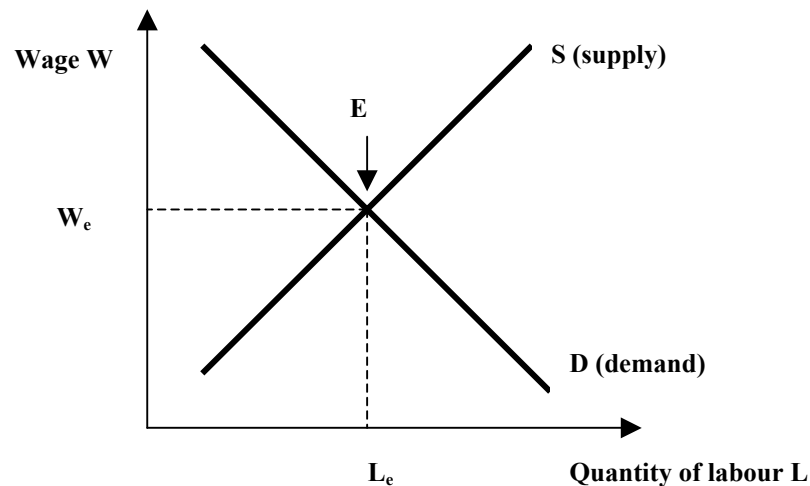
Employees willing to make the most of their utility behave according to the **principles of compensating utility of working wages with the marginal cost of labour** [Kwiatkowski, 1988]. It assumes that on one hand, work causes some troubles due to a fact that an employee has to take effort and resign from free time, on the other hand, work results in utility that can be measured by a consumption of goods and services purchased by earned money. Individuals decide to take up a job if they receive a relevant payment for distress resulting from a job. Thus, shaping **demand for labour** that is an increasing function of real wages, results from implementing the principle of compensating utility of wages with end distress of work.

From the perspective of (neo)classical economics, demand and supply are the main factors to analyze a situation on the labour market. It also assumes **high efficiency of the market mechanisms**, particularly mechanisms of changes in relative prices. Thanks to this, any disturbances in the relative equilibrium are temporary as they are dealt with quite quickly by adopting relative prices. On the labour market, flexibility of wages guarantees the equilibrium between demand and supply. The belief in efficiency of the self-regulating market mechanisms implies the necessity of introducing the concept of „a night watchman state” that in the economic processes play a rather passive role and should only establish and strengthen conditions for the free-market economy.

In the classical economics, demand and supply for labour are subject to real wages, this way a model is established where the mentioned indicators should reach equilibrium. A mechanism that strikes balance between demand and supply for labour is a price for labour, it works as follows: when disequilibrium on the competitive market occurs, flexible wages will strive for equilibrium, this in turn, will modify decisions made by employers and employees.

It will even up demand and supply on the labour in the long run, i.e. full employment will be achieved, it means that each person looking for a job will find it on the condition that they accept balanced wage rate and each entrepreneur will find an employee willing to work for this wage rate.

Chart 1. Neoclassical model of the labour market



Source: own compilation

The curves shown in Chart 1 are distinguishing for the classical model of the labour market: supply curve S and demand curve D . An intersection of both curves E determines equilibrium on the labour market for employment equals L_e , with wages equilibrium equals W_e . Employees on the right of L_e would take up a job but for a higher wage rate. According to the neoclassical model of labour they are unemployed at their own request as they don't accept wages regulated by market mechanism. Due to the fact that equilibrium point is in the curve of labour supply, by definition equilibrium means full employment; the curve of the labour supply indicates offered jobs on various levels of wages. Hence, representatives of the neoclassical concept of economics believe in settling equilibrium of full employment without facing unemployment.

Competition² is a key factor in each market including the labour market. Variety of the economic aspects of competition can be narrowed to the two main ways to the problem:

- as process— i.e. kind of dynamic action inseparably linked with market economy,
- as end-state of the market where the final effects of competition between participants of exchange occur, this way they determine kind of equilibrium of the market and/or its entities; such an approach is usually described as a structure of the market [Blaug, 2000].

A perfectly competitive market is distinguished by competition. Among enterprises, employers who are looking for employees offer higher wages comparing to present employers to attract them. Among employees, those who are looking for a new job are willing to work for lower wages than other employees already working. Thus, homogeneity of supply and demand for labour and quite large number of entities result in the fact that free decisions of individual market participants are significantly limited. In practice, „competitive” behaviour means accepting or rejecting the level of market wage rates as the only instrument of

² By definition, the notion of competitiveness is based on rivalry among entities or groups that want to achieve the same goal, it is possible only when resources are limited.

competition, for entities it means that meeting planned objectives and benefits is under control and adjusted to what the other do (assuming that all of them run business independently of each other). Hence, paradoxically, **intensity of competition is quite limited on the perfect labour market**. Thus, the term “competitive labour market” shall be understood as an existing system of market forces shaping its structure. In such a system, competitive advantage obtained by market participants (employees or employers) isn’t so huge or stable to freely shape labour conditions and wages³.

Competitive labour market – modern perspective

Model of competitive labour market and its main principles face a wide range of barriers with regard to phenomena taking place on the labour market. They are as follows:

- Limited access of entities on the labour market to information that is crucial element of decision;
- Heterogeneity of jobs and employees;
- Limited flexibility of wages because of the institutions of the labour market (trade union, legislation on minimal wages, etc.);
- Limited professional and spatial mobility of employees.

Moreover, due to a continuously changing economic situation, in the economy as well as in the employment, new and new phenomena take place that result in the necessity to modify the theories. Hence, new theories on the labour market occurred and they modified assumption to the neoclassical paradigm⁴. What is common to the theories, they reject an assumption that demand and supply for labour are shaped by wages only, the changes in wages guarantee equilibrium between supply and demand.

Among alternative approaches to the neoclassical theory of employment that examine structure and mechanisms of the labour market, also the **theory of labour market segmentation** was established, it’s based on the observation that the labour market isn’t homogeneous, on the contrary it’s very heterogeneous. According to the supporters of this theory, understanding labour market from the classical economics perspective as a single in an economy scale where only one equilibrium wage is shaped seems to be far-reaching simplification. Although the concept of homogenous labour market is important and useful, it seems to be more appropriate to examine it in fragments. Hence, such labour markets as markets of: *individual professions, sector markets or local (regional) markets* were isolated and analyzed with the use of criteria commonly regarded as traditional [Barański, 2004]. On the other hand, the person who divided labour market into segments for the first time according to other criterion than traditional was C. Kerr. His theory on three-segment labour market [Kerr, 1954] laid the foundation for other concepts of the labour market segmentation. At present, in the era of the economy based on knowledge, the dual character of the labour market is emphasized thus two sectors in the labour market are distinguished: sector of qualified employees– *primary sector* and sector of unqualified employees– *secondary sector*.)

³ On the contrary to the monopsonic labour market where only one employer dominates. The enterprise that is a monopsony or oligomonopsony on the labour market may look for the most attractive combination of salary and employment that will guarantee profits maximalization. As describing in details the monopsonic labour market isn’t the aim of this article, further reading on this issue can be found in : Begg D., Fischer S., Dornbusch R., (1996 and later editions), *Mikroekonomia*, PWN, Warszawa; Samuelson P.A., Nordhaus W.D. (1996 and later editions), *Ekonomia*, PWN, Warszawa; *Mikroekonomia*, ed. D. Kopycińska (2000), Szczecin *et al.*

⁴ The most important theories on the modern labour market include theories on: looking for a job, human capital, conflict, principal-agent, contracts and segments. Despite the fact that none of them provides complex description of the labour market functioning, they are sources of information on the principles and functioning of the labour market as some aspects were analyzed by them.

According to the segmentation concept, no matter if we examine global or local labour market, it consists of various partial labour markets that are distinguished on the basis of various criterion. Labour market segmentation is favoured by diversified demand for labour and restricting occupational, company and geographic mobility of employees who at the same represent various professional and social features that differentiate demand for labour. Various ways of functioning, not the same properties of places of work, professional career opportunities, salary, access to employees willing work for an individual employer, etc. distinguish the segments of the labour market from one another [Kryńska, 1996].

What is crucial, **individual segments of the market differ from one another in the character of competition, too.** It becomes more fierce in case of scarce goods or resources, as well as valuable and those that are difficult to replace. Therefore, in segments with a shortage of labour force (in the number of employees or their qualifications), entrepreneurs compete for employees intensively. However, in the sectors facing surplus of labour force, employees enter competition for a better job.

Therefore, if a business entity wants to overcome a competition, it needs to take measures enhancing its attractiveness. The win-situation is possible only when competing entities have ability and potential to obtain competitive advantage, in another words, to enter competition, an entity needs to be competitive. Despite it's very common on the labour market, **competitiveness** isn't the term unambiguously defined. However, it can be generally understood as an **ability of market exchange participants to efficient implementing objectives** in the conditions of competitiveness on the market [Stankiewicz, 2002]. In this sense, competitiveness should be understood as an individual feature or skill enabling to take actions efficiently despite intelligent activity of the market rivals. One of the significant aspects of competitiveness is its relativism: to assess level of competitiveness of an entity participating in the process, it's necessary to find a benchmark (of the competitive object) and compare it with the entity.

The heart of the matter isn't limited to implementing the concept at the microeconomic level, on the contrary, the majority of researchers and analysis are made at the macroeconomic level, where the national economy and its subsystems are useful benchmarks for assessing competitiveness. Many publications focus on the OECD approach (1996), according to which competitiveness is the ability of companies, industries, regions or supranational regions to generate, while being and remaining exposed to international competition, relatively high factor income and factor employment levels on a sustainable basis. According to this definition, competitiveness can be assessed at various levels, such as:

- macro – international competitiveness of the economies,
- mezo – competitiveness of industries, sectors of the economy,
- competitiveness at the micro level, e.g. competitiveness of an employee on the labour market of an enterprise in its sector.

As it was mentioned above, approaches to competitiveness, its determinants and the ways of assessment described in the literature differ significantly. Nevertheless, the discussion taking place at present allows to distinguish some kinds of competitiveness, a close attention should be paid to competitiveness that focuses on the strengths and weaknesses of an entity, and competitiveness describing ability to obtain a long-term competitive advantage over the others.

From a microeconomic perspective, if participants of the labour market (enterprises and employees) want to achieve their objectives, they have to enter competition. The factors shaping competitiveness of employers and employees depend on the character of the labour market segment, but as the literature emphasizes in each case it should be the result of strategic choices.

However, „competitiveness of the labour market” can be analyzed from the macroeconomic perspective, i.e. with regard to the labour market of a given country. Due to relativism of competitiveness and the necessity of benchmarking, in case of labour markets of various countries, competitiveness can be regarded as market „attractiveness” for investors, foreign ones in particular. In this aspect, the labour market is competitive when it obtained a competitive advantage over markets in other countries or regions. Thus, **competitiveness of the labour market** can be defined as offering better conditions of exchange (labour force) than the other participants of the international economic turnover⁵. Competitiveness of the labour market understood in such a way refers mainly to supply aspect of the labour market, i.e. to existing and available labour force on the market. These factors are as follows:

- cost of labour;
- quality of human capital (qualifications and skills possessed by employees)
- professional and geographical mobility of labour force.

Another aspect of the labour market competitiveness is linked with its impact on the economy competitiveness. The labour market and its conditions are indicated in various assessments and rankings of the economy competitiveness⁶ as one of the factors determining socio-economic results obtained by the economy. Therefore, high competition in human resources enables to recruit and shape valuable resources that comprise competitive potential what triggers socio-economic development.

Conclusion

In the theory of economics, the model of the competitive labour market laid the foundation for discussion on functioning of the labour market. This model is based on some assumptions and reflects well the underlying motives behind decisions made by participants of the labour market, both employers and employee. In this model, thanks to competition better salary is available (market equilibrium wage becomes a benchmark); however, making free decisions is significantly limited. The labour market is competitive in a sense of the structural system of market forces as opposite to monopolistic (monopsonic) model of market.

However, assumptions of the competitive labour market don't cover the real phenomena taking place in the modern economy. More appropriate is to consider the labour market as a set of various segments indicated by so-called traditional and alternative criteria. The character of competition within a sector is one of the features distinguishing individual sectors of the labour market.

The mechanism of competition on the labour market between employers and employees makes both groups to compete. Thus, the term “competitive enterprise” can mean both that an enterprise *is* on the competitive labour market and that enterprise *is able* to compete efficiently on the labour market. At present, competitiveness can be assessed not only with regard to of the main entities on the market such as: enterprises or households but also individual markets, regions or the economies of countries. Hence, benchmarking the labour markets in various countries enables assessment of their competitiveness understood not only as intensification of competition on the market (market structure) but also in the aspect of its properties i.e. ability to offer more attractive conditions.

⁵ Competitiveness of the labour markets means comparing regions at the mezo-economic level.

⁶ Some attempts of defining competitiveness in the macroeconomic aspect can be found in articles provided by some international economic organizations involved in conducting researches on competitiveness of countries. The most important are IMD in Lausanne and World Economic Forum (WEF) in Geneva.

Comprehension check

1. What does „competitive labour market” mean?
2. What does the scope of competition on the labour market depend on?
3. When does competition on the labour market take place? How to recognise competition on the labour market between:
 - a. enterprises,
 - b. those looking for a job,
 - c. regions or countries.
4. Why do some labour markets differ from each others, e.g. IT experts or nurses? Which segments face the fiercest competition from the perspective of employees and employers?
5. What do enterprises do to compete for employees?
6. How people are prepared (or they prepare on their own) for entering and successful career on the labour market? What information is used in order to make the best choice of a job available on the labour market?

Exercise

Assess competitiveness of the Polish labour market in comparison with the labour markets of various Member States. Base you assessment on data provided below, own observation and knowledge. (Data is derived from Eurostat. Due to the lack of complete data for 2005, data for 2004 is analyzed.)

Table 1. Selected indicators of employment in the EU in 2004

State	Employment rate	Employment growth rate	GDP growth rate	% persons employed part-time	Employment rate of older workers	Average exit age from the labour force
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EU -25	63,3	0,5	2,4	17,8	41,0	60,7
EU -15	64,7	0,6	2,3	19,5	42,5	61,0
Belgium	60,3	0,6	2,6	21,6	30,	59,4
Czech Rep.	64,2	0,1	4,2	5,0	42,7	60,0
Denmark	75,7	0,0	1,9	22,5	60,3	62,1
Germany	65,0	0,4	1,2	22,3	41,8	61,3
Estonia	63,0	0,0	7,8	7,8	52,4	62,3
Greece	59,4	3,4	4,7	4,6	39,4	59,5
Spain	61,1	2,6	3,2	8,9	41,3	62,2
France	63,1	0,0	2,3	16,6	37,3	58,9
Ireland	66,3	3,1	4,3	16,9	49,5	62,8
Italy	57,6	0,3	0,9	12,7	30,5	Bd.
Cyprus	68,9	3,8	3,9	8,7	49,9	62,7
Latvia	62,3	1,1	8,6	10,5	47,9	62,9
Lithuania	61,2	-0,1	7,0	8,6	47,1	60,8
Luxembourg	62,5	2,3	4,2	16,4	30,4	57,7

Hungary	56,8	-0,7	5,2	4,6	31,1	60,5
Malta	54,0	-0,8	-0,5	8,1	31,5	57,7
Netherlands	73,1	-0,9	2,0	45,6	45,2	61,1
Austria	67,8	0,0	2,4	20,2	28,8	Bd.
Poland	51,7	-0,3	5,3	10,5	26,2	57,7
Portugal	67,8	0,1	1,2	11,2	50,3	62,2
Slovenia	65,3	0,4	4,2	9,6	29,0	Bd.
Slovakia	57,0	-0,3	5,4	2,7	26,8	58,5
Finland	67,6	0,4	3,5	13,1	50,9	60,5
Sweden	72,1	-0,5	3,7	23,9	69,1	62,8
United Kingdom	71,6	1,0	3,3	26,2	56,2	62,1

Column 2: employment indicator calculated as ratio of the working aged 15-64 to the total number of the working at the same age (a working person is regarded as the one who did a paid job for at least 1 hour in the examined period).

Column 3: annual average change in the total number of working (%).

Column 7: indicator reflects a ratio of the working aged 55-64 to the total population at the same age.

Source: Eurostat

Table 2. Selected indicators of unemployment in the EU in 2004

State	Unemployment rate	Long-term unemployment rate	Unemployment rate of young people	Unemployment rate by education		
				Primary and vocational	Secondary	Tertiary
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EU -25	9,1	4,1	18,9	11,4	8,4	4,8
EU - 15	8,0	3,4	16,7	10,4	7,1	4,7
Belgium	8,4	4,1	21,2	11,1	6,0	3,4
Czech Rep.	8,3	4,2	1,0	23,4	6,5	1,9
Denmark	5,5	1,2	8,2	8,1	4,9	4,0
Germany	9,5	5,4	15,1	20,3	10,9	5,3
Estonia	9,7	5,0	21,7	17,6	10,1	5,1
Greece	10,5	5,6	26,9	8,8	9,9	7,0
Spain	10,7	3,4	23,4	11,4	9,3	7,4
France	9,6	3,9	21,9	10,9	6,6	5,4
Ireland	4,5	1,6	8,9	6,7	3,2	2,1
Italy	8,0	4,0	23,6	7,9	5,4	4,9
Cyprus	4,6	1,2	10,5	5,7	3,6	2,8
Latvia	10,4	4,6	18,1	15,2	9,8	3,3
Lithuania	11,4	5,8	22,7	14,5	12,0	5,7
Luxembourg	5,1	1,1	16,5	5,5	4,3	3,3
Hungary	6,1	2,7	15,5	11,2	4,7	1,9
Malta	7,3	3,4	16,2	5,6	3,6	0,3
Netherlands	4,6	1,6	8,0	5,8	3,9	2,8
Austria	4,8	1,3	9,6	8,1	3,7	3,1
Poland	19,0	10,3	39,6	29,6	17,2	6,1
Portugal	6,7	3,0	15,4	6,4	5,5	4,0
Slovenia	6,3	3,2	16,1	9,3	5,0	2,7
Slovakia	18,2	11,8	33,1	48,9	15,1	4,7
Finland	8,8	2,1	20,7	12,4	8,3	4,8

Sweden	6,3	1,2	16,3	5,8	5,6	3,9
United Kingdom	4,7	1,0	12,1	6,7	3,7	2,2

Column 2: share of the unemployed in the total number of the professionally active (in %).

Column 3, 4: indicator calculated as the ratio of the unemployed in special group (e.g. age) to total number of professionally active.

Columns 5, 6, 7: indicator calculated as the ratio of unemployed aged 25-64 at a particular level of education to the total number of the working at age 25-64.

Source: Eurostat

Table 3. Selected indicators of the labour market in the EU Member States in 2004

State	Labour productivity (%)	Monthly labour cost (euro)	Tax wedge (%)	Public expenditures on education (%)	Share of persons improving qualifications (%)	Share of population having at least upper secondary education (%)
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
EU-25	100	bd	36,4	5,21	10,3	67,9
EU -15	106,2	bd	36,3	5,20	11,1	65,0
Belgium	128,3	3910,1	48,9	6,06	9,5	63,6
Czech Rep.	64,1	841,6	41,9	4,55	6,3	89,0
Denmark	103,6	4186,3	39,3	8,28	27,6	81,4
Germany	99,9	3747,0	47,9	4,71	7,4	83,9
Estonia	55,8	650,3	38,9	5,67	6,7	88,9
Greece	bd	bd	34,4	3,94	2,0	58,7
Spain	98,9	2081,6	35,2	4,29	5,1	45,0
France	118,8	3503,0	42,3	5,91	7,8	65,1
Ireland	128,9	Bd	20,5	4,40	7,2	63,0
Italy	110,0	bd	41,4	4,74	6,8	48,9
Cyprus	75,1	1902,6	18,6	7,36	9,3	64,4
Latvia	42,6	bd	41,1	5,32	9,1	84,0
Lithuania	49,4	508,3	40,0	5,18	6,5	86,7
Luxembourg	157,1	bd	29,2	4,06	9,8	63,2
Hungary	68,0	838,2	44,8	5,94	4,6	75,1
Malta	80,9	1257,1	18,0	4,84	4,8	23,2
Netherlands	107,6	3828,0	40,4	5,07	17,3	70,8
Austria	bd	bd	43,4	5,48	12,0	80,2
Poland	61,9	699,2	42,2	5,62	5,5	83,4
Portugal	65,8	1394,5	32,4	5,61	4,8	25,3
Slovenia	74,9	bd	39,8	6,02	17,9	79,3
Slovakia	60,2	636,0	39,6	4,38	4,6	86,6
Finland	109,2	3698,0	39,4	6,51	24,6	77,6
Sweden	106,1	bd	47,1	7,47	33,3	82,9
United Kingdom	107,0	3848,6	29,7	5,38	29,1	70,4

Column 2: productivity as GDP per capita. It contains indicators in terms of the average productivity of the EU 25. If it exceeds 100, it means that labour productivity per 1 working person in a given country is higher than the EU average.

Column 3: given in euro, average monthly employment cost, it includes pay- and non-pay related cost of hiring an employee.

Column 4: it reflects tax and other obligatory burdens borne by employers, in % of salary received by an employee.

Column 5: % share of expenditures on education in GDP.

Column 6: data on share of people aged 25-64 who within 4 weeks preceding the research took part in any form of training, no matter if it was linked with future or potential job.

Column 7: it reflects the share of the population that is likely to have the minimum necessary qualifications to actively participate in labour market

Source: Eurostat

Hints for a lecturer

- The issue should be discussed with students within 2x1,5 hour classes.
- The first class should focus on competitiveness, principles and limitations of the model of perfectly competitive market (tasks 1-7). Work in groups can be a good start for a discussion.
- The second class should focus of competitiveness of labour understood as its properties (task 8).

Recommended further reading

- Begg D., Fischer S., Dornbusch R., (1996 and further editions), *Mikroekonomia*, PWN, Warszawa;
- Burke T, Genn-Bash A., Haines B. (1991), *Competition in Theory and Practice*, Routledge, Chapman and Hall, Inc., London
- *Luka konkurencyjna na poziomie przedsiębiorstwa a przystąpienie Polski do Unii Europejskiej*, ed. M. Gorynia (2002), AE w Poznaniu,
- Manning A. (2003), *Monopsony in Motion: Imperfect Competition in Labour Markets*, Princeton
- *Mikroekonomia*, ed. D. Kopycińska (2000), Szczecin
- Samuelson P.A., Nordhaus W.D. (1996 and further editions), *Ekonomia*, PWN, Warszawa;
- Wrzosek W. (1994), *Funkcjonowanie rynku*, PWE, Warszawa

References

1. Barański K. (2004), *Bezrobocie strukturalne na lokalnych rynkach pracy w województwie zachodniopomorskim*, Wyd. Naukowe US, Szczecin
2. Beardwell I., Holden L.,(1997), *Human Resources Management. A Contemporary Perspective*, Pitman Publishing
3. Blaug M. (1994), *Teoria ekonomii. Ujęcie retrospektywne*, Wyd. Naukowe PWN, Warszawa
4. Blaug M. (2000), *Konkurencja jako stan końcowy i jako proces*, Rector's Lectures No.44, AE w Krakowie,
5. Kerr C. (1954), *The Balkanization of Labor Markets* [w :] *Labor Mobility and Economic Opportunity*, Cambridge
6. Kryńska E. (1996), *Segmentacja rynku pracy. Podstawy teoretyczne i analiza statystyczna*, Wyd. UŁ, Łódź
7. Kwiatkowski E., (1988), *Neoklasyczne teorie zatrudnienia. Tradycja i współczesność.*, PWN, Warszawa,
8. *Luka konkurencyjna na poziomie przedsiębiorstwa a przystąpienie Polski do Unii Europejskiej*, red. M. Gorynia (2002), AE Poznań
9. *Mikroekonomia*, red. D. Kopycińska (2000), Szczecin

10. *OECD Economic Studies* (1996), European Commission
11. Stankiewicz M. (2002), *Konkurencyjność przedsiębiorstwa. Badanie konkurencyjności przedsiębiorstwa w warunkach globalizacji*, TNOiK,

