Study
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in Poland

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What kind of staff do employers search for?

Employers' demand for employees and competency requirements for the potential employees

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HUMAN CAPITAL
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PARP

JAGIELLONIAN
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Polish Agency for Enterprise Development
Warsaw 2012

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We hereby present the results of the second round of the study testing the demand for employees in the Polish economy, being a part of the Study of Human Capital project conducted by the Polish Agency for Enterprise Development (PARP) in partnership with the Jagiellonian University. The results have been based on a random sample of enterprises as well as analysis of job offers published online and available in the District (Poviat) Employment Agencies. Just as in the case of the first round, the presented to you partial report, first out of five reports prepared in this round by our research team, has been drawn up mainly for the purpose of reviewing the study results. The main report presents study results with a problem–based approach, basing them on linking information from various data sources applied in the study.

This round's studies were conducted more or less half a year after finishing the first round. The following studies will, however, typically be carried out in the first half of a year, at one–year intervals. The fact that this round was carried out at a shorter interval allows for us to take a closer look at the changes of nature of demand which, to some extent, show certain seasonal properties. While it is true that certain insecurity of the economic situation in the euro zone is casting a shadow over the labour market, it did not have a strong impact, in the relatively short period, on the general trend in the labour market. What we can see there, besides seasonal variation, which has been known for several years now, is some stagnation connected with expecting the situation to take a certain direction and balancing the tendency to import the consequences of the economic downturn happening abroad, driven by inflow of low exchange rate of the Polish zloty. This might be observed through the stability of the general ratio of companies in search for new hires as well as the fact that the new employees are mainly hired due to employee turnover (detailed data concerning the subject have been included in this report). With this perspective in mind, it is interesting, though not surprising, that there are some differences in the structure of the demand, being influenced by various types of economic and educational activities (e.g. IT specialists are rather sought for in the autumn, whereas workers, in particular construction workers – rather in the spring). Changes in the scope of competencies of employees searched for by companies active in the job market proved to be insignificant between particular waves and show the differences in the structure of vacancies.

This round's data, as in the case of the previous one, was collected by Millward Brown SMG/KRC. The study was conducted on a sample of 16,159 companies. Description of the drawing method and sample weighting, ensuring result representativeness for population of business entities regarding within the assumed study framework, is presented in the methodological remarks at the beginning of the report. Due to the fact that an overwhelming majority of active entities are micro–enterprises and a great part of job opportunities are given by relevantly few large companies, we used disproportionate stratified sampling with relevant weighting. As it might be expected, medium sized and large companies are over–represented in the sample. The group consisting of entities hiring over 250 employees is covered by the study comprehensively, although only some of the companies collaborated with us in the study. Many such entities have been included in panel research, enabling tracking changes that occurred inside the companies between the two rounds of the study. These panel results have been included in the main report.

We would like to thank all of the employers that agreed to participate in this study. Each company's participation as well as giving complete, specific answers to questions included in the questionnaire, constitute an essential factor on the way to create relevant, representative picture of our job market. The picture we are showing you cannot have better quality than the quality of data we receive from our respondents. We would like to express our appreciation for understanding the above to over sixteen thousand people, who on behalf of their companies shared the information with us. They have participated in creating the „Study of Human Capital", hence it is their work, too.

The first part of the report comprises a summary, which allows for us not to present brief results in the introduction. We hope that you will find this overview report interesting and it will encourage you to read the main report and two other detailed reports.

Jarosław Górniak
Project Manager

EMPLOYERS HAVE BECOME MORE CAUTIOUS WHEN IT COMES TO INCREASING EMPLOYMENT

Employers' actions in the 2nd quarter of 2011 indicated certain caution when it comes to changes in employment. Despite seasonal increase of employment connected with intensification of works in the construction, transportation and food industries, employers were willing to hire only slightly larger number of employees – in terms of absolute figures, they declared a demand higher by 30,000 employees in comparison to the turn of the 3rd and 4th quarter of 2010, i.e. 5% higher.

Larger employers were more frequent to declare that they were ready to hire new staff (over 40% of businesses employing more than 250 people as against 17% of the small ones, employing up to 9 people) and sought for a larger number of potential new hires, which is related to a bigger scale of such undertakings. As micro–enterprises are dominant in the general number of businesses, they are the ones which generated a great deal of demand for employees and were responsible for the indicated changes. The fact that growth of employment is mainly attributable to turnover of employees on the already existing positions, proves the increased caution of employers in the spring of 2011 – only every 10th business declared they were seeking staff for a newly created post (in the autumn of 2010 employers also showed certain reservations in this area, yet 15% of them wanted to establish new posts). New positions were more frequently created by smaller businesses, however this is rather attributable to the specific nature of development of small businesses (i.e. when expanding the scope of activities requires creating new posts) than a general trend. The biggest number of new hires due to employee turnover was observed in the manufacturing field, namely: industry, mining, construction and transportation industries (92% of employees were sought for already existing posts), which is owed to the specific nature of seasonal work – when the season comes there is a greater demand to perform more work, but by performance of similar tasks. Employers seem to be rather careful when it comes to forecasts regarding the future changes in employment, too. When comparing opinions from 2010 and 2011, in the latter year the number of employers thinking that employment would grow, decreased by 5%.The major obstacles in the way of employment growth in the opinions of employers are high non–payroll expenses, high taxes and unstable economic situation. The above was mostly expressed by the smallest businesses where such issues are most limiting. What is more, when compared to the previous round, in this round such opinions were much more common.

SEASONAL CHANGE IN THE CHARACTER OF SOUGHT STAFF

Seasonal change in economy in the spring had an impact on the character of professions sought in 2011. The general trend among employers was pursuit of staff from the same three occupation groups, however the significance of respective groups changed:

- **skilled workers** – sought by 50% of employers looking for workforce in the spring of 2011, whereas in the previous period (autumn 2010) they constituted 40% of the searched for workforce. Employers were mainly looking for construction workers (*bricklayers, plasterers, pavers, construction carpenters, painters, roofers and sanitary systems fitter*), drivers (*in particular truck drivers*);
- **services workers** – sough slightly more often in 2011 in comparison to 2010 (5% more employers seeking workforce were looking for staff for these occupations). The most wanted jobs were: sales workers, customer service employees (*hairdressers/hair stylists, waiters and bartenders as well as beauticians*) and security guards*;*
- **professionals** – the biggest change was observed in the case of this group. In 2010 40% of employers seeking new hires were searching for professionals, whereas in 2011 only 15% were in need of such employees (25% if business and administration associate professionals, i.e. mainly *sales representatives, insurance agents and accountants* were to be counted in). The most wanted included: health care profes-

sionals (*various specialisation physicians and nurses*), economics and management professionals (*sales and marketing specialists*), physics, mathematics and technical professionals (*construction engineers, architects, industrial designers and graphic designers*), information and communication technology specialists (*software developers and software development specialists*), legal, social and culture professionals (*legal counsels, lawyers and archivists*), teaching professionals (*various specialisation teachers and educators*).

The above structure of the professions in need is a clear result of seasonal changes brought forth by larger demand for physical workers. Future rounds of the study will show whether the observed change was brought by seasonality or it is a deeper change related to the need to adapt to the economic crisis.

EMPLOYERS PAID LESS ATTENTION TO PROFESSIONAL COMPETENCIES OF EMPLOYEES AND INSTEAD APPRECIATED THEIR GENERAL COMPETENIES MORE

General requirements for job candidates were basically the same – employers paid attention, above all, to: the candidates' gender, their work experience and level of education. In terms of gender, the study focused on the employers' preferences regarding whether to employ men or women (i.e. whether they would prefer to hire a man or a woman for a given post) and, as it turned out, the issue mattered to three–quarters of employers. Gender counted mainly in the case of physical occupations, where employers preferred men, whereas when it comes to white–collar employees, gender was a question of secondary importance.

As far as experience is concerned, employers expected candidates with at least one–year work experience. The more demanding the profession, the longer work experience required, and in the case of managerial positions it reached even three years of experience.

Requirements concerning the candidates' level of education were evidently directly proportional to the vacancy – the more specialised the occupation, the higher the level of education required.

Similarly to the last year's round of the study, when formulating competency requirements towards the candidates, employers paid attention primarily to three main competencies:

1. **self–organising competencies** – related to self–organising, initiative, punctuality and general motivation to work (essential for 50% of employers seeking workforce) – required from all candidates regardless of the job they were searching for;
2. **interpersonal competencies** – concerning contacts with people, both with colleagues and clients (45% of employers seeking new hires paid attention to these competencies) – they were crucial for employers seeking staff for white–collar positions, i.e. the ones which consist in every–day contacts with people;
3. **professional competencies** – specific for a given job and strictly related to the nature of activities performed (sought by 38% of employers searching for new hires) – more significant in the case of blue–collar occupations.

In comparison to autumn of 2010, general competencies, such as the self–organising and interpersonal ones (the former in particular when it comes to managerial and professional positions as well as associate professionals), gained in importance, whereas professional competencies lost importance (in particular in the case of managers and professionals). It was partially caused by seasonal change in demand for employees, especially when it comes to the lower number of wanted professionals and a greater demand for workers, where self–organising of work is of top importance

(employers refer to it as to motivation to work). On the other hand, it is also a result of general problems with finding appropriate candidates who would meet the employers' requirements in terms of professional competencies. This led to employers putting candidates with eagerness to work and independence, and communication skills over the ones with professional competencies as ones that should be easy to train.

LACK OF CANDIDATES MEETING THE EMPLOYERS' REQUIREMENTS HINDERS RECRUITING THE MOST WANTED EMPLOYEES

Three quarters of employers seeking workforce experienced problems with finding appropriate candidates. The very same percentage of employers declared similar difficulties in autumn 2010, which may indicate systematic misalignment in the labour market.

Interestingly enough, the greatest troubles with finding appropriate employees referred to jobs which at the same time were the most sought ones, i.e.:

- **skilled workers** – 50% of employers seeking workforce declared having problems with finding such candidates;
- **professionals** – 30% of employers seeking workforce experiences troubles;
- **services workers** – 24% of employers found recruitment of such staff problematic.

Misalignment of the employers' requirements to the candidates' competencies concerned primarily lack of the required competencies (which hindered recruitment processes of one third of employers searching for workforce). Another reason mentioned was lack of professional experience (regarding mostly cases of recruitment for managerial positions) as well as lack of motivation to work (which concerned mostly unskilled workers).

As a result of the change in the structure of employees in demand (greater number of workers, lower number of professionals) employers in 2011 more frequently complained about the candidates' lack of motivation to work (the number of complaints grew by 7% as opposed to 2010).

The competencies which the candidates lacked were most frequently the ones which were mostly appreciated by the employers:

- **professional competencies;**
- **self–organising competencies;**
- **Interpersonal competencies.**

Hence, the specific nature of a job bears more significance when it comes to searching for specific employees, as it turns out that professional competencies (or rather their lack) are relatively more important than general competencies.

RECRUITMENT METHODS

One of the most surprising things when it comes to recruitment methods is that, contrary to popular opinions, employers relatively often used the help of District Employment Agencies (half of employers admitted they used this method of seeking workforce). Furthermore, they find such assistance positive (60% of employers were at least fairly satisfied). A more common method of seeking employees were family or friends' recommendations (76% of employers applied such method), which was used primarily by the smallest employers who found it very effective (80% of at least moderately positive opinions). Larger employers on the other hand more frequently published classifieds in press or listings online (over ¾ of larger employers applied such method and had positive opinions about it).

EMPLOYERS WERE SATISFIED WITH THEIR STAFF

The majority of employers were generally satisfied with the new hires' competencies – only 4% of them complained about that. However, 46% of them saw the need or necessity to provide their staff with additional training. The aforementioned necessity was more crucial for businesses employing at least 10 people, which proves greater awareness of large employers but also the need to train their staff.Employers tended to see the need to improve primarily three types of competencies:

- **professional;**
- **self–organising;**
- **interpersonal.**

Thus, they want to improve the skills which are crucial for them. In comparison with autumn 2010, in the spring of 2011 employers observed greater necessity to improve professional competencies (the number raised by 12%), which seems to prove the rather negative image of human capital in the labour market. Employers would rather take in people who are less qualified but better organised and holding better communication skills, and once they have been employed, ensure an appropriate level of professional competencies for them.

Methodology of the study of employers and job offers

How and when was the study conducted

Description of results weighting

Definitions, classifications and ways of presenting the results

CONDUCTING THE STUDY

Study with employers was conducted in the spring of 2011 – between March 29th and June 29th. As a reminder, the 1st round of the study was conducted between August 17th and December 10th, 2010. Hence, 6 months passed between the two rounds of the study. The study was conducted by Millward Brown SMG/KRC. A multi–mode approach was applied for the study, which indicates simultaneous usage of different methods of contacting respondents: personally, via phone or online. People conducting the study used mostly phone interviews – 93% of the results were collected that way. The rest of the interviews was performed as Computer–assisted personal interviews (CAPI – 5% of the results) and Computer–assisted web interviews (CAWI –2% of the results). Generally speaking, 16,159 interviews with the employers were performed during the second round of the study (15,841 of interviews were collected during the first round). The study covered employers, i.e. business entities currently present on the market, that is entities that employed at least one employee during the field trial. Self–employed people were excluded from the study population – they were included in the study between randomly selected sample of people. Furthermore, some entities classified in the Polish Classification of Activities PKD–2007, i.e.: agriculture, forestry, hunting and fishing, as well as public administration and defence, compulsory social security, households as employers, undifferentiated goods– and services–producing activities of households for own use, and extraterritorial organisations and bodies, membership organizations and foundations, churches, religious associations , societies and other social organizations, political parties, trade unions, employers, business and trade self–government associations, tenant management organizations, and farmers associations were also excluded from the study. Exact study on the above companies and authorities representing those particular sectors and types of entities would not be possible to conduct with the assumed volume of sample.

OPERAT

List of entities used during the sampling came from REGON (National Register of Business Entities) database, verified with other information regarding such entities collected by Central Statistical Office. Using National Register of Business Entities as a source of information enabled selection of the sample compliant with assumptions regarding target populations, ensuring correct results quality.

Sample drawn from National Register of Business Entities, including the panel sample (9,900 entities) used in the first phase of the study and the sample drawn by the Tax Office (3,6704 entities) were used for the study. Before drawing the non–panel sample, the following major entities included in the panel sample were excluded from the sampling frame, i.e.:

- all entities from the „1,000 and more" employees subcategory,
- all entities from the „250–999" employees subcategory,
- all entities from the „50–249" subcategory, which in 90% constitute entities from the „100–249" subcategory.

Disproportionate stratification was used during sampling of entities for the non–panel sample. First of all it was disproportionate regarding administrative regions (voivodeships), from which equal sample of 1,500 entities was drawn. Second of all proportionate sampling was used regarding quantity of entities (2–9, 10–49, 50–249), share of the entities employing up to 9 employees in the sample was reduced by 50%. This micro number reduced from the group of entities was proportionally located in other stratums. Random sample was divided into 1 major (24,000 entities) and 5 back–up samples (combined volume of entities – 12,704). As it turned out during the first round of the study, back–up samples proved necessary (because elements from outside of the examined population were present in the sample – self–employed people, as well as companies, that no longer existed or elements duplicating other records). At first, incorrect elements indicated by the Provider were replaced (re–sampled from the back–up sampling frame). However, when number of records got close to 10% of the volume of the main sample (2,995 records, with 2,136 from 2–9 categories), it was decided to use the first back–up sample. Worth stressing is the fact that significant turnover inside the segment of such companies leads to impossibility to have the actual sampling frame required for drawing. Due to difficulties regarding conducting the study, as a result all back–up samples were used. The Provider additionally re–sampled the major entities sample with all entities (373) from the European Classification of Activities (EKD)

database, i.e. entities being part of the examined population, in order to complement the panel sample. Jointly – after verification of the database and complementing the sample – the sample included 45,260 entities.

The analysis of job offers covered unique job ads valid as for the day of 28 March 2011 within the area of 16 administrative regions of the country. A unique job offer was understood as a recruitment process for a single vacancy published on a given day once in every source of job offers. Due to the aim of the study, from such defined population, we excluded offers of traineeships and internships for students, as well as offers to work abroad.

The gathered job offers concerned two sources of publication:

- District Unemployment Agencies
- www.careerjet.pl – a nationwide employment website (a search engine of job offers published elsewhere). In 2011 we obtained 20,634 job offers which were later coded by two independent coders in order to ensure that the process is reliable and trustworthy. Such database was the foundation for the analysis.

DATA WEIGHTING

Weighting the employers' sample was conducted for compensating the non–identical probability of population's individuals entering the sample, resulting from the assumed sampling plan and irregular stratums' response rate. Despite efforts of the company conducting the field study, only some of the companies took part in the study. Compensating for the non–identical probability of the execution of the division into the six categories of the Polish Classification of Activities (PKD) developed especially for the needs of the weighting, a division was included in the set of stratifying variables. The assignment of more detailed PKD categories to the six classes as based on the analysis of combinations maximising the differentiation between the classes of the key variables analysed in the studies.

The final calculation of weights was conducted so that their proportion in a sample of combinations of the strata (administrative region (voivodeship) and the "number of employees" class) with the six PKD classes corresponded to their proportion in the sampling frame which was the best currently available state of the register of businesses active in Poland at the time when the study was conducted (GUS). Calculated were the population weights, making it possible to estimate the population counts during the analyses, and the standardised weights, summing up to the count of the sample. For the purpose of estimating the number of the employees sought, it was assumed that the cases with extreme numbers of offered positions sought would have population weights set at the level of 1. Assumed as the extreme criterion was the upper so–called Tukey's jack–knife, i.e. a value equal more or less to the upper quartile, increased by the doubled interquartile range (a manner of defining extreme values well–known in statistics, used among others to create diagnostic box plots and the stem–and–leaf plots); the upper Tukey's jack–knife was calculated separately for every stratum of businesses in reference to the number of the employed listed above.

Characteristic of the weights acquired in this manner is a high variance in situation of global estimations at the level of the entire country. Variance of weights drops strongly when analysis is conducted at the level of regions and in the categories of business sizes. Thanks to this, in the case of analysis within these categories, the small size of the sample is compensated for to a degree by a smaller loss of precision, due to the variance of weights. In the case of an analysis at the national level, the mechanism operates in the opposite direction.

DIFFERENCES REGARDING THE 1ST ROUND OF THE STUDY

Results of the previous round of the study from 2010 shown in this overview may vary from the results presented in the report regarding study of the employers conducted after the 1st round of the project[1]. After finishing work on reports covering the previous round of the study, updated data on number of business entities in Poland was received from Central Statistical Office, which enabled preparing new weights. That is why, it has been decided to include results including corrected weighting, in the current analysis, which gives more exact picture of Polish economy and job market, regarding covered issues.

1 Kocór, M., Strzebońska, A., 2011, Jakich pracowników potrzebują polscy Employers? (Who's wanted in Poland's Latour market?), PARP; Kocór, M., Czarnik, S., 2011, *„Diagnoza niedoborów i luk kompetencyjnych"* (*„Diagnosis of competency deficiencies and shortcomings"*): Bilans kapitału ludzkiego w Polsce, Raport podsumowujący pierwszą edycję badań w 2010 roku (Human Capital in Poland, Report summarising the first round of the study conducted in 2010), PARP, Warsaw.

USED DEFINITIONS AND CLASSIFICATIONS

Competencies

As the study of employers was just a part of the research project, it was decided to standardize key definitions, so that the obtained results were comparable between specific modules. That is why it is worth explaining the meaning of basic definitions associated with job market and human capital, which were used for the purpose of the whole project.

The most important part of the entire study was to indicate competencies required on the job market and their supply on the side of employees (current and potential – students and unemployed). Competencies, as agreed in this study, are knowledge, skills and attitudes associated with performance of specific activities, no matter how they were acquired and whether they were corroborated in a validation procedure. In case of professional activities associated with specific profession, we consider these to be occupational competencies. During conceptualization, differentiation of 11 competencies classes, regarding different areas of labour was assumed for the purpose of the project[2]:

Competencies	Abbreviation	As formulated in the questionnaire
Cognitive	COG	Finding and analysis of information, and drawing conclusions
Technical	TEC	Operating, assembling and repairing machines
Mathematical	MAT	Performing calculations
Computer	COM	Working with computers and using the Internet
Artistic	ART	Artistic and creative skills
Physical	PHY	Physical fitness
Self–organising	SLF	Self–organising, initiative, punctuality
Interpersonal	PER	Contacts with other people
Office	OFF	Organisation, and conducting work at the office
Managerial	MGN	Managerial skills and organisation of work
Availability	AVL	Availability

Apart from eleven general competency classes, which were included in questions asked to the employers, opinions on occupational competencies often occurred. Those competencies were defined in a very specific way, as knowledge, skills and attitudes determined by the specific nature of working performing responsibilities of a certain occupation. This caused significant difficulty, resulting from a great diversification of such competencies associated with major disintegration of occupations. Assuming that new classification of occupations prepared by the International Labour Organisation includes 2,301 detailed occupations and specializations, it was impossible to describe all professional competencies, relevant to each of those occupations. That is why it was agreed on, that professional com-

2 The proposed classification of competencies was prepared after an analysis of various approaches to professional competencies used by various institutions all over the world, ranging from institutions dealing with statistical data (e.g. Australian Bureau of Statistics), via bodies designing competency standards (e.g. National Standards of Occupational Classification), to projects responsible for developing occupational competencies (e.g. O*NET. The Occupational Information Network). Complete discussion of the classification developed is presented in the report concluding the first round of the study.

petencies apply to specific occupations and based on knowledge of such occupation, entities and people will be able to define requirements regarding competency resources relevant to each occupation[3].

Other term used separately from the term competencies are qualifications. As agreed for the purpose of the project – qualifications are knowledge and skills, corroborated in the process of formal validation procedure (in the narrow sense, what can be considered qualification is the type of knowledge, skills, and attitudes that has been confirmed by an evaluating unit accredited by public authorities). Hence specific category driving license, holding language certificates, etc shall be considered as qualifications.

Occupations

Studying the competency resources, it is necessary to refer them to the occupation performed. Thus, the need to define what an occupation is arises, in particular regarding the study of employers. An occupation is understood as a collection of professional tasks, distinguished through a social division of labour that requires appropriate professional qualifications from the employee. In the companies' HR specialists lingo, the term "position" is used more often to determine specific, smallest organisational unit of an enterprise, associated with performance of a specific set of actions, requiring specified competencies and/or qualifications from the employee. Looking for employees, employers want to hire them for a specific position. The posts may also be multi–occupational, for example, a construction installation assembler is frequently required to show competences associated with such occupations as electrician, floor layer and tile setter, and plasterer. Therefore, to streamline the research among the employers, questions were asked about people sought for specific jobs, competencies required for the specific position, etc. However the comparability of the results between specific modules required coding standardization, that is why the standard classification of occupations provided by the International Labour Organisation in the form of ISCO–08 was used. All job positions were coded according to this standard. That is why search for employees shall be considered according to occupational meaning for the purpose of this study. Because detailed classification of occupations includes over 200 occupations and specializations, it is impossible to describe all of them – due to both low level of data transparency and small number of representatives of majority of the included occupations. That is why the information regarding specific occupations has been aggregated to general occupation group categories. For practical purposes, the report includes two kinds of categorization – to so called major groups, consisting of 39 more detailed occupation groups.

Abbreviation	Name of the major occupation group
MNGR	Public authorities representatives, top managerial staff and general managers
PROF	Professionals
ASSO	Technicians and other associate professionals
CLER	Clerical support workers
SERV	Services and sales workers
AGRI	Agricultural, forestry and fishery workers*
SKILL	Crafts and related trades workers
OPER	Plant and machine operators and assemblers
UNSK	Elementary occupations

* The occupation group was omitted in the study of employers due to the nature of the sample, which excluded farms.

3 In the case of competencies named spontaneously by employers (answers to open questions) additional competencies taken into account were language competencies, i.e. using a foreign language, as well as other competencies, i.e. ones which were not assigned to any of the above categories

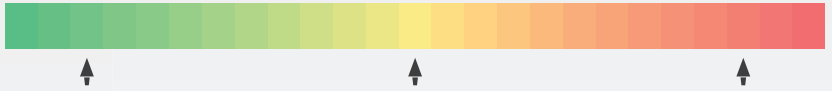
Name of the sub–major occupation groups
Public authorities representatives, top managerial staff and general managers
Administrative and commercial managers
Production and specialized services managers
Accommodation, trade and other services managers
Physics, mathematics and technical professionals
Health professionals
Teaching professionals
Business and administration professionals
Information and communication technology specialists
Legal, social and culture professionals
Physics, mathematics and technical associate professionals
Health associate professionals
Business and administration associate professionals
Legal, social and culture associate professionals
IT technicians
General and keyboard clerks
Customer service clerks
Numerical and material recording clerks
Other clerical support workers
Personal services workers
Sales and related trades workers
Personal services and related trades workers
Protective services workers
Market–oriented skilled agricultural workers
Market–oriented skilled forestry, fishery and hunting worker
Construction workers, excluding electricians
Metal workers, machinery and equipment mechanics and other trades workers
Handicraft and printing workers
Electricians and electronic trade workers
Food processing, wood working, textile production workers
Stationery plant and processing machinery operators
Assemblers
Drivers and vehicle operators
Cleaners and helpers
Agricultural, forestry and fishery labourers
Labourers in mining, manufacturing, construction and transportation industries
Food preparation assistants
Refuse workers and other elementary workers

Table colour coding

To help the analysis, many tables use one of the two types of colour coding:

- **"topographic"** approach, making reference to the way maps are coloured:

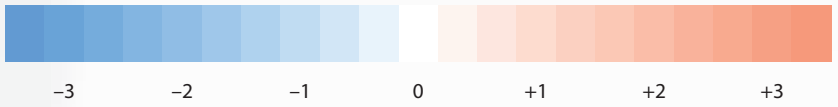
  green corresponds to the relatively low values, yellow to the average ones (closer to the median), and red to the relatively high ones. It is to be emphasised that both the centre and the polar opposites of the colour scale are determined by empirical values of the analysed variables, i.e. in the following sequence: minimum, median and maximum value. When employing the "topographic" colouring, the table presenting variable values uses the full colour range (ranging from green, via yellow, to red).



values of the index vs. median

- **"temperature"** approach, making reference to the colour related to the temperature scale:

  If there was a need to draw your attention to absolute deviation from some particular point of reference (especially a zero), the value being the point of reference was coloured white, negative values – blue, and positive ones – red; moreover, the larger the absolute distance to zero, the more intensive the colour applied. In the case of "temperature" colouring, there is no need for a full range of colours to appear in the table; if the majority of values is negative, there may appear mainly blue colours, when the majority of values is positive – mainly red ones; sometimes, if positive deviations are high, and the negative ones low, intensive red values will appear next to faded blue ones (and vice versa). The temperature approach is especially useful when presenting data concerning differences between values for two different categories, such as women and men.



deviations from the point of reference (zero)

Chapter 1

Demand for new employees

What was the demand for new employees ?

Who is wanted by employers, what are the professions in demand ?

How do employers assess changes in employment, did the general economic slump at the time of conducting the study influence the opinions ?

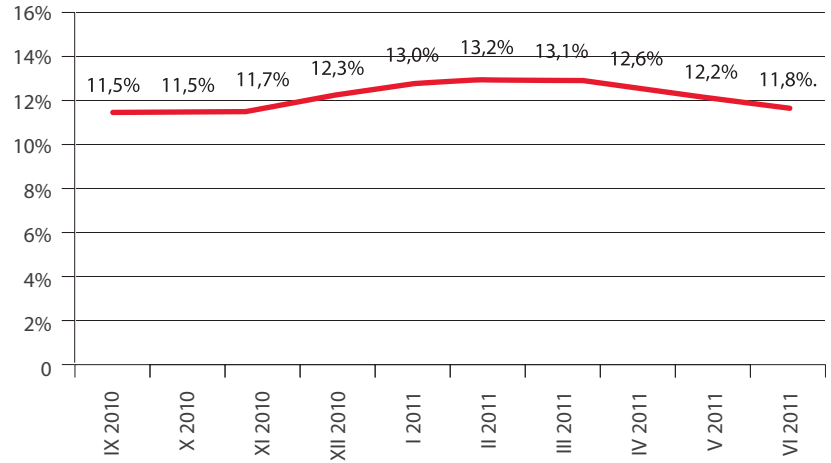
SEASONAL DEMAND FOR EMPLOYEES

Throughout the second round of the study of employers – the second quarter of 2011 – 17% of employers were in search for workforce. In comparison with the previous round of the study – the third and fourth quarters of 2010 – the change was rather slight, as back then 16% of employers sought workforce. Keeping in mind seasonality, Polish economy may be described as one with **stable employment needs**.

At the turn of autumn and winter demand for staff decreases and thus the number of the registered unemployed grows. However, with the start of spring, readiness to hire new staff goes up, which leads to the drop of registered unemployment (chart 1).

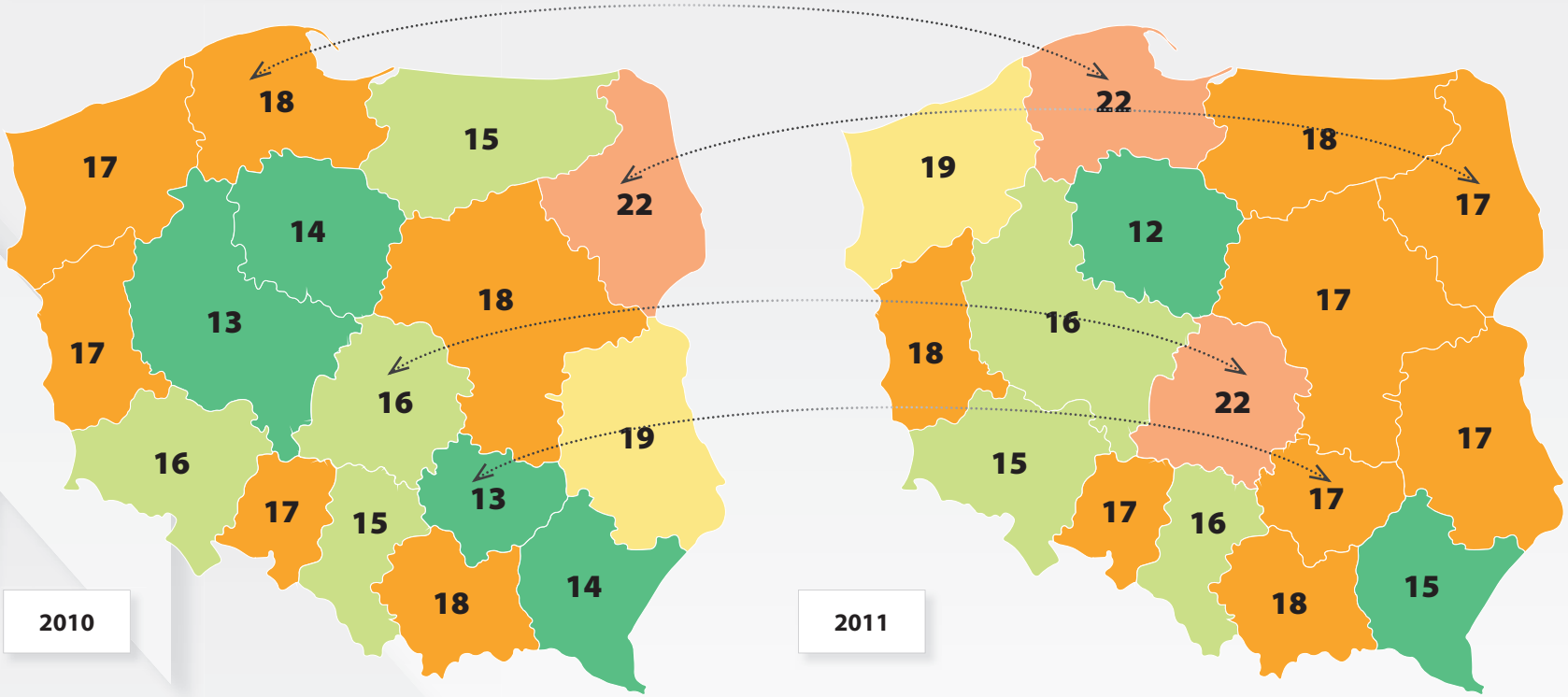
Despite the existing mechanism, employers' readiness to hire new staff turned out to be only slightly higher in–between the periods, which may have been brought forth by the more and more evident **economic slump** and employers' caution, being manifested by stabilizing employment changes.

Chart 1.1. Level of registered unemployment throughout the two rounds of study of employers



Source: Central Statistical Office (GUS) 2011.

Chart 1.2. Comparison of the percentage of employers seeking workforce broken down by individual administrative regions (voivodeships) in 2010 and 2011 (N2010 = 15,841, N2011 = 16,159)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

In terms of the administrative regions, the observed changes of employment needs are rather insignificant (chart 1.2). The greatest changes in demand for new hires were observed in four regions, in three of which employers declared readiness to hire new staff more frequently than in 2010, namely:

- **Świętokrzyskie,**
- **Łódzkie,**
- **Pomorskie.**

On the other hand, the Podlaskie region observed a decrease in the number of employers seeking new hires.

Willingness to hire new staff is evidently related to the size of the business or institution – **larger employers more often declared readiness to employ new staff**. Such intentions were brought forward by as much as 50% of representatives of the largest employers, whereas only every sixth (16–17%) business employing up to nine people (table 1.1). Respondents from various companies in both periods did not vary in their opinions on the subject.

If broken by administrative regions, influence of total headcount on readiness to hire new staff only varies slightly. Small employers from all regions declared lower workforce demand in contrast to larger businesses and institutions. The situation only varied in Pomorskie and Świętokrzyskie regions, where 22% of smallest employers declared willingness to hire new staff. When it comes to these two regions, businesses employing 1–9 people are responsible for a higher demand for workforce.

Table 1.1. Demand for new hires broken by the size of business or institution (percentage of answers)

Size	2010		2011	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
1–9	14,698	**16**	14,999	**17**
10–49	871	**17**	884	**16**
50–249	199	**21**	202	**22**
250–999	63	**41**	64	**42**
1000+	10	**50**	10	**50**
Total	15,841	**16**	16,159	**17**

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Table 1.2. Demand for new hires broken by industry (percentage of answers)

Industry	2010		2011	
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage
Industry and mining	1,763	**20**	1,795	**19**
Construction and transportation	3,193	**18**	3,229	**22**
Trade, accommodation and food related services	5,347	**14**	5,444	**17**
Specialist services	3,780	**16**	3,842	**17**
Public education	408	**5**	765	**7**
Private education	148	**22**	337	**11**
Health care and welfare activities	1,213	**17**	1,293	**10**
Total	15,842	**16**	16,159	**17**

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Education (however only the public sector, as the private sector reported a relatively large demand for employees) as well as healthcare and welfare were the fields where employers least frequently declared readiness to employ new staff, seen against the previous round of the study, these were the areas with the relatively biggest differences (table 1.2).

Increase in demand for workforce in the construction and transportation industries as well as broadly defined services (such as trade, accommodation and food related services) seems to be one more symptom of seasonal nature of economy. In the two above mentioned industries the spring and summer seasons mean usually advancing works, hence greater demand for workforce.

Table 1.3. Demand for new hires broken by industry (percentage of answers expressing intention to employ new hires)

		Industry and mining	Construction and transportation	Trade, accommodation and food related services	Specialist services	Public education	Private education	Health care and welfare activities	Total	N
2010	1–9	20	18	14	16	3	22	17	16	14,551
	10–49	20	23	19	16	6	22	13	17	719
	50+	32	32	34	29	9	33	33	27	215
	Total	20	18	14	16	5	22	17	16	15,485
2011	1–9	19	22	16	17	5	11	10	17	14,806
	10–49	16	21	20	16	8	17	11	16	727
	50+	34	32	35	28	9	25	32	28	220
	Total	19	22	17	17	7	11	10	17	15,753

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Changes of demand for workforce were generated primarily by the smallest businesses and institutions (table 1.3). Next to the relatively stable employment needs of employers hiring over 9 people, the smallest businesses and institutions manifested the biggest differences. The higher demand for workforce was notable in the construction and transportation industries, which corroborates the theory of seasonal nature of demand for employees. Decrease in the demand was declared by the smallest employers from education industry (however solely the private sector) as well as health care and welfare fields.

An evident stagnation was also observed in the public education sector; regardless of the headcount, employers in the sector very rarely sought new hires, and the declarations of the demand growth in the 2nd quarter of 2011 tended to be rather immaterial.

DEVELOPING BUSINESSES MORE FREQUENTLY NEED NEW HIRES

An evident fact, however, one that requires a fairly precise definition, is how the company's development (see the table on the right) influences its readiness to hire new staff.

When assessing the businesses development level, the study only took into consideration enterprises, regardless of their status. All institutions which would be difficult to associate with implementing innovative solutions or profit changes were excluded from the study. Analyses did not cover the following business entities: public and government administration authorities, self–government communities, mutual insurance companies, organisational units of the state or self–government organisational units of a commune (gmina), district (poviat) or administrative region (voivodeship), cooperatives, tertiary education institutions, independent public health care institutions, funds and entities other than private with no specific status of business.

Table 1.4. Demand for new hires broken by the business size and level of development (percentage of answers expressing intention to hire new employees)

		1–9	10–49	50+	Total	N
2010	Stagnating businesses	11	16	27	11	2,874
	Developing slightly	16	19	34	16	3,348
	Developing	24	28	39	25	2,275
	Developing strongly	29	33	44	29	908
	Total	17	21	34	18	9,405
2011	Stagnating businesses	10	15	33	10	4,694
	Developing slightly	17	20	34	17	5,465
	Developing	25	24	40	25	3,381
	Developing strongly	36	28	50	36	989
	Total	18	20	37	18	14,529

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

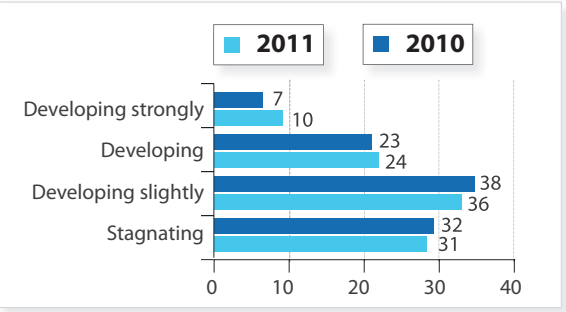
Business development

Development of businesses was assessed on the basis of three ratios from the last 12 months of operation, namely:

- launching new products, services or methods of production,
- showing positive employment balance,
- showing increase in profit (according to the business representatives).

Only the businesses which met all three conditions were classified as the ones developing strongly. Stagnating businesses did not meet any of the aforementioned conditions. If any of the businesses met only one or two of the above mentioned conditions they were classified as "developing" or "developing slightly".

Percentage of businesses with various levels of development: (percentage of answers)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Regardless of the size of the business, the ones developing strongly tended to be more ready to hire new employees (according to declarations of their representatives – table 1.4). What is worth mentioning is that, regardless of the development stage, representatives of the largest businesses (the ones employing over fifty people) were more eager to hire new staff than the ones from the smallest businesses.

Table 1.5. Demand for new hires broken by administrative regions voivodeships and businesses level of development (percentage of answers expressing intention to hire new employees)

	Stagnating businesses	Developing slightly	Developing	Developing strongly	N
Dolnośląskie	10	14	23	40	950
Kujawsko–pomorskie	11	15	19	3	699
Lubelskie	8	25	19	17	562
Lubuskie	12	15	31	13	615
Łódzkie	16	21	31	49	968
Małopolskie	9	16	24	44	1,296
Mazowieckie	11	11	24	51	2,506
Opolskie	13	19	24	23	320
Podkarpackie	12	14	17	34	560
Podlaskie	13	13	20	38	344
Pomorskie	9	17	42	35	971
Śląskie	7	17	29	25	1,740
Świętokrzyskie	12	16	23	37	391
Warmińsko–mazurskie	15	16	28	41	461
Wielkopolskie	9	24	19	22	1,439
Zachodniopomorskie	11	24	28	33	714
Total	10	17	25	36	14,536

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

When it comes to administrative regions of Poland in 2011, differences between development of the business and readiness to hire new employees (table 1.5) are rather significant. In general, the faster developing the business the higher the tendency to declare readiness to employ new people.
It was observed that strongly developing businesses were more eager to take in new hires in the following administrative regions:

- Mazowieckie,
- Łódzkie,
- Małopolskie,
- Warmińsko-Mazurskie,
- Dolnośląskie.

Hence, these are the regions where development shall be significantly translated into creating new workplaces. It cannot go without saying that the employment potential is connected with a relatively high number of developed businesses located in the said regions (except the situation in the Dolnośląskie region).

It was noted that strongly developing businesses in the following regions were less ready to take in new hires:

- Lubelskie,
- Lubuskie,
- Kujawsko-Pomorskie.

To some degree it may be attributed to the fact that these were the regions with the relatively low number of strongly developing businesses.

When it comes to the industry, the level of business development had a specific impact on employment needs of employers in 2011 (table 1.6). Namely, no impact. Regardless of the industry, employers from strongly developing businesses were more eager to hire new staff. With two really interesting exceptions:

1. Employers from **specialist services** sectors leading the **strongly developing** businesses or institutions were relatively more frequently expressing readiness to take in new hires – the need was formulated by almost 50% of them. It can be clearly observed that development potential of businesses from specialist services sector is high, hence generating higher employment demands.

2. Contrary to the above, in the case of **education industry** (having in mind that it refers to private businesses operating in the industry, as public educational institutions were excluded from the analysis for the reasons referred to above) both development potential of businesses and readiness to employ new hires are low.

Table 1.6. Demand for new hires broken by industries and businesses level of development in 2011 (percentage of answers expressing intention to hire new employees)

	Stagnating businesses	Developing slightly	Developing	Developing strongly	N
Industry and mining	6	21	27	30	1,713
Construction and transportation	15	23	29	34	3,187
Trade, accommodation and food related services	11	13	26	34	5,268
Specialist services	8	17	21	47	3,268
Private education	8	10	26	0	142
Health care and welfare activities	5	13	19	36	947
Total	10	17	25	36	14,527

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

NEW POSTS ARE MORE COMMONLY CREATED IN THE SMALLEST BUSINESSES AND INSTITUTIONS

Table 1.7. Percentage of new posts created for the sought employees in individual regions/voivodeships (population data)

	2010			2011		
	turnover	new posts	percentage of new posts	turnover	new posts	percentage of new posts
Dolnośląskie	21,290	2,142	9	23,371	2,985	11
Kujawsko–pomorskie	12,775	3,993	24	13,817	879	6
Lubelskie	16,477	2,992	15	14,299	3,224	18
Lubuskie	17,867	2,771	13	13,412	2,303	15
Łódzkie	25,920	1,536	6	36,746	5,741	14
Małopolskie	29,496	4,686	14	35,069	2,629	7
Mazowieckie	51,943	14,150	21	65,848	5,866	8
Opolskie	8,220	249	3	11,985	309	3
Podkarpackie	8,318	4,095	33	11,637	1,768	13
Podlaskie	15,857	50	0	9,567	530	5
Pomorskie	24,602	6,607	21	31,920	3,794	11
Śląskie	36,810	5,225	12	56,681	3,246	5
Świętokrzyskie	7,858	1,154	13	8,448	2,680	24
Warmińsko–mazurskie	10,116	2,028	17	11,963	1,166	9
Wielkopolskie	27,592	2,702	9	42,353	767	2
Zachodniopomorskie	13,916	3,471	20	27,478	2,014	7
Total	329,057	57,853	15	414,595	39,901	9

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Information worth presenting is the number of new posts created for the sought employees representing specific professions (table 1.7). The general trend between 2010 and 2011 is decreasing the number of newly–created posts; employers wanting to hire new staff did so due to employee turnover[4], which may be the proof of a slowdown of economic development and employers' caution stemming from the economic crisis.

In terms of administrative regions, three of them appeared to be in the forefront of creating new posts, namely:

- Świętokrzyskie,
- Łódzkie,
- Lubelskie.

Interestingly enough, the business or institution development level did not have an impact on creation of new workplaces. Even the strongly developing businesses only slightly more frequently created new positions for the sought employees (12% of strongly developing businesses and institutions as opposed to 9% of the stagnating ones). The majority of new hires were employed due to employee turnover for the already existing positions.

4 Difference between the definition of occupation and a job position adopted for the purpose of this project has been presented in the description of the methodology of the study at the end of the report.

Search for employees for new positions broken down by industry, shows rather interesting differences (table 1.8). Education industry, both private and public, was the one with the biggest number of new posts to be staffed.

Table 1.8. Percentage of new posts created for the sought employees in 2011, broken down by industry (population data)

Industry	Turnover	New posts	Percentage of new posts
Industry and mining	52,621	4,400	**8**
Construction and transportation	143,129	11,368	**7**
Trade, accommodation and food related services	115,989	13,939	**11**
Specialist services	2,756	755	**22**
Public education	1,385	2,084	**60**
Private education	4,141	2,839	**41**
Health care and welfare activities	16,711	2,286	**12**

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

The number of new workplaces declared to be created by employers from the education industry was a rather surprising fact (even in autumn of 2010 a large number of workplaces, namely 30%, was created in the private education sector).

On the other hand, an interesting situation may have been observed in industry as well as construction and transportation, where employers sought relatively few people for new workplaces. Such situation might stem from the seasonal nature of economy, which is manifested by intensifying works in spring, thus larger demand for employees performing more of the same type of work.

The major factor distinguishing the needs of employers when it comes to creating new workplaces or hiring staff due to employee turnover seemed to be the **size of business or institution**. Both rounds of the study proved that employers hiring the smallest number of employees, i.e. up to 9 people, were relatively more frequently in search of candidates for new posts (table 1.9), which most probably comes out of the fact that while developing, small businesses and institutions increase headcount, hence create new positions. On the other hand, businesses hiring larger number of employees typically have a more complex organisational structure, thus more often recruit employees due to turnover on the existing positions. 2011 brought a slight decrease in the number of newly created posts, which may be the effect of a general economic slump. What is interesting however is that employees who the smallest businesses and institutions sought for new posts were to be hired on managerial positions (according to Major Group of the ISCO classification[5]). The phenomenon was rather noticeable in 2010, whereas in spring of 2011 it slightly faded away. Despite the latter, however, it may be an indication of the fact that smaller businesses **develop through creating new job positions.**

5 Description of the ISCO–08 classification of the International Labour Organization has been placed at the beginning of the report in the description of the methodology of the study.

Table 1.9. Percentage of new posts created for the sought employees, broken down by the size of business or institution and the occupation in demand (population data)

	Occupation	2010			2011		
		Turnover	New posts	Percentage of new posts	Turnover	New posts	Percentage of new posts
1–9	Managers	3,149	1,337	30	3,868	2,133	36
	Professionals	53,400	14,209	21	50,403	3,826	7
	Technicians and associate professionals	38,234	8,865	19	39,355	6,787	15
	Clerical support workers	17,040	8,094	32	13,824	969	7
	Clerical support workers	36,899	8,656	19	73,132	3,535	5
	Crafts and related trades workers	63,637	6,011	9	118,401	8,721	7
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	45,970	5,075	10	42,958	7,408	15
	Elementary occupations	13,889	202	1	20,984	2,259	10
	Total	**272,218**	**52,448**	**16**	**362,925**	**35,638**	**9**
10–49	Managers	450	72	14	590	27	4
	Professionals	3,012	269	8	2,486	317	11
	Technicians and associate professionals	2,586	403	13	2,583	267	9
	Clerical support workers	730	144	16	702	88	11
	Clerical support workers	3,113	146	4	3,521	269	7
	Crafts and related trades workers	9,569	209	2	7,389	274	4
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	2,975	118	4	2,001	228	10
	Elementary occupations	1,505	75	5	1,306	55	4
	Total	**23,941**	**1,436**	**6**	**20,578**	**1,526**	**7**
50+	Managers	614	67	10	387	42	10
	Professionals	3,928	322	8	3,688	575	13
	Technicians and associate professionals	1,534	120	7	2,513	260	9
	Clerical support workers	885	41	4	1,371	72	5
	Clerical support workers	3,836	109	3	3,091	295	9
	Crafts and related trades workers	5,811	105	2	5,131	91	2
	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	3,459	44	1	3,732	117	3
	Elementary occupations	2,246	24	1	2,350	133	5
	Total	**22,313**	**833**	**4**	**22,262**	**1,586**	**7**

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

SEASONAL CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT VS. NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES SOUGHT

In 2011 employers generally declared that the number of employees in demand amounted to over 590,000 people, which is only a slightly larger figure than the one observed in the previous round of the study at the turn of 3rd and 4th quarter of 2010, when the number of employees sought amounted to over 560,000 people. Hence, the change seems to be relatively insignificant (increase by 30,000 people, i.e. 5%). Keeping in mind seasonal nature of demand for employees (higher in spring), it might be said that, calling upon absolute figures, we are starting to observe outcomes of the economic downturn[6].

The changes observed concerned all administrative regions, however they differed in extent (chart 1.3). Mid–western regions of Poland, ranging from Opolskie via Świętokrzyskie, Łódzkie, Wielkopolskie to Pomorskie, experienced employment growth, whereas employers from the regions located on the opposite end of the country, i.e. Dolnośląskie and Podlaskie demonstrated a substantially smaller demand for employees. After having a closer look at the fluctuations, one may notice certain specific **changes in the structure of demand for employees** in various occupations.

- **Decrease in demand for all professions –** the case of Lubuskie region, where in 2011, seen against 2010, employers were in demand for lower or similar number of employees in all professions. Interestingly enough, Podkarpackie and Podlaskie regions demonstrated certain deviation of the model, i.e. decrease in demand for most professions was accompanied by a stable demand for worker occupations.

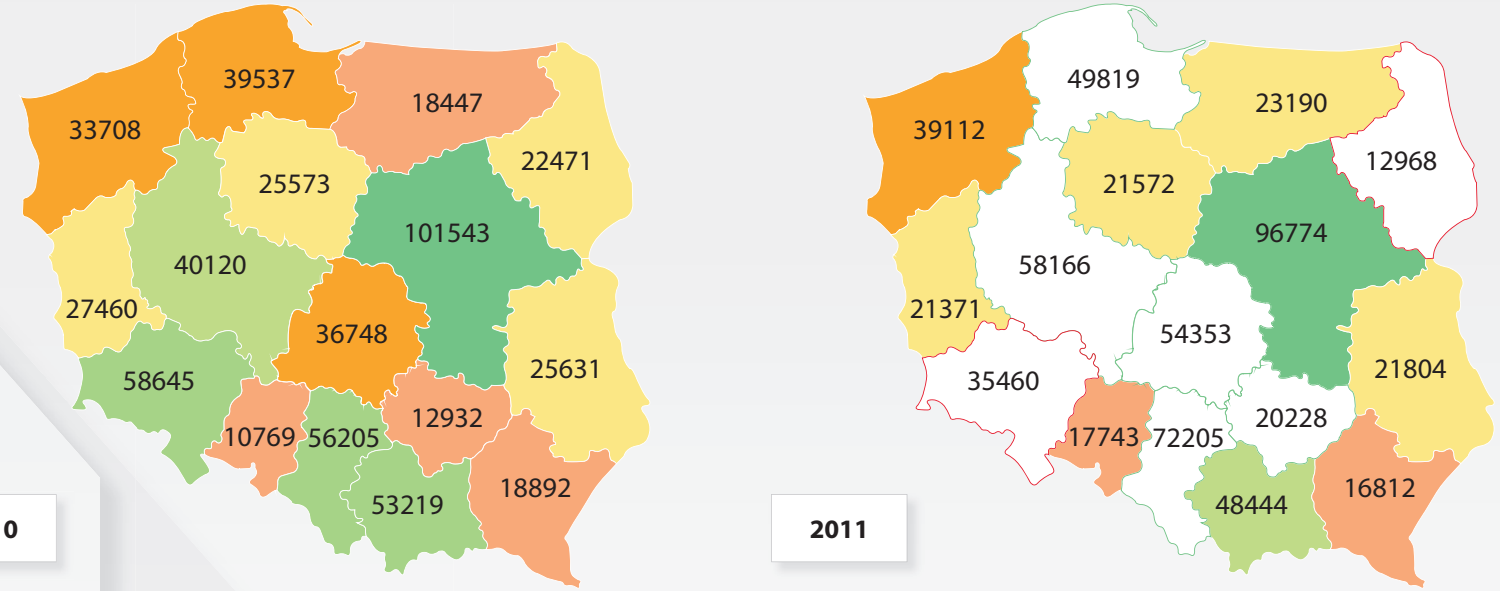
- **Increase in demand for construction and metal workers alongside a decrease in demand for other professions** – situation primarily noticeable when analysing seasonal changes and referring to the following regions: Dolnośląskie, Kujawsko–Pomorskie, Lubuskie (where employers significantly reduced the need to hire professionals) and to a slightly smaller extent Łódzkie and Opolskie (where demand for other than worker occupations proved to be rather stable). The structure of changes in employment demand seems to reflect best the seasonal nature of the labour market illustrated by behaviours of businesses in spring and summer.

- **Increase in demand for construction and metal workers as well as business and administration associate professionals alongside a decrease in demand for other professions** – certain variety of the previous model typical for three regions – Małopolskie, Śląskie and Zachodniopomorskie. It appears to concern regions where industry and construction accompanies the financial sector, thus the greater demand for business and administration associate professionals, mainly: accountants, claims adjusters (Małopolskie region), insurance agents (Śląskie and Zachodniopomorskie regions) and forwarding agents (Zachodniopomorskie region).

- **Situation of the Mazowieckie region** – when it comes to this region, being a league of its own in terms of labour market, a decrease in demand for workers and increase in demand for economics and marketing professionals were observed (interestingly, demand for other types of professionals dropped).

6 The results showing demand for employees in absolute figures at the population level are of indicative nature and should be treated as such, which is caused by the fact that aggregated data is encumbered by high confidence levels, resulting partially from the character of population weights, but also from the large variety in the number of employees sought by various employers.

Chart 1.3. Comparison of the number of employees searched for by employers, broken down by regions (voivodeships) in 2010 and 2011 (population data)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

In the case of other regions other change models seem to have applied:

- Pomorskie region – growth of demand for professionals and services workers, demand for workers was on a relatively stable level
- Świętokrzyskie region – demand for all professions did not change significantly, however there was an increase in demand for health professionals, construction workers and drivers;
- Warmińsko–Mazurskie region – lack of significant changes except increase in demand for personal services workers and construction workers;
- Wielkopolskie region – material growth of demand for construction and metal workers, minor one for sales workers, decrease in demand for business and administration associate professionals.

It is worth mentioning that the size of a business or institution did not have an impact on changes in employment. Slight as it was, the existing increase in employment demand in 2011 is attributable to the smallest employers hiring up to 9 people, while **the largest businesses limited their employment needs.**

FEWER PROFESSIONALS AND CLERICAL SUPPORT WORKERS AND MORE WORKERS WANTED

When comparing both rounds of the study, the structure of employers' demand for employees to be hired for certain professions did not change significantly (table 1.10). Employers declaring willingness to take in new hires were still most commonly searching for three types of professions:

1. **Skilled workers and operator**s, namely construction workers (*bricklayers, plasterers, pavers, construction carpenters, painters, roofers and sanitary systems fitters*), drivers (*in particular truck drivers*), metal workers, machinery and equipment mechanics (*vehicle mechanics, welders and fitters*), food processing, wood working, textile production workers (*seamstresses, carpenters, confectioners and bakers*), labourers in mining, manufacturing, construction and transportation industries (*mainly construction workers*), electricians and stationery plant and machine operators (*excavators and injection moulding press operators*). Generally speaking, **half of the employers** seeking workforce in 2011 (50%) **wanted to hire (a) skilled worker(s) or operator(s)**.

2. **Services workers** – sales and customer service workers (*hairdressers/ stylists, waiters and bartenders as well as beauticians*) and protective services workers (*security guards*). These categories constituted jointly **one quarter of employers' demand** for staff (25%).

3. **Professionals** – health care professionals (*various specialisation physicians and nurses*), economics and management professionals (*sales and marketing specialists*), physics, mathematics and technical professionals (*construction engineers, architects, industrial designers and graphic designers*), information and communication technology specialists (*software developers and software development specialists*), legal, social and culture professionals (*legal counsels, lawyers and archivists*), teaching professionals (*various specialisation teachers and educators*). Only **every fourth employer** declaring the will to employ staff **was in demand** of professionals (25% if business and administration associate professionals, such *as sales representatives, insurance agents and accountants were to be counted in, and 15% if they were to be counted out*).

Table 1.10. Demand for employees broken down by professions (according to the sub–major occupation group) among employers seeking workforce (population data regarding professions which, in both rounds of the study, at least 50 employers sought staff for)

	2010	2011	Difference in (%)
Labourers in mining, manufacturing, construction and transportation industries	9,243	25,511	**176**
Construction and other related workers, excluding electricians	62,782	101,275	**61**
Personal services workers	25,514	40,113	**57**
Stationery plant and processing machinery operators	7,391	11,215	**52**
Metal workers, machinery and equipment mechanics	30,308	43,560	**44**
Medium–level physicists, mathematics and technical personnel	5,639	7,697	**36**
Electricians and electronic trade workers	13,187	17,756	**35**
Administrative and commercial managers	2,460	3,225	**31**
Business and administration associate professionals	43,249	47,755	**10**
Cleaners and helpers	5,142	5,642	**10**
Physics, mathematics and technical professionals	17,188	18,512	**8**
Business and administration professionals	26,223	27,980	**7**
Food processing, wood working, textile production workers	28,302	29,536	**4**
Production and specialized services managers	3,910	3,996	**2**
Drivers and vehicle operators	54,089	50,897	**–6**
Numerical and material recording clerks	13,718	12,781	**–7**
Teaching professionals	7,044	6,209	**–12**
Sales and related trades workers	65,806	50,795	**–23**
Protective services workers	7,630	5,751	**–25**
Health professionals	37,556	22,702	**–40**
General and keyboard clerks	19,701	9,234	**–53**
Customer service clerks	9,822	3,596	**–63**
Information and communication technology specialists	19,787	6,336	**–68**
Legal, social and culture professionals	11,423	2,883	**–75**

Note: The last kolumn contains a percentage difference between the number of sought employees in 2011 and 2010. A positive value signifies that more people sought employment in a given occupation, a negative one – that fewer. Tyree occupational groups were coloured: skilled workers were marked red, Professional – blue, and services workers – green

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Comparing the results from 2011 with the ones from 2010 the shift of employers' demand for employees in certain professions becomes rather evident. The fact which stands out quite prominently is the **minor demand for professionals** among employers seeking workforce, except physics, mathematics and technical professionals along with business and administration professionals, who were more searched for by employers in 2011. There was also drop in demand for sales workers. On the other hand, what is a rather notable fact is the **growth of demand** for worker occupations, primarily for **construction workers** (the biggest increase in the group of labourers in mining, manufacturing, construction and transportation industries regarded precisely construction workers), which corroborates all the up–to–date observations of seasonal nature of the demand for this specific group in spring and summer.

Majority of these changes, and in particular when it comes to the demand for workers, are owed to the smallest employers, hiring up to 9 people. The ones seeking workforce were more willing to employ workers, both skilled and unskilled to perform elementary jobs.

Table 1.11. Demand for employees broken down by professions (according to the major occupation group) among employers seeking workforce broken down by administrative regions/voivodeships (population data)

	Managers	Professionals	Technicians and associate professionals	Clerical support workers	Clerical support workers	Crafts and related trades workers	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	Elementary occupations
Dolnośląskie	770	3,760	6,865	1,289	6,303	9,725	3,531	1,910
Kujawsko–pomorskie	444	3,408	1,851	844	1,524	7,028	4,653	1,679
Lubelskie	228	2,790	3,005	663	4,137	5,527	3,407	390
Lubuskie	516	2,651	3,610	539	1,692	8,444	3,037	876
Łódzkie	447	5,436	7,162	1,249	6,538	21,204	7,316	4,599
Małopolskie	767	9,108	4,287	1,067	3,838	19,611	4,249	3,294
Mazowieckie	3,719	27,139	10,308	10,709	19,314	12,120	8,782	2,718
Opolskie	38	1,152	1,631	300	1,494	10,720	1,419	926
Podkarpackie	401	2,787	1,610	101	2,476	5,571	2,419	1,417
Podlaskie	43	1,366	1,616	901	2,192	5,150	490	905
Pomorskie	483	9,387	6,635	1,618	12,634	9,277	3,852	4,035
Śląskie	962	4,073	11,929	3,596	14,504	19,405	6,733	9,623
Świętokrzyskie	327	4,966	1,205	868	1,603	6,553	3,163	1,074
Warmińsko–mazurskie	1,209	1,627	2,269	783	5,178	8,234	1,141	2,018
Wielkopolskie	179	3,054	3,475	372	10,414	35,780	3,417	1,318
Zachodniopomorskie	393	1,917	6,095	2,269	5,897	9,464	10,229	2,451

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

The first thing rather evident at first glance when it comes to administrative regions is the employment potential of the Mazowieckie region (table 1.11). Employers from the region seeking workforce showed the greatest demand for employees, regardless of the profession they were hiring for. Among the remaining regions there are two more worth mentioning:

- Śląskie – with a larger demand for technicians and other associate professionals (primarily business and administration associate professionals), services and sales workers as well as skilled workers;
- Wielkopolskie – with a large (in fact, the largest) demand for skilled workers.

Table 1.12. Demand for employees broken down by professions (according to the major occupation group) among employers seeking workforce broken down by industry (population data)

	Managers	Professionals	Technicians and associate professionals	Clerical support workers	Service and sales workers	Crafts and related trades workers	Plant and machine operators and assemblers	Elementary occupations
Industry and mining	587	5,639	4,349	6,378	4,206	44,234	11,194	5,350
Construction and transportation	3,520	20,120	10,554	1,885	3,966	100,555	36,644	18,922
Trade, accommodation and food related services	2,167	7,160	20,957	8,977	61,769	37,406	16,806	10,817
Specialist services	4,546	26,032	29,683	9,099	27,729	11,260	1,770	2,000
Public education	47	4,172	245	100	318	57	0	970
Private education	43	1,162	107	307	71	201	1,388	660
Health care and welfare activities	17	20,335	7,659	422	1,680	103	36	516

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

Demand for employees reported by employers from various industries in 2011 proves that the needs are broken down by sectors (table 1.12):

- **production business** (industry, mining, construction and transportation) demonstrate greater demand for skilled workers, machine operators and assemblers,
- **services** (trade, accommodation, food related services and specialist services) is where more associate professionals and technicians, services and sales workers as well as clerical support workers and, in certain cases, also professionals are required,
- **social activities** (public and private education, healthcare and welfare activities) tend to request more specialists (although they have a generally lower demand for employees).

Chapter 2

Expectations towards new employees

What are the main expectations employers have towards candidates for work ?

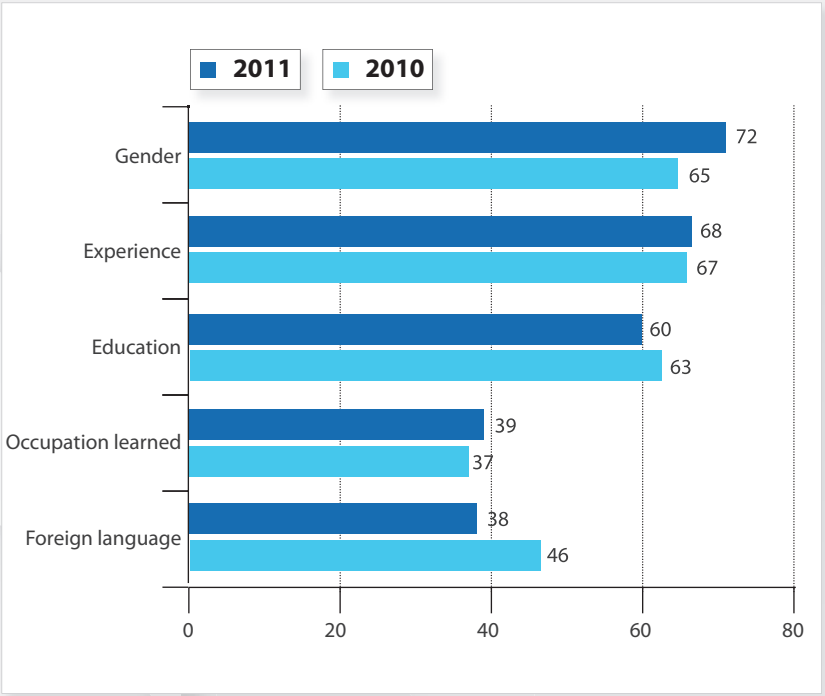
What is of the greatest importance – experience, education, gender or the occupation learnt ?

How are these expectations put in the job offers placed in the District Employment Agencies and online ?

Which competencies are more requested – professional or the "soft" ones, related to social skills ?

GENERAL EXPECTATIONS FOR CANDIDATES: QUESTION OF GENDER AND EXPERIENCE

Chart 2.1. General expectations of employers seeking workforce for candidates (percentage, N_{2010} = 2478, N_{2011} = 5138)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Expectations for candidates set by employers seeking workforce did not undergo significant changes between both rounds of the study (chart 2.1), which is not surprising in view of the general nature of the criteria of requirements for the employees being searched for. **Experience**, education level and employee gender were still the factors **most commonly** taken into account. The latter requires certain explanation. Employers were asked whether they would rather employ a man or a woman and it turns out the choice did matter to the majority of respondents.

What is more, the significance of gender criterion became even stronger in 2011, which relates to its specific nature. In search for new hires employers take into consideration requirements for the given job position. Hence, men were the preferred gender when it comes to the jobs requiring performance of physical work (workers) due to their aptitudes. On the other hand, in the case of professional occupations, where what was valued was intellectual work, gender turned out to be immaterial (table 2.1).

Level of education was of higher significance in the case of employees sought for managerial positions and professional jobs.

Experience played a critical role in the process of seeking employees for managerial positions, although in the case of other occupations, which staff was in demand for, it was also quite a common requirement (excluding clerical support workers).

It was a relatively rare situation to hear expectations regarding occupation learnt, it was quite a commonly raised question in the case of managerial positions, professional and technical occupations as well as associate professionals. The above might be connected to specific occupation–oriented skills which may partially derive from the relevant occupation–oriented education.

Table 2.1. General expectations of employers seeking workforce for candidates (percentage)

	Education	Occupation learnt	Experience	Gender	Foreign Language	N
Managers	91	55	93	61	41	95
Professionals	90	68	58	36	70	398
Technicians and associate professionals	72	50	70	49	46	445
Clerical support workers	74	36	44	66	43	185
Service and sales workers	65	41	67	70	52	636
Crafts and related trades workers	45	31	75	89	18	846
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	42	23	69	93	27	378
Elementary occupations	33	21	60	89	7	172
Total	60	39	67	72	38	2,647

Note: due to the possibility to select several answers percentage does not sum up to 100.
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

Table 2.2. Mean professional experience required from job candidates intending to work in a specific profession broken down by the business size in 2011

	1–9	10–49	40–249	250+	Total	N
MNGR	3,2	3,5	3,2	3,3	3,2	66
PROF	1,9	2,1	2,7	2,7	2,0	183
ASSO	1,6	1,9	2,1	2,3	1,6	226
CLER	1,5	1,6	1,8	1,8	1,5	35
SERV	1,7	1,8	1,4	1,5	1,7	396
SKILL	1,7	2,2	2,0	1,8	1,7	574
OPER	1,8	1,6	1,5	1,4	1,8	225
UNSK	1,5	1,7	0,9	1,6	1,5	59
Total	1,7	2,0	2,1	2,2	1,8	1,764

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

Requirement regarding job seniority or professional experience was basically dependant on the job position which employees were sought for (table 2.2). The **more complex the job responsibilities, the longer experience was expected** from candidates. In this regard, the criteria formulated for managerial positions, where, regardless of the size of the business or institution, the majority of employers required a minimum 3–year job seniority, were evidently different.

Larger businesses and institutions expected more job seniority with regard to professionals and technicians as well as associate professionals, which was probably related to more extensive responsibilities of such employees in large organisations.

With exception of the aforementioned situations, **the number of headcount did not differentiate requirements for candidates** set by employers seeking workforce.

The expected level of education was evidently dependant on the profession which employers sought staff for (table 2.3). When it comes to managerial and professional positions it was more common to require tertiary education, either bachelor's or master's degree. There was absolutely no possibility for people with primary or basic vocational education to get a job on such position.

Interestingly enough, candidates to work as associate professionals, such as technicians, clerical support workers and sales and services workers, were much more frequently required to hold university education qualification than those recruited for higher positions.

In the case of physical occupations, such as workers and operators, it was more frequent than in other cases that employers searched for candidates with secondary education maximum.

Employers also observed a rather distinct effect of **overeducation**, i.e. the phenomenon of employing fairly well–educated people for low–profile positions, which may indirectly lead to decrease of remuneration of well–educated people.

In view of the higher education reform, which brought forth the two–tier structure of university studies – bachelor's and master's, it is rather noteworthy that employers seem not to distinguish the two tiers of education and formulate similar suitability assessments of the relevant degrees for different positions. It is however verified indirectly by their requirements concerning job seniority, as employers expect candidates for senior positions to possess more job seniority, which may be perceived as a safety buffer against employing people with lower education level and, indirectly, less job seniority (obtaining a higher education degree requires many years of studying, thus gives an opportunity to gain more experience, it is not however a common rule).

Table 2.3. Requirements concerning the level of education for candidates for certain professions in 2011 (percentage)

	Primary	Basic vocation	Secondary	Bachelor's	Higher	N
MNGR	3	4	22	55	48	57
PROF	3	4	26	48	34	216
ASSO	14	20	47	60	72	314
CLER	30	30	41	70	76	113
SERV	31	53	59	78	70	611
SKILL	64	64	80	54	50	726
OPER	47	78	79	71	67	327
UNSK	72	84	80	59	58	107
Total	41	52	67	69	65	2,470

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

Number of headcount does not influence expectations regarding level of education of candidates for various positions in a business or institution.

In 2011 employers seeking employees for specific professions paid attention primarily to whether candidates for the said jobs possessed the following competencies (table 2.1.1):

- **self–organising competencies:** related to self–organising, initiative and decision–taking, punctuality and resistance to stress. These were the competencies most commonly required by employers, regardless of the position they were seeking employees for,
- **interpersonal competencies:** cooperation with a group, good communication and interpersonal skills. These features were most commonly expected from candidates for professionals, medium–level technicians and services workers (in the case of jobs consisting in everyday contacts with people),
- **professional competencies:** all competencies connected with the nature of a given job and essential for its performance. Requirements concerning these competencies were expressed equally often with respect to every occupation.

Table 2.1.1. Competency requirements for candidates for various occupations set by employers seeking workforce in 2011 (percentage)

Competencies	Managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical support workers	Services workers	Skilled workers	Operators and assemblers	Unskilled workers	Total
Cognitive	10	9	11	9	9	7	3	16	8
Self–organising	43	55	63	59	44	52	46	52	50
Artistic	0	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Physical	1	2	3	6	3	9	11	6	6
Interpersonal	36	50	58	39	71	27	28	28	45
Managerial	30	1	2	7	1	1	0	3	2
Availability	6	11	8	10	11	5	13	8	9
Office	14	5	7	6	4	3	5	0	5
Technical	5	6	5	3	7	14	13	12	9
Computer	1	15	9	22	8	4	3	2	7
Mathematical	0	1	1	2	3	1	4	0	2
Professional	43	24	32	22	38	47	35	39	38
Other	13	7	6	8	10	14	10	15	10
Language	20	15	9	16	7	2	13	1	7
Qualifications	7	14	11	5	4	6	27	9	11
N	98	414	457	196	679	849	388	188	2,738

Note: due to the possibility to select several answers, percentage does not sum up to 100.
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

CHANGES SEASONALITY: BIGGER DEMAND FOR GENERAL COMPETEN

Competency demand was consistent with the nature of the job employers were searching staff for: white–collar workers were more frequently expected to possess self–organising and interpersonal competencies, as opposed to blue–collar workers. In the case of the latter employers more often paid heed to professional competencies.

It is rather noteworthy that when it comes to operators and assemblers, employers had more requirements concerning not so much competencies, as certain qualifications, namely certifications and licenses, which, considering the fact it often referred to drivers and machine operators, seems quite an obvious requirement.

Seasonal influence on economy in between the rounds of the study resulted in changes in demand for employees, which subsequently slightly altered competency requirements (table 2.1.2). Increase in demand for blue–collar workers, i.e. skilled workers, operators and assemblers as well as elementary workers, and decrease in demand for professionals, led to change of the criteria of assessing competencies. Blue–collar occupations, especially the ones related to conditions of seasonal work in the construction or food related industries, are associated with a certain work culture. Workers hired to perform such kinds of jobs are expected to get engaged in the performed task and be highly efficient rather than highly qualified.

As a result, it might be observed that there was **a drop of expectations regarding the following competencies:**

- **computer** – concerning working with computers, programming and using the Internet, which are less useful in the case of seasonal work,
- **professional** – it may be related to the fact that employees searched for seasonal work are not so much required to possess professional, occupation–related competencies, as simply to work,
- **cognitive** – consisting in acquiring knowledge and analytical skills, more handy when performing intellectual work,
- **managerial** – helpful when managing staff, thus irrelevant when it comes to the nature of seasonal work.

There was a general **growth** tendency in terms of employers' **expectations regarding the following competencies:**

- **self–organising,**
- **interpersonal,**
- **availability,**

hence, the ones regarding motivation to work and conscientiousness, crucial in the case of seasonal jobs.

Demand for such competencies was slightly more often declared by employers from the **smallest businesses and institutions**, who, as opposed to representatives of other organisations, more frequently sought seasonal workers (what has already been said before).

The type of business also had a major influence on competency requirements. When it came to **production business** (industry, mining, construction and transportation) **professional and technical competencies** played a major role for employers. In turn, the employers operating in what is broadly referred to as the **services sector** (ranging from trade, accommodation, food related industries, via specialist services and education, to health care and welfare) more frequently emphasised the necessity of candidates showing their **interpersonal and computer competencies.**

Table 2.1.2. Changed of competency requirements concerning individual professions between 2011 and 2010 (percentage, N2010 = 2494, N2011 = 2738)

Competencies	Managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical support workers	Services workers	Skilled workers	Operators and assemblers	Unskilled workers	Total
Cognitive	8	–5	3	1	0	–4	–9	2	–3
Self–organising	7	11	19	–5	7	18	5	–4	9
Artistic	0	1	–5	–2	–3	0	0	0	–1
Physical	1	2	0	5	–2	–5	3	–18	0
Interpersonal	7	9	–2	6	21	7	1	17	7
Managerial	–4	–1	–3	–3	–7	–2	–3	3	–2
Availability	–4	7	3	5	5	1	7	7	4
Office	13	–1	2	–4	4	–1	4	0	1
Technical	3	5	4	1	2	–1	–1	6	3
Computer	–18	–16	–10	–12	–3	–5	–1	1	–9
Mathematical	–8	0	–1	0	–4	1	3	0	0
Professional	–18	–22	–8	–6	–4	–12	–13	1	–7
Other	11	–4	2	7	–2	9	–5	10	1
Language	–2	7	0	10	3	1	5	1	1
Qualifications	–3	11	–6	–9	0	3	11	–7	2

Note: the data presented constitute differences between the percentage of employers demanding certain competencies for a given profession in 2011 and 2010. A positive value means that employers required certain competencies more frequently in 2011, and a negative one that it happened less frequently.
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

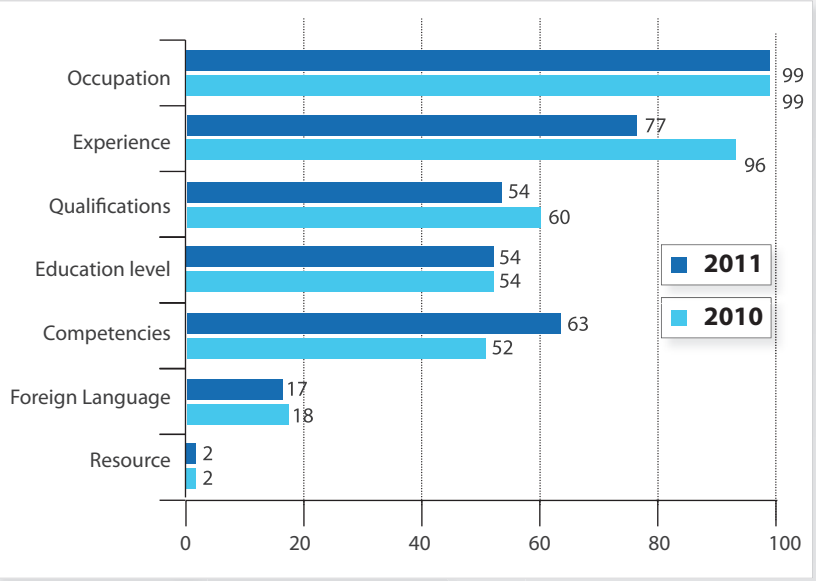
In the view of requirements regarding individual professions, one may observe that lowering requirements with respect to computer and professional competencies concerned especially **white–collar professions** (managers, professionals, associate professionals and clerical support workers). The above was partially caused by a changed structure of demand for employees in 2011, when requisition to hire seasonal workers for production industry increased. In the case of such employees, competencies did not play a material role, more attention was paid to the self–organising competencies.

What was also noticeable in 2011 was a major growth of requirements with regard to interpersonal competencies for candidates for **service work** due to a larger demand for people hired as: hairdressers/stylists, waiters and bartenders as well as beauticians.

In turn, **skilled workers** were expected to possess self–organising competencies to a larger extent than previously, which possibly results from specific nature of their employment in spring and summer, when, due to intensity of work, it is vital to be able to organise one's tasks efficiently.

Much like in the case of employers' declarations discussed in chapter 2.1 of the report, requirements for candidates put in job offers for certain positions did not alter significantly in between the two rounds of the study (chart 2.2.1).

Chart 2.2.1. General requirements for employees put in job offers by employers (percentage, N_{2010} = 20009, N_{2011} = 20634)



Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2010, 2011.

A sensible employer will still search for an employee trained to do a specific job, thus the more complex the responsibilities associated with the job, the higher the requirements for the potential employee in the process of recruitment. What is important, however, is that experience and skills are still more appreciated than formal education.

Minor differences in terms of employers' requirements between 2010 and 2011 derive from slight changes in the number and structure of the sought professions (Table 2.2.1). In 2011 District Employment Agencies observed that the number of job offers dedicated to their clients reduced by 7% as against the previous year. It is worth mentioning that the unemployed from the group of "crafts and related trades workers" were affected by the highest drop in demand, observed also among job offers published online on the employment websites. Similarly, increase in demand for business and administration associate professionals (group of technicians and other associate professionals) was noticed in terms of both analysed sources of job offers. More information on the structure of demand for certain professions in the job offers can be found in chapter 2.4.

TOP 5 sought professions among job offers in 2011

1. Business and administration associate professionals (N = 3,351)
2. Sales workers (N = 2,419)
3. Business and administration professionals (N = 2,186)
4. Personal services workers (N = 1,018)
5. Construction workers, except electricians (N = 1,006)

During the recruitment process employers perceive experience in the duties to be performed at a given post to be of the biggest importance. Job offers favour "work–ready employees", who can bring employers real benefits starting from the first day of employment. The most desirable types of experience include the following industries: specialist services (4,475 offers), trade, services broadly connected with accommodation and food (4,054 offers) and industry and mining (3,250 offers).

Table 2.2.1 Demand for employees according to individual occupation groups, broken down by the source of a job offer (population data and percentage)

	2010				2011				Difference in %			
	Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Managers	1,415	12	154	2	1,393	10	188	3	–22	–2	34	1
Professionals	3,558	31	753	9	4,004	29	641	9	446	–1	–112	
Technicians and associate professionals	2,422	21	677	8	3,519	26	748	11	1,097	5	71	2
Clerical support workers	544	5	425	5	742	5	372	5	198	1	–53	
Clerical support workers	1,977	17	1,505	19	2,593	19	1,449	21	616	2	–56	2
Crafts and related trades workers	1,379	12	2,567	32	877	6	1,968	28	–502	–5	–599	–4
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	175	2	1,143	14	278	2	946	13	103	1	–197	–1
Elementary occupations	153	1	836	10	143	1	646	9	–10		–190	–1
Total	11,623	59	8,060	41	13,549	66	6,958	34	–1,926	7	1,102	–7

Note: the column "difference" contains the difference between the number and percentage of employees sought in 2011 and 2010. A positive value means that in 2011 more people were searched for a given job, and negative one that fewer.
Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2010, 2011.

Nevertheless, in only 30% of job offers the required period of experience or job seniority is precisely stated. How precise is the description and the period of experience required, depend on the complexity of the position in question (table 2.2.2). In the case of offers aimed at blue–collar workers, only 6% of them was informative in terms of the period of required experience, as opposed to 69% of offers for managerial positions. The observed relation (visible in the case of both sources of offers) is consistent with the one formulated on the basis of the study of employers: "**the more complex job responsibilities, the more precisely defined and longer the job experience required** by the employer."

It has been observed, however, that there are ca. half–a–year–long discrepancies in terms of a mean period of previous job experience required between the study of employers and the study of job offers. It seems possible that recruiters post the "minimum" experience period in job offers, whereas in conversation employers state their real expectations, hence the smaller values noted in job offers.

It was observed that in 2011 qualifiations (i.e. the competencies which require formal certifications) were not as substantial as previously.

Table 2.2.2. Mean period of professional experience (in years) required from candidates for certain jobs in 2011.

	Precise professional experience description		Mean period of experience		
	N	% of offers	Offers	Employers	Difference
MNGR	1,210	69	2,7	3,2	–0,5
PROF	3,591	45	2,2	2,7	–0,5
ASSO	3,206	29	1,7	1,6	0,1
CLER	847	16	1,6	1,5	0,1
SERV	2,967	16	1,5	1,7	–0,2
SKILL	2,263	21	1,9	1,7	0,2
OPER	1,034	15	2,1	1,8	0,3
UNSK	689	6	2,4	1,5	0,9
Total	15,807	30			

Note: the "difference" column indicates the difference in the sought employees' required period of experience between job offers and the study of employers. Positive value signifies that in job offers the required period of experience is longer in comparison to the study of employers, negative signifies the opposite.
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011, Study of Job Offers 2011.

One of the qualification forms is an officially confirmed education level. However, for the purpose of clarity of the data presented, the required education level is analysed elsewhere in the document (see comment to table 2.2.3).

Only a little more than a half of job offers (54%) contain requirements regarding documents confirming completion of certain trainings required by law (e.g. OHS, fire safety), health condition (e.g. sanitary and epidemiological conclusion certificate), skills and knowledge (e.g. driver's licence)

Qualifications are most commonly required from the following:

- Professionals, in particular the ones providing specialist services, such as IT.
- Services and sales workers as well as technicians and associate professionals working in industries specialising in trade, accommodation and food related services, and industry and mining.

¾ of qualifications listed in job offers for white–collar workers both in the District Employment Agencies and on employment websites were an absolute necessity to get the job, whereas ¼ are just an additional advantage of the candidate. Employers' requirements stop being the sign of good will when it comes to the group of workers, operators, assemblers and blue–collar workers. It is so, as in these groups qualifications are an obligatory condition for employment.

Similarly to the previous year, in 2011 a formally obtained degree of education was a candidates' selection criterion in the case of over 50% of analysed listings for medium–level and senior positions (table 2.2.3). Just like in the case of professional experience, in this case the following relation (in both sources) can be observed: the **more complex job responsibilities, the more precisely defined** education **requirements** and **higher the degree of education required** by the employer. It should not be forgotten, however, that job listings normally contain information on the "minimum" education level expected by employers.

Table 2.2.3. Education level requirements from candidates to work in specified professions listed in 2011 (percentage)

	Primary	Basic occup.	Second.	Bachelor ofengineering	Higher	Postgrad.	No requirements	N
MNGR	0	1	21	42	5	1	30	1,575
PROF	0	0	17	40	5	3	34	4,633
ASSO	0	1	43	12	1	0	42	4,266
CLER	1	5	34	10	0	1	50	1,114
SERV	2	11	27	5	0	0	54	4,042
SKILL	3	36	6	0	0	0	54	2,845
OPER	3	27	6	0	0	0	64	1,224
UNSK	10	15	5	1	0	0	70	789
Total	1	10	23	16	2	1	46	20,547

Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2011.

It is a must for large majority of associate professionals, such as services and sales workers, clerical support workers, technicians and other medium–level employees to hold secondary education or sometimes bachelor's or engineer's degrees.

The majority of senior employees, i.e. managers and professionals are holders of bachelor's or engineer's degree. There have been cases of approving secondary education (sporadically also basic vocational), in particular in the fields of industry, mining and construction. However, graduates of secondary school were expected to have at least 3 to 5 years of experience on a similar position.

The fact that employers did not have excessive requirements regarding the education levels of candidates for a given position proves their rationality. On the other hand, should the question of adapting supply and demand in the labour market be considered, the number of students in Poland growing dynamically is a rather disturbing issue. The Gross Enrolment Index (number of all students against number of people aged 19–24) in the academic year 1990/1991 amounted to 12.9%, in the academic year 2000/2001 the value of the index exceeded 40% and in 2009/2010 it reached the level of 53.7% (Central Statistical Office, Note on University Colleges, 2010). Should such value of the index maintain at the same level, soon we will have to face the effect of overeducation, referred to in chapter 2.1, relating to the oversupply of candidates with higher education in the labour market. The analyses of job listings brought forth the conclusion that, as against 2010, in 2011 the "market" value of academic titles held dropped to the benefit of professional experience and specific abilities. Candidates holding higher education degrees are awaited by at least two alternative career paths:

Firstly, a university graduate may take up a job below his/her qualifications. Despite non–excessive requirements, being rational the employer will hire a candidate who is educated better–than–expected, holding back potential financial gratification of the additional years of education.

Secondly, candidates with a diploma may have to take part in the race for the best positions available in the labour market, having in mind that great education is not enough for employers. In recruitment processes for managerial and professional positions, recruiters are reluctant to hire candidates with insufficient job experience or competencies that are difficult to prove (e.g. by taking competency tests).

Competencies possessed are one of major elements of everybody's career path. Alike in the case of education–related requirements, competency needs expressed by employers vary depending on the occupation group. Competency requirements for the sought employees clearly divide the candidates into (table 2.2.4):

1. **Medium–level and senior employees** (ranging from services workers to managers) who employers formulate numerous competency requirements for. The above refer most frequently to **self–organising, interpersonal and professional competencies**, followed by: cognitive, computer and managerial competencies. Interestingly enough, requirements concerning professional competencies of managers and professionals surpass requirements for other occupation groups. The least numerous competencies expected from the above mentioned occupation groups are mathematical and, what could be expected, physical competencies.

2. **Lower–rank employees** (ranging from elementary workers to skilled workers) who are only sporadically expected to possess any competencies. When it comes to these groups, employers most commonly require **professional competencies**, although **self–organising competencies** seem to appear rather frequently. Furthermore, skilled workers and craft workers were expected to possess technical competencies, whereas elementary workers were only expected to be physically fit.

Table 2.2.4. Competency requirements for candidates for various professions set by employers seeking workforce via job listings in 2011 (percentage)

Competencies	Managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical support workers	Services workers	Skilled workers	Operators and assemblers	Unskilled workers	Total
Cognitive	32	28	24	22	16	3	2	3	19
Self-organising	55	48	56	36	36	7	5	8	37
Artistic	14	18	16	24	16	1	2	3	13
Physical	3	2	2	5	4	3	2	5	3
Interpersonal	50	47	55	36	36	3	3	3	36
Managerial	49	19	17	18	13	3	2	2	16
Availability	13	10	9	7	6	2	2	2	7
Office	6	6	6	13	7	1	1	0	5
Technical	4	3	2	2	5	6	2	1	3
Computer	26	38	25	30	15	2	1	1	21
Mathematical	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Professional	41	44	28	16	20	18	8	4	27
N	1,581	4,645	4,267	1,114	4,042	2,845	1,224	789	20,507

Note: due to the possibility to list several competencies in a job offer, percentage does not sum up to 100.
Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2011.

This type of division of occupation groups by competencies expected by the employer was not observed in 2010 (table 2.2.5).

Table 2.2.5. Changes of competency requirements broken down by individual professions between two rounds of the study of job offers in 2011 and 2010 (percentage)

Competencies	Managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical support workers	Services workers	Skilled workers	Operators and assemblers	Unskilled workers
Cognitive	24	20	19	16	12	–2	–1	–2
Self-organising	28	22	26	12	9	–16	–10	–18
Artistic	9	12	9	14	6	–2	–1	–1
Physical	2	2	1	4	1	–4	–15	–19
Interpersonal	32	24	28	14	8	–11	–15	–12
Managerial	35	17	16	17	12	2	–1	1
Availability	9	5	5	3	2	–8	–4	–11
Office	–6	–5	–5	–1	–2	–1	–1	–1
Technical	3	1	0	2	4	–23	–22	–6
Computer	16	23	12	11	2	–5	–6	–4
Mathematical	0	–1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Professional	40	43	27	15	19	17	7	3

Note: the "difference" column contains the difference between the number and percentage of employees sought in 2011 and 2010. A positive value means that in 2011 more competencies were searched for within a given group, and negative one that fewer.
Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2010, 2011.

When comparing demand for competencies in 2010 and 2011 the following is worth noting:

- professional competencies grew in significance for all the analysed occupation groups,
- managerial, interpersonal, self–organising, cognitive, artistic and availability competencies grew in significance for medium–level and senior positions,
- office competencies dropped in significance for all the analysed occupation groups,
- interpersonal, self–organising, cognitive, artistic and availability competencies decreased in importance for lower–rank professions.

Much like the situation from the previous year, as much as 83% of job offers did not include the requirement to speak a foreign language. The command of a foreign language was most frequently a major criterion for selection of employees in the fields of specialist services as well as industry and mining. The following groups were most commonly addressed to with the criterion of a fluent command of English (15% of listings) and German (4% of listings) in mind:

- information and communication technology specialists and mathematical, technical and physical professionals,
- administrative and commercial as well as production and specialised services managers,
- general and keyboard clerks.

Requirements regarding other languages did not exceed 1% of all job listings and concerned French, Russian and Spanish.

Employers do not expect candidates for the given position to have any material resources at hand. However, at times, namely in 2% of listings, employers identified the requirement of possessing a car as an absolute necessity for the professions where mobility is essential, i.e.: jobs of sales representatives in financial and retail industries as well as real estate agents.

Summarising specification of requirements for candidates put in listings on employment websites and in District Employment Agencies, it is worthwhile to pay attention to similarities and differences between the aforementioned sources of data with regard to the precision of the information put forth.

What can be observed while analysing absence of certain type of requirements in listings is the minor advantage of District Employment Agencies over websites in terms of the amount of information with respect to the expected experience, qualifications and education (table 2.2.6).

Table 2.2.6. What kind of information was lacking in the job offers posted in various sources with regard to the sought professions (percentage)?

	Experience		Qualifications		Education		Competencies		Foreign Language	
	Website	District Employment Agency	Website	District Employment Agency	Website	District Employment Agency	Website	District Employment Agency	Website	District Employment Agency
MNGR	25	13	31	49	32	16	11	56	68	86
PROF	24	13	45	56	37	17	13	59	66	81
ASSO	27	17	52	49	45	28	15	59	86	85
CLER	28	15	47	51	58	33	18	54	69	82
SERV	32	16	47	37	61	42	21	70	87	95
SKILL	27	18	49	44	77	44	56	76	96	98
OPER	17	15	61	42	85	58	67	87	96	97
UNSK	19	11	57	54	86	67	47	85	99	98
Total	27	16	47	45	49	42	19	72	79	93
N	3,615	1,099	6,321	3,175	6,571	2,951	2,643	5,049	10,655	6,523

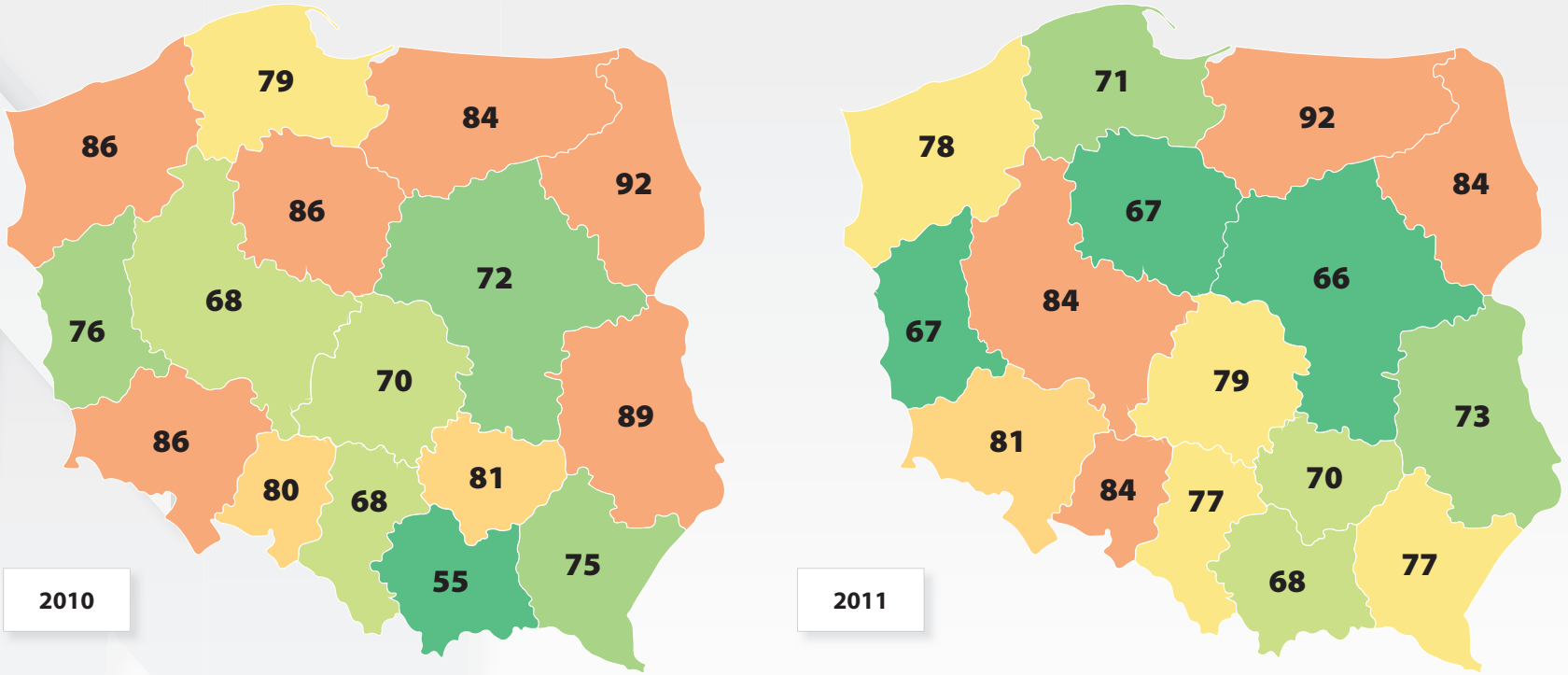
Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2011.

Seen against the users of employment websites, clients of employment agencies from every occupation group got more precise information on the employers' expectations as to their experience, necessary documents or the preferred education level. Quite contrary to information regarding competencies, as substantial majority of competency requirements is published in job offers posted on employment websites (81% of listings posted online include competency requirements). To compare, as much as 72% of job ads obtained from the District Employment Agencies lack competency requirements, and in the case of recruiting for senior positions and lower–rank professions, only ½ of offers contain such information.

Thus, the employer who uses District Employment Agencies for recruitment may find a candidate who precisely fits his/her organisation in terms of hard requirements (i.e. experience period, qualifications and education level), however with no clear picture of competencies they may offer. At the same time, the employer using an employment website for recruitment considers competencies that potential employees should have the key criterion for selection of candidates. Hard, certified requirements make for a supplement of the job offer.

Within the period between April and June 2011 **three quarters of employers** seeking workforce reported problems with finding appropriate employees. The exact same number of respondents demonstrated such difficulties at the turn of 3rd and 4th quarter of 2010. Lack of changes in this respect may suggest that employers' difficulties in hiring candidates who meet their expectations is a constant in the Polish labour market.

Chart 2.3.1. Comparison of the percentage of employers seeking workforce and experiencing difficulties in finding appropriate candidates, broken down by administrative regions (voivodeships) in 2010 and 2011 (percentage, N_{2010} = 2,482, N_{2011} = 2,730)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

SMALL BUSINESSES FIND IT MORE DIFFICULT TO ENCOUNTER APPROPPRIATE EMPLOYEES

Employers from the regions of Warmia, Wielkopolska, Podlasie and Opolszczyzna (chart 2.3.1) experienced the biggest difficulties in employing appropriate staff. When compared to the previous round of the study, it can be noticed that such problems were a novelty only for employers from Wielkopolska, the other regions had to face them both in 2010 and 2011.

Table 2.3.1. Percentage of employers seeking workforce and experiencing difficulties in finding appropriate employees in 2011, broken by the size and industry (percentage)

	1–9	10–49	50+	Total	N
Industry and mining	73	77	61	72	337
Construction and transportation	77	79	63	77	716
Trade, accomm., food	76	75	53	75	890
Specialist services	76	60	50	75	612
Public education	67	42	50	52	27
Private education	53	100	50	56	18
Healthcare and welfare	71	83	71	72	130
Total	75	72	58	75	2,730

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

The described difficulties with staffing were experienced by employers operating in all the industries, however, businesses from the education sector (both public and private) were less exposed to such trouble, "only" half of them complained about problems with recruitment.

It is the education business which experienced the most significant change in between the two rounds of the study. In 2011 employers from the education sector found it a lot easier to recruit appropriate staff (10% less representatives of the business, regardless of the number of headcount, pointed to problems; however it did not refer to every size of employment). In comparison to the previous round of the study, employers operating in the public services sector, i.e. health care and welfare, experienced a much easier process of staffing with appropriate employees. Other industries did not experience any changes.

Difficulties in finding appropriate employees affected mainly the smallest employers, i.e. the ones who hire up to 9 people, as well as the medium–sized businesses, which hire 10 to 49 people (table 2.3.1 and 2.3.2). When it comes to the largest companies and institutions, i.e. the ones employing over 50 people, it was relatively easier for them to find the right hires; only half of the largest employers reported troubles with that.

Table 2.3.2. Comparison of the percentage of employers experiencing difficulties in finding appropriate employees in 2010 and 2011, broken by the size and industry (percentage)

	1–9	10–49	50+	Total
Industry and mining	–5	0	–6	–5
Construction and transportation	0	–2	–4	0
Trade, accommodation and food related services	2	4	–3	2
Specialist services	3	–7	–6	2
Public education	–33	–2	0	–9
Private education	–9	0	–50	–8
Healthcare and welfare	–8	12	–15	–7
Total	0	–1	–6	0

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Table 2.3.3. Professions with the biggest problems to be staffed by appropriate employees, reported by employers seeking workforce in 2010 and 2011 (percentage broken down by the ISCO–08 major occupation groups)

Profession sought	2010		2011		Difference in %
	N	Percentage	N	Percentage	
Construction workers, excluding electricians	202	11	340	17	6
Sales workers	176	10	256	13	3
Personal services workers	104	6	228	11	5
Drivers and vehicle operators	276	15	202	10	–5
Business and administration associate professionals	171	9	177	9	0
Metal workers, machinery and equipment mechanics	145	8	177	9	1
Physics, mathematics and technical professionals	88	5	116	6	1
Food processing, wood working, textile production workers	81	4	116	6	2
Health professionals	143	8	78	4	–4
Electricians and electronic trade workers	65	4	87	4	0
Medium–level physicists, mathematics and technical personnel	49	3	51	3	0
Associate health professionals	38	2	53	3	1
General and keyboard clerks	62	3	67	3	0
Labourers in mining, manufacturing, construction and transportation industries	16	1	60	3	2
Production and specialized services managers	27	1	34	2	1
Business and administration professionals	101	5	38	2	–3
Information and communication technology specialists	98	5	44	2	–3
IT technicians	5	0	36	2	2
Numerical and material recording clerks	34	2	46	2	0
Stationery plant and processing machinery operators	30	2	33	2	0
Administrative and commercial managers	6	0	26	1	1
Teaching professionals	33	2	22	1	–1
Legal, social and culture professionals	25	1	11	1	0
Legal, social and cultural associate professionals	15	1	25	1	0
Customer service clerks	27	1	12	1	0
Assemblers	29	2	20	1	–1
Public authorities representatives, top managerial staff and general managers	12	1	10	0	–1
Accommodation, trade and other services managers	7	0	2	0	0
Other clerical support workers	4	0	1	0	0
Personal service workers	0	0	7	0	0
Protective services workers	14	1	6	0	–1
Market–oriented skilled agricultural workers	5	0	7	0	0
Market–oriented skilled forestry, fishery and hunting worker	0	0	0	0	0
Handicraft and printing workers	13	1	3	0	–1
Cleaners and helpers	20	1	7	0	–1
Agricultural, forestry and fishery labourer	0	0	0	0	0
Food preparation assistant	14	1	9	0	–1
Refuse workers and other elementary worker	8	0	3	0	0

Note: the last column contains differences in employers' opinions regarding the occupations which were the most difficult ones to staff with appropriate people between 2011 and 2010 (percentage).

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

THE MOST WANTED PROFESSIONS ARE ALSO DIFFICULT TO STAFF

Both, at the end of 2010 and in mid–2011 employers seeking workforce experienced difficulties in finding the right staff in case of the same occupation groups (table 2.3.3). What changed was the order of indicating the professions which were most problematic for recruitment, yet the same three occupation groups were still mentioned:

- **skilled workers, and in particular:** construction workers, drivers, metal workers, food processing workers, electricians and industry labourers (50% of employers seeking workforce demonstrated troubles with finding such workers),
- **professionals, among others:** physics, mathematical and technical professionals, health professionals, information and communication technology specialists, business and administration professionals, teaching professionals as well as associate professionals related to the fields (30% of employers seeking workforce experienced problems),
- **services workers**, namely sales workers, personal service workers (it proved problematic to recruit such personnel for 24% of employers).

Not only these were the most demanded professions but also it proved to be rather difficult to find appropriate candidates, which, so far, seems to be a constant tendency. The order of indicating the professions changed, however that was connected with the aforementioned seasonal changes. Therefore, in 2011 it proved more complicated to find construction workers, which was related to a greater demand for such workers and thus greater difficulties in recruiting the right people.

While looking into the business size, in terms of the number of headcount, it is interesting to observe that businesses employing more than 50 people had bigger problems with finding professionals (40% of them experienced such troubles as opposed to 15% of employers from smaller businesses). By contrast, the largest employers were slightly less frequently exposed to the difficulties of hiring appropriate services workers and skilled workers (table 2.3.4).

Table 2.3.4. Professions characterised by the biggest difficulties with finding the right people to work in them, reported by employers from businesses of various sizes seeking workforce in 2011 (percentage)

	1–9	10–49	50+
Managers	3	7	8
Professionals	14	17	39
Technicians	17	16	18
Clerical support workers	6	4	6
Services workers	25	18	10
Skilled workers	33	37	28
Operators and assemblers	13	13	12
Unskilled workers	4	4	5
N	1,875	98	43

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

Such tendency most probably results from better financial conditions offered by larger businesses or institutions. In the case of professionals, larger businesses need people with higher competencies which makes it more difficult to find appropriate hires for such positions. Another reason for that may have also been larger demand for professionals, hence there was greater risk of not finding the right employees for this type of work.

Troubles with finding workforce were evidently related to the type of business run (table 2.3.5). Employers from the **production sector**, i.e. industry and mining as well as construction and transportation industries, were more inclined to complain about problems with finding appropriate workers (60% of employers from the said industries demonstrated such difficulties). Representatives of businesses and institutions operating in the **services sector** (trade, accommodation, food and specialist services) mentioned troubles with recruiting services workers (around 40% of responses). Employers operating in the **public services** sector, i.e. education and health care and welfare related businesses, experienced primarily problems with finding the right professionals (70% of respondents from the said industries).

One interesting observation was made with respect to private education businesses, which encountered problems with finding appropriate employees. The case referred mainly to employees searched to work as skilled workers as well as operators and assemblers. What is noteworthy, however, is that not a large number of such businesses and institutions took part in the sample, hence the results should be verified additionally.

Table 2.3.5. Professions characterised by the biggest difficulties with finding the right people to work in them, reported by employers from various businesses seeking workforce in 2011 (percentage)

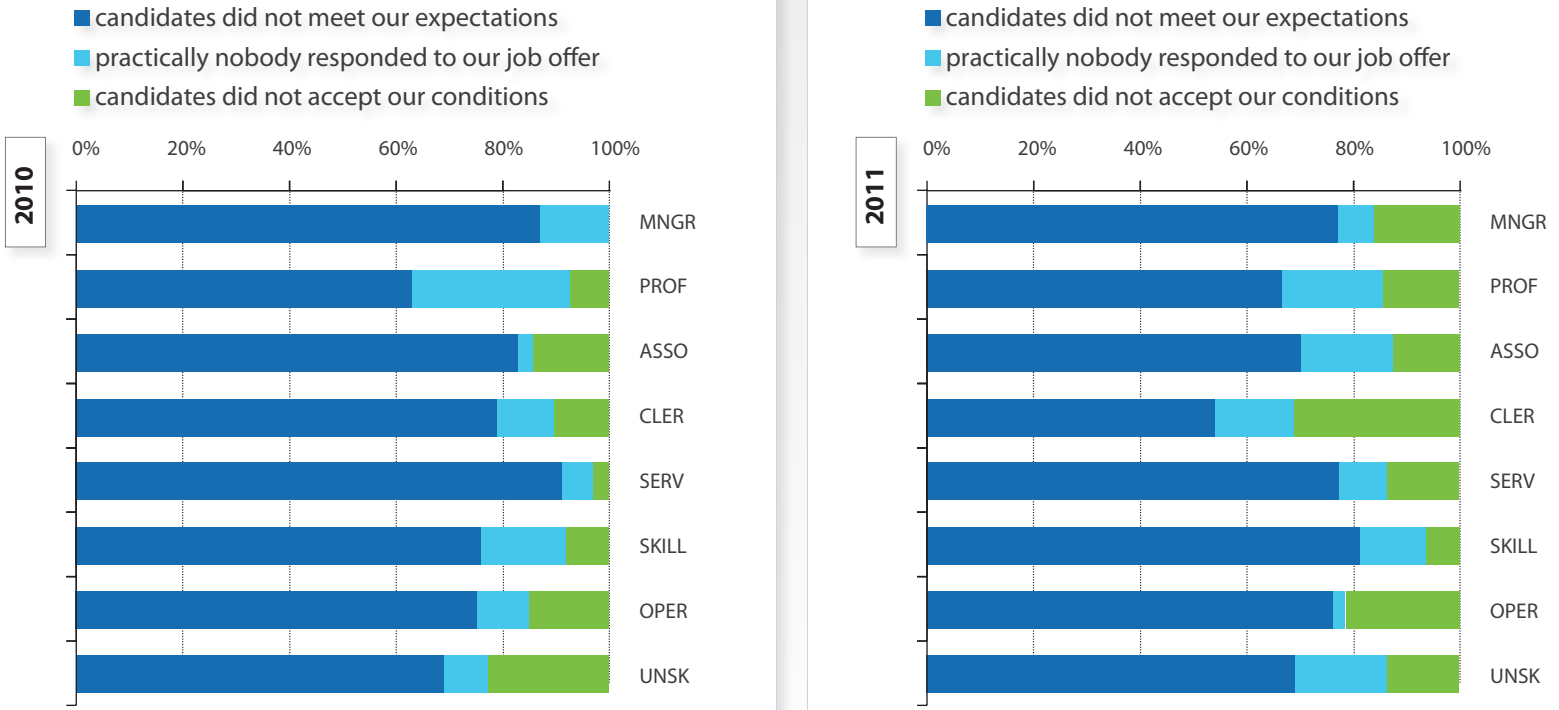
	Managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical support workers	Services workers	Skilled workers	Operators and assemblers	Unskilled workers	N
Industry and mining	1	9	11	2	8	65	12	7	237
Construction and transportation	6	2	6	2	5	57	28	8	545
Trade, accommodation and food related services	1	4	20	10	44	24	10	3	663
Specialist services	6	33	24	9	34	9	1	1	455
Public education	1	92	5	2	15	1	0	2	13
Private education	0	35	1	3	1	61	55	1	7
Health care and welfare activities	0	71	42	3	0	0	0	0	93

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

CANDIDATES DO NOT MEET THE EMPLOYERS' EXPECTATIONS

The major problem of employers seeking workforce and experiencing problems with recruiting the right employees was the fact that the candidates did not meet the their expectations (table 2.3.6). This factor was reported as the reason for troubles with searching for employees by three–quarters of cases in both rounds of the study. Exceptions of the rule were not numerous – in 2010 labour market lacked professionals, and the existing ones did not search for a job (in 2011 the phenomenon got reduced), and in 2011 the primary difficulty regarded expectations of clerical support workers, who did not accept the conditions offered by employers (mainly financial).

Chart 2.3.2. Reasons for not finding the appropriate employees in 2010 and 2011 (percentage)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

CANDIDATES PRIMARILY LACK THE APPROPRIATE COMPETENCIES

What employers paid greatest attention to in both rounds of the study was **lack of appropriate competencies** of candidates for a specific job (table 2.3.6); the issue was reported by over one–third of employers seeking workforce who experienced troubles with finding the right employees. Moreover, the scale of the phenomenon was similar in both periods (43% in 2010 and 36% in 2011).

Table 2.3.6. The major shortcomings observed by employers with regard to candidates applying for a specific profession in 2010 and 2011 (percentage)

	Profession	Appropriate competencies	Required certifications	Experience	Motivation to work	Other reasons	Total	N
2010	Managers	39	9	39	0	12	100	33
	Professionals	49	9	15	9	19	100	348
	Technicians	53	6	16	23	2	100	203
	Clerical support workers	38	0	17	45	0	100	98
	Services workers	47	5	19	27	2	100	216
	Skilled workers	44	1	33	17	5	100	346
	Operators and assemblers	24	14	38	18	7	100	243
	Unskilled workers	27	0	27	45	0	100	33
	Total	43	6	24	19	7	100	1,520
2011	Managers	35	14	43	0	8	100	49
	Professionals	40	17	17	12	14	100	197
	Technicians	34	9	22	31	4	100	180
	Clerical support workers	19	0	21	32	28	100	47
	Services workers	40	5	18	29	7	100	352
	Skilled workers	37	7	23	29	4	100	531
	Operators and assemblers	33	10	35	20	3	100	156
	Unskilled workers	16	0	33	49	2	100	55
	Total	36	8	23	26	7	100	1,567

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Another significant shortage which hindered taking in new hires in a given profession was **insufficient professional experience** (the issue was reported by every fourth employer seeking workforce and having problems with the process, in both rounds of the study). Insufficient experience seemed to pose a problem primarily with respect to candidates for managerial positions, but also operators and assemblers (mainly drivers). In 2011 elementary workers had an insufficient experience, whereas in 2010 the problem referred to skilled workers.

It also turned out that employers were very particular about the question of **lack of adequate motivation to work**, which seemed to affect one–fifth of employees regarded as difficult to hire. The willingness to work concerned unskilled workers for the most part (in 2010 the issue regarded also clerical support workers).

Worth noting is the fact that among other problems mentioned by employers there were mainly spontaneous remarks regarding lack of certain competencies, which adds importance to the issue (reporting lack of various competencies among other responses regarded primarily clerical support workers and professionals).

CANDIDATES LACKED PROFESSIONAL, INTERPERSONAL AND SELF–ORGANISING COMPETENCIES

Generally speaking, employers reported that candidates lack the competencies which are typically the most wanted ones (see table 2.3.7 and table 2.1.1), namely:

- **professional competencies**, relevant to the character of a given job (reported by 1/3 of employers complaining about candidates' lack of appropriate competencies),
- **self–organising**, concerning organising one's job (independence, initiative, willingness to work and resistance to stress; reported by ¼ of employers having troubles with finding the right employees),
- **interpersonal**, related to people skills (reported by 16% of employers finding it difficult to hire appropriate employees).

Table 2.3.7. Competency shortages of candidates for certain professions (percentage)

Competencies	Managers	Professionals	Technicians	Clerical support workers	Services workers	Skilled workers	Operators and assemblers	Unskilled workers	Total	Total change*
Cognitive	73	1	15	0	6	7	7	46	10	4
Self–organising	3	28	27	5	24	26	24	3	24	8
Artistic	0	10	0	1	0	3	3	0	3	0
Physical	0	0	8	0	1	12	7	0	6	–1
Interpersonal	1	1	33	7	36	7	9	10	16	3
Managerial	2	0	0	2	6	7	0	39	5	3
Availability	0	0	0	2	12	0	4	0	4	0
Office	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Technical	0	8	23	0	4	16	1	1	10	6
Computer	0	33	3	4	3	5	0	0	7	–2
Mathematical	0	0	5	0	0	2	7	0	2	–1
Professional	5	21	26	27	40	47	27	51	36	–10
Other	3	2	9	1	4	7	17	1	6	–1
Language	2	4	2	64	3	0	13	0	4	–1
Qualifications	19	12	3	3	6	7	17	8	8	–4
N	17	78	61	7	142	189	51	9	554	

*Note: the total change refers to the difference between 2011 and 2010 only at the level of lacking competencies. Due to small numbers, it proved impossible to compare competency shortages with respect to individual occupation groups.

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Deficiencies in professional competencies were reported by employers with regard to candidates sought for every profession, except managers. As opposed to 2010, when it comes to lack of such competencies, employers' opinions were gentler in 2011 – the number of people complaining about such shortcomings of candidates for work dropped by 10%. As employers point out, it may be caused by the fact that the set of competencies possessed by employees is constantly growing worse[7]. Moreover, employers admit that they prefer people who demonstrate a general eagerness and motivation to work (they have the self–organising competencies) and have the ability to manifest them in the right way (they have the appropriate interpersonal competencies), while the professional competencies, which are unsatisfactory anyway, can be trained in the course of employment.

Unsatisfactory self–organising competencies posed a problem when recruiting employees for jobs ranging from professionals, technicians and other associate professionals through services workers and skilled workers to assemblers and operators. It was an area slightly more commonly indicated as problematic by employers in 2011 than in the previous round from 2010. When it comes to interpersonal competencies at the level required by employers, they were lacking primarily in the case of candidates for jobs where such competencies are necessary, i.e.: services workers and medium–level technicians.

7 Opinions submitted during a discussion meeting concerning the results of the second round of the study on 19 November 2011 in Warsaw. Participants of the meeting: representatives of Polskie Stowarzyszania Zarządzania Kadrami (Polish Human Resources Management Association).

DESPITE CRITICISM ON THEIR PART, EMPLOYERS FAIRLY OFTEN TAKE ADVANTAGE OF THE HELP OF DISTRICT EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

At the end of the chapter describing demand for employees, it is worthwhile to present recruitment methods applied and an assessment of their effectiveness.

Two of the most common methods of searching for employees in 2011 was taking advantage of **friends and family recommendations** (two–thirds of employers applied this method when seeking workforce) as well as using **the help of District Employment Agencies** (method applied by half employers) – table 2.4.1. Though a paradox, contrary to a common opinion holding that services offered by the District Employment Agencies are of low quality, their help is frequently used and, moreover, with a good feedback (60% of employers, regardless of the business or institution size, perceive it as rather or very efficient).

Every third employer applied another fairly common method, namely **posting job offers**, either classifieds in the press or listings online.

Recruitment methods applied differ significantly in terms of the size of a business or institution. **Smaller employers** were in favour of **taking advantage of personal contacts** and gathering recommended candidates (two–thirds of employers hiring 1 to 9 people used this approach). At the same time, this means of recruitment had great feedback, regardless of the number of headcount, 80% of employers regarded this method moderately or very effective.

Table 2.4.1. Methods applied when searching for hires by employers with varying number of headcount (percentage)

Searching for work through:	1–9	10–49	50–249	250+	Total
District Employment Agencies	51	70	76	73	53
Private employment agencies	6	8	14	27	6
Head–hunters	2	2	6	17	3
School and university career centers	4	5	11	27	5
Press classifieds	41	43	55	75	42
Online listings	34	39	57	78	35
Job boards within the organisation	23	21	25	41	23
Friends and family recommendations	69	52	48	55	67
Job fairs	2	4	11	23	3
N	13,624	806	186	72	14,688

Note: due to the possibility to select several answers percentage does not sum up to 100.
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

Larger employers were more willing to employ different methods of seeking staff, namely ranging from **the help of District Employment Agencies** via **press classifieds** to **online listings**. The last method is especially popular among the largest employers with the headcount of over 250 people. The largest businesses employed the most varying methods of seeking employees, as they applied all the mentioned methods relatively often.

BUSINESSES OPERATING IN VARIOUS INDUSTRIES SEEK EMPLOYEES IN… THE SAME WAY

Table 2.4.2. Methods applied when searching for hires by employers operating in various industries (percentage)

Searching for work through:	Industry and mining	Construction and transportation	Trade, accomm., food	Specialist services	Public education	Private education	Health care and welfare activities	Total
District Employment Agencies	60	49	53	49	85	53	49	53
Private employment agencies	9	5	6	8	4	6	4	6
Head–hunters	2	3	2	3	0	1	5	3
School and university career centers	4	2	3	8	6	8	6	5
Press classifieds	48	46	40	40	23	50	39	42
Online listings	32	32	30	43	41	47	41	35
Job boards within the organisation	22	19	28	19	18	15	25	23
Friends and family recommendations	68	78	67	65	25	80	57	67
Job fairs	3	4	2	3	6	1	1	3
N	1,690	3,076	5,034	3,368	350	133	1,037	14,688

Note: due to the possibility to select several answers percentage does not sum up to 100.
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

It should not be especially surprising that employers from various industries apply similar methods of seeking employees (table 2.4.2).

The only discrepancy regarded employing the modern medium of Internet. Internet listings were slightly more often selected by employers operating in the specialist services sector and public services sector, i.e. education as well as health care and welfare. The above might be connected with the specific nature of this type of business, where potential employees may be found using the Internet more frequently.

Employers from **the public education sector** apply rather interesting methods of recruitment, namely when seeking workforce they typically referred to the Public Employment Agencies. What is more, the method applied by them least frequently was recruiting recommended people, which probably results from the public nature of the industry along with the necessity to follow certain provisions of law, in this case being the Public Procurement Law.

The specific character of methods applied when searching for workforce described in the document was the same in both rounds of the study, which suggests typical nature of employers' behaviours in this respect.

A similar image of employers' recruitment patterns emerges from the analysis of job offers.

Table 2.4.3 Demand for employees from respective occupation groups broken down by the employer's industry and the source of publication of job offers in 2011 (population data and percentage)

	Industry and mining				Construction and transportation				Trade, accommodation and food related services				Specialist services				Education				Healthcare and welfare			
	Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency		Website		District Employment Agency	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
MNGR	315	12	27	2	243	20	61	4	360	11	56	3	426	8	17	2	13	4	4	2	10	3	0	0
PROF	714	27	115	7	217	18	57	3	318	10	58	3	2374	45	137	18	248	74	163	70	96	32	47	43
ASSO	829	32	157	10	191	15	85	5	850	27	205	10	1416	27	182	23	47	14	20	9	97	33	34	31
CLER	60	2	61	4	54	4	34	2	187	6	113	5	237	5	53	7	2	1	1	0	7	2	9	8
SERV	189	7	124	8	29	2	35	2	1252	40	974	46	700	13	211	27	22	7	26	11	85	29	10	9
SKILL	429	17	757	49	307	25	789	46	100	3	282	13	35	1	59	8	2	1	4	2	0	0	0	0
OPER	38	1	200	13	168	14	508	30	34	1	120	6	14	0	38	5	0	0	2	1	1	0	1	1
UNSK	24	1	108	7	26	2	129	8	56	2	295	14	36	1	72	9	0	0	12	5	0	0	7	6

Source: BKL – Study of Job Offers 2011.

What can be observed when it comes to recruiting employees for the lower rank positions, i.e. blue–collar workers, operators, assemblers and skilled workers, regardless of the industry the employer operates in, is the evident advantage of searching for employees via District Employment Agencies (Table 2.4.3), as opposed to recruitment methods applied when hunting for employees for managerial positions. This is the case where employers use primarily employment websites, except industries with significant public financial participation, i.e. education and health care industries. Much like in the case of employers' declarations, when in search for teaching professionals as well as health professionals, the public sector utilised the help of Public Employment Agencies, whereas the private sector – online listings.

Services workers along with clerical support workers are sought by means of both Public Employment Agencies' help and online listings. It is noteworthy, however, that personal services staff working in the health care industry will be faster to find employment through online listings, while the one specialising in cosmetics and leisure will have a greater chance of finding employment through Public Employment Agencies.

To sum up, human resources data collected in Public Employment Agencies makes up for a popular source of employees in the event of recruitment for workers positions. When it comes to recruitment for highly–specialised professions, however, employers do not rely on their assistance. Hence, specific nature of distribution of job offers between District Employment Agencies and employment websites stems from discrepancies in the quality of human capital, namely people searching for a job, reached by a specific source of data. It should not be related, however, to a varying effectiveness of recruitment methods in the analysed sources of offers.

Chapter 3

Competency shortages of the hired employees

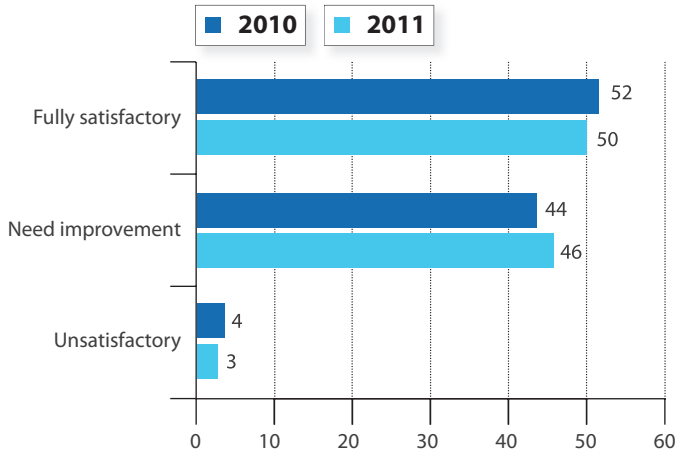
Employers declare general satisfaction with the competencies of staff they hire…

however some of the competencies could be improved.

Which competencies require improvement ?

EMPLOYERS DECLARE GENERAL SATISFACTION WITH THE COMPETENCIES OF STAFF THEY HIRE… HOWEVER SOME OF THEM COULD BE IMPROVED

Chart 3.1. Assessment of the level of competencies of the currently employed staff (percentage, N_{2010} = 15,841, N_{2011} = 16,159)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Both in 2010 and 2011 employers were **generally satisfied** with their employees (half of them admitted such fact – chart 3.1). Only a small number of employers expressed complete dissatisfaction with their staff, namely less than every 20th employer. The remaining employers were happy, yet saw some room for improving their hires' competencies.

The relatively high score is hard to wonder at, as it is rather difficult to imagine that the employers would let the people whose competencies would not be satisfactory work for them.

In the 2nd quarter of 2011 employers who expressed bigger satisfaction with their employees were the ones from the smallest businesses and institutions (table 3.1). On the other hand, larger employers emphasised the necessity to train their employees with respect to the necessary competencies.

The above demonstrates greater awareness but also **the need to train staff** indicated by large entities. Such assessment of their hires was especially frequently expressed by representatives of specialist services and public services (education, health care and welfare). In the production and services industries, satisfaction with employees' competencies was at a relatively highest level (somewhat more than half of responses), which originates from lower requirements relating to the nature of work in these industries as well as lower training needs.

An observation was made regarding the difference in assessment of competencies of staff hired by employers from the public and private education sectors, the ones from the private sector expressed a somewhat higher level of satisfaction.

Table 3.1. Percentage of employers of varying sizes and operating in various industries satisfied with the competencies of current employees (percentage)

	1–9	10–49	50+	Total	N
Industry and mining	58	50	33	56	1,795
Construction and transportation	51	47	36	51	3,229
Trade, accommodation and food related services	56	42	40	55	5,442
Specialist services	43	33	33	43	3,842
Public education	40	40	40	40	409
Private education	46	50	50	46	148
Health care and welfare activities	50	35	27	49	1,293
Total	51	43	36	50	16,158

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

EMPLOYERS WISH TO IMPROVE PROFESSIONAL, SELF–ORGANISING AND INTERPERSONAL COMPETENCIES

Table 3.2. The lacking competencies of the currently employed staff (percentage of employers who expressed the necessity to improve competencies of their hires)

Competencies	2010		2011		Difference*
	N	%	N	%	
Cognitive	217	3	123	2	–1
Self–organising	1,690	23	1,487	19	–4
Artistic	29	0	14	0	0
Physical	94	1	51	1	0
Interpersonal	1,317	18	1,316	17	–1
Managerial	95	1	122	2	1
Availability	31	0	33	0	0
Office	115	2	150	2	0
Technical	344	5	379	5	0
Computer	846	12	684	9	–3
Mathematical	20	0	9	0	0
Professional	4,064	56	5,304	68	12
Other	157	2	15	0	–2
Language	350	5	326	4	–1
Qualifications	259	4	352	4	0

**Note: the "difference" column contains the difference between the percentage of employers demonstrating lacking competencies of the currently employed in 2011 and 2010.*
Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Employers who expressed general satisfaction with their employees' competencies or the ones who were satisfied, yet noticed the need to additionally train their staff, most frequently mentioned the following **shortages of competencies:**

- **professional competencies,**
- **self–organising competencies,**
- **interpersonal competencies.**

Hence, the above mentioned competencies, or rather their lack, were also the weakest point of the already employed staff (table 3.2).

Changes between autumn of 2010 and spring of 2011 concerned greater attention paid to professional competencies in 2011 and a slight decrease in the needs for additional training within the area of self–organising and computer competencies (so unsubstantial, however, that they could only be effects of changes in the sample). The difference between the two rounds of the study was also a consequence of the change in the demand for employees, i.e. a larger demand for skilled workers and smaller for professionals, as both professions are connected with different requirements regarding the set of necessary competencies.

Regardless of the industry, employers pointed mainly to the need of improving employees' professional competencies related to the nature of the tasks performed in the given profession (table 3.3). Such need was especially evident in the case of staff working for the public services sector, i.e. education, health care and welfare.

At the same time, employers from the production field (industry, mining, construction and transportation) as well as broadly understood services (trade, accommodation and food related services) perceived the self–organising competencies as the ones worth improving when it came to the staff hired by them. In the latter case employers laid stress on their employees' lack of interpersonal competencies, which should come with the profession.

Table 3.3. The lacking competencies of the currently employed staff in various industries (percentage of employers who expressed the necessity of improving competencies of their hires)

Competencies	Industry and mining	Construction and transportation	Trade, accommodation and food related services	Specialist services	Public education	Private education	Healthcare and welfare	Total
Cognitive	2	2	2	1	0	3	1	2
Self–organising	24	23	24	13	6	26	7	19
Artistic	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Physical	2	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Interpersonal	7	11	27	17	12	7	10	17
Managerial	2	1	2	2	0	0	0	2
Availability	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
Office	0	2	1	3	2	0	2	2
Technical	13	5	4	3	1	1	2	5
Computer	5	3	9	13	11	18	9	9
Mathematical	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Professional	61	66	61	72	86	74	81	68
Other	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
Language	6	4	5	4	3	4	0	4
Qualifications	7	12	2	2	3	3	2	4
N	774	1,563	2,376	2,152	236	77	658	7,836

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

A material difference could be observed between the two rounds of the study in terms of the employers' assessment of their staff's competencies with the largest changes in the education as well as health care and welfare industries. In 2011 employers from the public sector paid a greater heed to the necessity of improving their hires' professional competencies, while indicating less significant than previously shortages in general, namely self–organising and interpersonal competencies. The changes were particularly evident in the case of private education (although in the latter case employers had a better opinion of their employees' self–organising competencies in 2011).

The size of the business or institution remained irrelevant when it came to the assessment of competencies possessed by employees.

Chapter 4

Assessment of changes in employment

What were the employment changes in the past 12 months ?

Was there a general reduction or growth of employment ?

What were the employers' predictions for the future of employment ?

What was the greatest obstacle for employment ?

ONLY THE LARGEST EMPLOYERS INCREASED HEADCOUNT LAST YEAR

When analysing the changes in employment taking place in Polish businesses and institutions within the year since the study, what can be observed is stability rather than development (table 4.1).

Employers were asked not only to estimate the forecast of changes in employment in the future, but also to describe the changes which took place within the past 12 months[8]. The picture they paint seems rather pessimistic. Large increase of employment was not to be expected, as having laid–off some staff members, employers do make an attempt to fill in the vacancies, yet the differences shown demonstrate that the headcount of the majority of businesses and institutions did not increase significantly.

Table 4.1. Differences in employment in various industries broken down by company size (trimmed means, frequencies provided in brackets)

Industry	2010			2011		
	1–9	10–49	50+	1–9	10–49	50+
Industry and mining	0,2 (1442)	0,3 (199)	2,3 (80)	0 (1488)	0,2 (203)	2 (81)
Construction and transportation	0,2 (3016)	0,5 (116)	2,4 (26)	0,2 (3017)	0,5 (116)	1,3 (26)
Trade, accommodation and food related services	0,1 (5027)	0,3 (233)	2,4 (44)	0,1 (5104)	0,1 (238)	0,7 (44)
Specialist services	0,2 (3619)	0,3 (100)	0,7 (30)	0,1 (3646)	0,2 (102)	0,5 (30)
Public education	0,4 (148)	0,1 (152)	0,1 (56)	0 (191)	0 (159)	0 (56)
Private education	0,3 (177)	0,4 (8)	1,3 (3)	–0,2 (129)	0,3 (6)	–0,4 (3)
Health care and welfare activities	0,2 (1099)	0,4 (52)	0,7 (21)	0 (1186)	0,3 (54)	0,3 (21)

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

The most stable situation was noted in the case of the smallest employers, i.e. hiring up to 9 people, where the balance of lay–offs and hiring amounted to zero. The situation did not change substantially in the period of the half–a–year of a break in between the two rounds of the study. The largest businesses and institutions, with the headcount of over 50 people, were recorded to hire more than fire (the situation did not refer to every business line). **Increase of employment** was noted in the case of employers from **industry** and **mining** as well as **construction and transportation fields** (by 1 and 2 people, respectively). In this case there is no question of seasonality connected with the industries in spring and summer, as, if comparing results of the previous study of this category of employers, one can observe a decrease in employment. Having juxtaposed results from both rounds of the study, we can observe that the greatest decrease in employment was noted in services (trade, accommodation and food related services) – in autumn 2010 employers in the industry declared that in the preceding year the number of new hires had outweighed the number of lay–offs by over 2 employees, while in spring 2011 the number of new hires prevailed only by 1 person.

In the view of the above, public education sector had the most stable situation, as in this case the comparison of hires and lay–offs indicated no changes.

8 Employers were asked to disclose estimated numbers of employees laid off and employed during the preceding 12 months. The category of the laid off is construed here in its broader sense: as those who were in fact discharged, and also people who decided to leave, and those who went into retirement (or pension). The results presented constitute a differential of trimmed mean of the number of new hires and laid off personnel. Hence, positive value denotes growth in employment, while a negative one – its reduction.

IN THE PREVIOUS YEAR THE NUMBER OF EMPLOYED PROFESSIONALS GREW, AS OPPOSED TO THE NUMBER OF WORKERS

Having analysed 12 months, from the 2nd quarter of 2010 to the 2nd quarter of 2011, the biggest growth in employment was observed in the case of professional jobs and clerical support workers. When it comes to the remaining professions, employment was reduced, which affected primarily elementary workers.

Such changes in employment may have been brought forth by employers' caution with regard to the economic crisis. In such a case the professions reduced are the ones for which it is relatively easy to find employees, and moreover there is no need for expensive trainings, just as in the case of elementary workers.

On the other hand, increase in employment of professionals may be caused by a constant demand for such staff (which was demonstrated before), which may lead to a situation in which, once employers have found an appropriate person for a given job, they hire him/her.

Table 4.2. Changes of employment in various occupations, broken down by the size of businesses or institutions (% of increase or decrease in the number of employees in the given occupation group)

	1–9	10–49	50+	Total
Managers	–1	–3	0	–2
Professionals	7	5	4	7
Technicians	–1	2	4	0
Clerical support workers	6	–1	–5	5
Services workers	–2	–4	2	–2
Skilled workers	–1	0	2	–1
Operators and assemblers	–1	3	–1	–1
Unskilled workers	–8	–3	–6	–7
N	3,733	295	123	4,151

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2011.

EMPLOYERS DEMONSTRATE CERTAIN CAUTION WHEN FORECASTING CHANGES IN EMPLOYMENT

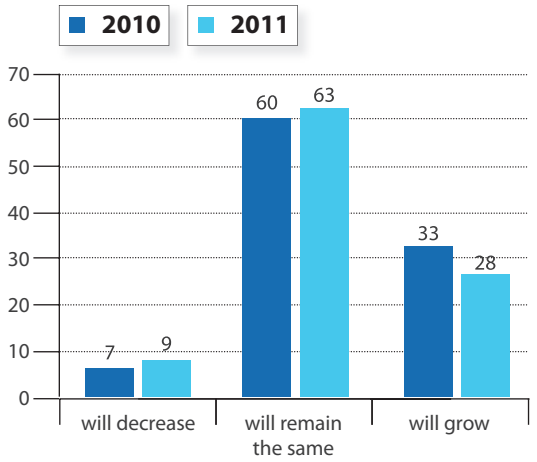
Employers' opinions when it comes to forecasting changes in employment were rather cautious in both rounds of the study (table 4.1). In the opinion of a prevailing number of employers, employment in the following 12 months would remain at the same level, which was stated by as many as 2/3 of employers.

However, a certain drop in optimism as to the increase of employment in the following year could be observed between the two rounds of the study. The above may be the effect of an economic crisis leading to greater caution on the part of employers.

Generally speaking, when it comes to **optimism** as to **the increase of employment** it was more commonly expressed by employers from smaller businesses and institutions, not from all industries, though (table 4.3). The planned growth of employment was mentioned by the smallest employers from the **production industries**, namely: industry, mining, construction and transportation as well as **specialist services** (opinions of around 1/3 of the smallest employers from the aforementioned industries). However, when comparing both study periods what could observed were more cautious declarations regarding employment forecasts, and moreover, in 2011 a somewhat smaller number of employees operating in the above mentioned industries mentioned planned increase in employment.

When it comes to employers from the field of **personal services** (trade, accommodation and food related services) , the ones from larger businesses and institutions tended to be more optimistic with respect to potential increase in employment.

Chart 4.1. Assessment of employment changes within the period of consecutive 12 months (percentage, N_{2010} = 14,909, N_{2011} = 15,354)



Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Employers operating in the public services sectors, i.e. education, health care and welfare, in both rounds of the study demonstrated the highest level of pessimism when forecasting employment changes. As such, only every tenth of them opined that there would be an increase in employment within the following consecutive 12 months, which seems to be connected with the specific nature of public companies and institutions, as the perspective of private education business was more optimistic.

Table 4.3. Forecasts for increasing employment, broken down by the industry and size of the firm (% of employers who believe that employment is going to increase)

	Industry	1–9	10–49	50+	Total	N
2010	Industry and mining	44	28	27	42	662
	Construction and transportation	39	26	23	38	1,118
	Trade, accommodation and food related services	29	28	33	29	1,484
	Specialist services	36	24	21	35	1,288
	Public education	5	8	8	7	23
	Private education	36	22	33	35	63
	Healthcare and welfare	24	24	20	24	281
	Total	34	24	22	33	4,919
2011	Industry and mining	32	24	27	31	520
	Construction and transportation	39	30	23	39	1,178
	Trade, accommodation and food related services	26	24	31	26	1,324
	Specialist services	31	19	21	31	1,144
	Public education	11	12	11	11	42
	Private education	19	33	25	20	25
	Healthcare and welfare	8	19	15	8	106
	Total	29	22	22	28	4,339

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

Forecasts regarding employment changes in an interesting but rather evident way were dependant on the stage of the business development (table 4.4). The faster developing the business (see the frame on page 23), the bigger the optimism with respect to employment growth within the consecutive 12 months.

Comparing both rounds of the study, employers' caution may also be observed here, which is manifested by their low–key opinions concerning employment growth (in 2011 almost 10% less employers from strongly developing companies saw the chance of increase of employment in the future).

Table 4.4. Forecasts of employment changes broken down by the level of the company's development (percentage)

		Will decrease	Will remain the same	Will grow	N
2010	Stagnating businesses	10	71	19	2,691
	Developing slightly	6	63	31	3,138
	Developing businesses	6	46	48	2,128
	Strongly developing businesses	1	37	61	858
2011	Stagnating businesses	11	71	19	4,440
	Developing slightly	11	62	28	5,204
	Developing businesses	5	52	43	3,200
	Strongly developing businesses	2	40	58	949

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

AN EXCESS OF ECONOMIC REGULATIONS IS THE MAJOR OBSTACLE FOR EMPLOYMENT GROWTH

In the process of assessing the employment forecasts, employers used the opportunity to talk about the greatest obstacles standing in the way of employment growth (table 4.5). Regardless of the size of the business or institution three of the most commonly named impediments were the following:

- **high non–payroll expenses,**
- **high taxes,**
- **unstable economic situation.**

Such issues were mentioned by nearly three–quarters of employers, yet they constituted the greatest impediment for the smallest businesses or institutions, i.e. the ones hiring up to 9 people. Taking into consideration the fact that such businesses comprise a substantial majority of all business entities, this observation seems to be of major importance and should be taken into account when planning the economic policy in Poland.

Comparing the employers' indications from 2010, one may notice an increase in the number of opinions demonstrating such problems. Hence, as opposed to opinions of decision–makers, it seems that the perception of conditions for running a business in Poland turned worse.

Table 4.5. Reasons limiting employment growth broken down by the size of a business or institution (percentage)

	1–9	10–49	50+	Total
Unstable economic situation	71	66	58	71
Difficult access to loans for businesses	23	18	14	23
High interest on loans for businesses	40	33	26	39
High salary expectations of employees	48	49	54	48
Excessive non–payroll expenses	76	68	58	76
Too high taxation	75	63	53	74
Lack of appropriate candidates to fork	40	36	36	40
Complicated legislation and legal regulations	55	50	44	55
Strong competition in the market	59	54	52	59
Poor financial standing of the firm	24	26	23	24
N	14,144	762	233	15,139

Source: BKL – Study of Employers 2010, 2011.

The Polish Agency for Enterprise Development (Polska Agencja Rozwoju Przedsiębiorczości, PARP) is a government agency reporting to the Minister of Economy. It was established on the power of the Act of 9th November 2000. The task of the agency is to manage funds received from the State Treasury and the European Union allocated to manage entrepreneurship and innovativeness and to develop human resources. For over a decade, PARP has supported entrepreneurs in implementing competitive and innovative projects. The goal of the agency is to conduct programmes Ahmed at developing the economy, supporting innovation and research activity in small and medium–size enterprises (SMEs), regional development, growth of export, development of human resources, and the use of new technologies.

The Agency's mission is to establish favourable conditions for sustained development of the Polish economy by supporting innovation and international activity of businesses and promotion of environmentally friendly forms of production and consumption.

In the financial perspective 2007–2013, PARP is responsible for the implementation of tasks in three operational programmes: **Innovative Economy, Human Capital,** and **Development of Eastern Poland.**

The Center for Evaluation and Analysis of Public Policies of the Jagiellonian University (CEAPP UJ) was established in 2008 as an autonomous research and development entity within the university. Its major area of activity is cooperation with both central and local public administration bodies on evaluation and analysis of public policies and their methodology. The Center offers education services as well as conducting scientific and applied studies, and expertise and analytycal studies addressed primarily to various levels of the public administration sector. Employees and experts working for the Center have engaged in various projects for the central administration institutions – the Ministry of Regional Development, Ministry of Finance, the Chancellery of the Prime Minister, Polish Agency for Enterprise Development, Employers of Poland organisation. The Center also keeps cooperating with regional institutions, such as the Regional Unemployment Agency in Cracow, the Marshal Office of the Małopolskie Region and other scientific and research centres, e.g. Cracow University of Economics, the Małopolska School of Public Administration or the Regional Statistical Office in Cracow.

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