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Bachelor Thesis

Does “Flexicurity” work? – Labour market and social security reforms with the concept of flexicurity in Denmark and the Netherlands

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1. Introduction

The partly high and still increasing structural unemployment in the member states of the European Union is a serious problem because unemployment separates the unemployed from the working society as it excludes them socially and in terms of social security. However, strictly speaking the problem 'unemployment' is the result of another, not directly visible problem. In the course of time, changes in the labour market, like economic and demographic change, have taken place. As the rigid labour market arrangements made it impossible for the member states to react and adapt to these changes the lack of labour market flexibility is (by Kleinman 2002: 164, 169, 173) seen as the real problem which causes unemployment and makes it necessary to develop a concept in order to increase labour market flexibility. Denmark and the Netherlands were the first member states which became active in this field. They developed a concept called 'Flexicurity' which includes to increase the labour market flexibility and to guarantee social security for the employees at the same time.

The intention of this thesis is not to find out if the concept of 'flexicurity' as such works. The central question of the bachelor assignment is: "In what ways did Denmark and the Netherlands make their labour market more flexible as well as adapt social security to this flexibilisation?" This question includes that it is illustrated if the characteristics of Danish and Dutch 'flexicurity' described in the theoretical concepts are visible in the practical realization. It is examined how theory was put into practice and what components of the particular concept of 'Flexicurity' can be recognized. In 2007, the European Commission drew up its own concept of 'flexicurity' by outlining four different pathways of 'Flexicurity'. The model for these pathways was the components of Denmark's 'Flexicurity'. To examine what components of the Danish theory of 'Flexicurity' are visible in its practical realization is therefore interesting. The case of the Netherlands is used as a comparison in order to show the variety of 'flexicurity'. In the bachelor assignment it cannot be dealt with the complete realization of Danish and Dutch 'Flexicurity'. Only the most important aspects of each concept are examined. As well it is not possible to write a bachelor assignment about the feasibility of the European Commission's 'Flexicurity' pathways because at the moment no data is available due to the fact that the European Commission implemented its concept only at the beginning of 2008.

The contents of the bachelor assignment are as followed. In Chapter 2, the bachelor assignment starts with a description of the unemployment problem in the European Union. For that purpose, in Chapter 2.1, employment and unemployment are contrasted in order to show how serious the problem is in European Union member states. Next, in Chapter 2.2, the reasons for unemployment are illustrated. With the enumeration of these reasons it is supposed to be made clear that not unemployment but the lack of labour market flexibility is the main problem and the reason for the development of the concept of 'Flexicurity' in Denmark and the Netherlands. In Chapter 2.3, finally, the development of unemployment in the European Union is described. With this, it is shown which member states were able to reduce their unemployment rates and it is lead over to the cases of Denmark and the Netherlands. In Chapter 3, Denmark's and the Netherland's theoretical concept of 'flexicurity' is presented. After in Chapter 3.1, definitions of 'flexicurity' are given, the different concepts of Danish and Dutch 'Flexicurity' are described in Chapters 3.2 and 3.3. The last two chapters deal especially with the labour market and social security reforms that took place under the concept of 'flexicurity'.

In Chapter 4, the two welfare state systems of Denmark and the Netherlands are presented. This presentation is logically necessary as one aspect of 'Flexicurity' is welfare.

In Chapter 5, the two different concepts of 'flexicurity' are examined in practice by putting Denmark and the Netherlands into comparison. For Denmark, in Chapter 5.1, part-time employment as one form of the flexible labour market (Chapter 5.1.1) as well as the active labour market programmes for the employed (Chapter 5.1.2) and the unemployed (Chapter 5.1.3) are regarded. For the Netherlands, in Chapter 5.2, the most significant non-standard, flexible employment forms which are part-time employment (Chapter 5.2.1), flex work (Chapter 5.2.2) and temporary work (Chapter 5.2.3) are regarded as well as social security is existent for each employment form.

In Chapter 6, the conclusion is drawn. In the conclusion the research question is answered by summarizing the most important results.

Regarding the literature for Denmark concerning part-time employment and the active labour market programmes for the employed and the unemployed it was originally planned to examine the existence of social security as in the case of the Netherlands. However, the literature did not include any information about that subject.

Regarding the Danish active labour market programmes the literature did not include much information about the percentages of persons participating in these programmes. Instead the literature put more stress on the effects created by the active labour market programmes.

2. The problem of unemployment in the European Union

In the following chapter, the problem of unemployment in the European Union is described in order to show the starting conditions which got Denmark and the Netherlands to the decision to use the concept of 'flexicurity'. For that purpose, first, employment and unemployment are contrasted to show how serious the problem is. Next, the reasons for the increasing unemployment are illustrated. This is to find the main reason which lead to the development of 'Flexicurity'. Finally, the development of unemployment is described to show the member states' different situations and to lead over to the cases of Denmark and the Netherlands.

2.1. Employment and unemployment

"There once was a time, [...], when Europe was close to full employment." (Cameron 2001: 7) In the 1960s and early 1970s, unemployment rates in Europe ranged between 2 and 3 per cent and sometimes even lower. (Cameron 2001: 7) From the beginning of the 1970s, there was a steep rise in unemployment throughout Europe which lasted until the first half of the 1980s. (Makovec 2008: 3) In the period between 1985 and 1990, there was a strong job growth. (Kleinman 2002: 162) However, unemployment started to rise again during the first half of the 1990s. (Makovec 2008: 3) In all from 1976 till the mid-1990s unemployment in Europe rose from slightly over 4 per cent to over 10 per cent. (Kleinman 2002: 165) Since the second half of the 1990s unemployment started to decline. (Makovec 2008: 4) In 1998, the employment rate in Europe was around 61 per cent (Kleinman 2002: 162) but there was a great difference in the member states' employment rates throughout the European Union ranging from 50 to over 70 per cent. (Kleinman 2002: 168) In 2005, in the EU-15 the average unemployment rate was 8 per cent and made unemployment still to a serious problem in the European Union. (Kluve 2008: 28) However, it is the very high rate of long-term unemployment that has been and remains one of the most problematic aspects of European unemployment. (Cameron 2001: 26) "In 1998, half of the unemployed people in the EU-15 had been out of work for a year or more." (Kleinman 2002: 165) In 2005, compared with the total unemployed in the EU-25 45 per cent of the unemployed were out of work for more than a year. (Makovec 2008: 3)

2.2. Reasons for the increasing unemployment

Since the 1960s significant changes took place in the European labour markets. (Hatt 2002: 161) A series of economic and demographic changes affected the labour markets in this case seriously.

During economic change the production was restructured and the economy shifted from a production to a service-based. (Kleinman 2002: 161-162) While employment in agriculture and the manufacturing sector declined in the 1960s, the service sector became more important. The demand for men who mainly worked in agriculture and the manufacturing industry shrunk and they lost their jobs. The reason for the decline in the manufacturing sector was among others globalisation which made East-Asia with its low-wage economies to a competitor. At the same time women entered the labour market and rushed into the service sector where there was an increasing demand for them (Hatt 2002: 161, 162, 163) However, the heavy job losses that caused the increasing unemployment were also due to “[...] the three major recessions of the mid-1970s, early 1980s, and early 1990s [...]” (Cameron 2001: 11) The recessions caused macroeconomic shocks resulting in the oil price rises of 1974-75 and 1980-84 and in the monetary crisis of 1991-94. (Kleinman 2002: 162)

Demographic changes were and are caused among other factors by the ageing of the population and decreasing fertility rates. Reasons of the demographic changes are the break up and no longer importance of traditional family structures and the increase of female labour market participation. (Kleinman 2002: 161-62) The reason for the last aspect was that in the traditional breadwinner-homemaker model men and women had clear roles. Men went to work in order to earn a living for the family and women were responsible for the house. They stayed at home, kept the house and cared for the children. (Appelbaum et al. 2002: 140, 141) However, this situation changed. While in the mid-1970s, women mainly stayed at home, in the late 1970s and early 1980s these women began to enter the labour market more frequently. (Moussis 2007: 231) Between 1960 and 1990, an increase in the participation of women in the labour market was recorded. The group with the sharpest rise in participation were mothers. (Gornick 1999: 214) In addition, new family arrangements occurred due to the fact that traditional marriage lost in importance and the number of divorces increased. (van Paridon 2000: 197) Another point is that as on the one hand fertility reduces fast and on the other hand people become older than in the past “[...] population growth is slowing down and the population is aging.” (van Paridon 2000:

199) There will be a strong increase of the age group above 65. Was it only 13 per cent in 1990, by 2040 it will be 22 per cent. (van Paridon 2000: 199)

As a major cause of high European unemployment the inflexible nature of the labour market institutions in most of Europe is seen by Kleinman (2002:164). Labour market regulations like employment protection or certain arrangements of the social security system like benefit rates and their duration (Kleinman 2002: 173) increased the rigidity of labour markets so that the economies and labour markets throughout Europe “[...] do not adapt, or do not adapt quickly enough, to changes in demand.” (Kleinman 2002: 169)

“As a result, a consensus is emerging that countries should adopt provisions in the labour market that combine the requirements of flexibility and security, that is to say ‘flexicurity’.” (Di Domenico/Gasparini 2008: 69)

2.3. Development of unemployment

“There is an enormous variation in the unemployment performance of countries in Europe.” (Kleinman 2002: 169)

During the 1990s the average unemployment rate in the fifteen member states of the European Union was above 10 per cent. (Cameron 2001: 7) In the late 1990s, unemployment rates in most of the member states decreased only to a modest extent. However, in some member states, besides Ireland, the United Kingdom and Spain, also in Denmark and the Netherlands the level of unemployment decreased significantly and by 1999 was notably lower than the average unemployment rate of the 1990s’ first half. Belgium, Germany, France and Sweden were hardly successful in this case. (Cameron 2001: 15-16)

In the period between 1983 and 2004 regarding long-term unemployment, only in five member states the long-term unemployed counted below 25 per cent on the total unemployed. Under these member states were the United Kingdom, Luxembourg and Denmark and together with Ireland only these countries managed to halve their numbers in long-term unemployment. Finland, Spain and the Netherlands reduced their long-term unemployment rates to a smaller but substantially extent. (Makovec 2008: 5, 6)

In the mid-1990s, the unemployment rate in the EU was approximately 11 per cent. Only at the end of the 1990s it began to decrease below 10 per cent. At the same time, Denmark and the Netherlands succeeded in reducing their unemployment to 5 per cent which is half of this level. (Jorgensen/Madsen 2007: 11)

Denmark's success story of unemployment reduction was that the traditional generous social security system towards the unemployed was generally kept up even if replacement rates were reduced and eligibility conditions tightened. In addition, active labour market policies increased in importance (Makovec 2008: 5) and negotiated wage moderation policies were introduced. (Gazier 2002: 203)

In the Netherlands, the falls in unemployment were the result of reforms in its labour market institutions (Kleinman 2002: 170) as unemployment benefits were tightened and a consensual wage moderation policy was introduced. One reform from which the Netherlands benefited to a great extent was that barriers to part-time employment were removed. (Makovec 2008: 4)

In Denmark and the Netherlands as the primary cause of the positive labour market performance flexicurity policies have been recognised. (Viebrock/Clasen 2009: 315) These policies are now described more in detail in the next chapter.

3. The concept of 'flexicurity' in theory

In the following chapter the theoretical concept of 'flexicurity' in Denmark and the Netherlands is presented and by this way the different approaches of the two member states are illustrated. However first, different definitions of 'Flexicurity' are given. Then, the Danish and the Dutch theoretical concept of 'flexicurity' concerning the labour market and social security reforms are described

3.1. Definitions of 'flexicurity'

Labour market flexibility and social security face each other in a strained relationship. As mentioned at the end of Chapter 2.2, European labour markets lack of flexibility in order to meet the increasing demand for dynamic labour arrangements. At the same time, the social security systems developed for the ideal of full-time employment do not meet the demand of increased appearing non-standard forms of employment. Because of the divergent demands that flexibility and security make a trade-off between the two exists. (Viebrock/Clasen 2009: 305-306)

The concept of 'flexicurity' can be described in the following way:

“The notion indicates a carefully balanced combination of flexibility, where it matters for job creation, and protection, where it is needed for social security. Flexicurity is based on the co-ordination of employment and social policies. Employment policies must create the best conditions for job growth, whereas social policies must guarantee

acceptable levels of [...] social security to all, including those who enter de-regulated labour markets.” (Viebrock/Clasen 2009: 306)

The definition of flexicurity most widely used is that of Tom Wilthagen and his colleagues. They define the concept of flexicurity as

“a policy strategy ... that attempts, synchronically and in a deliberate way, to enhance the flexibility of labour markets, work organisations and labour relations on the one hand, and to enhance security – employment security and social security – notably for weaker groups in an outside the labour market, on the other hand” (Bredgaard et al. 2007: 366-367)

3.2. Denmark – The ‘Golden Triangle’

In Denmark the phrase ‘flexicurity’ became known by chance. Between 1999 and 2002/2003, the Danish Ministry and the ILO used either the term ‘Golden Triangle’ or the expression “flexicurity” in their reports about the Danish labour market. “The actual link between the ‘Golden Triangle’ and the term flexicurity was made sometime in 2000 [...]” (Jorgensen/Madsen 2007: 10) A report on ‘Flexicurity’ was published by the Ministry of Employment in June 2005. By that time, Denmark officially counted as the homeland of flexicurity. (Jorgensen/Madsen 2007: 9-10)

The Danish model of flexicurity combines three elements with each other: labour markets are flexible, unemployment support is generous and a strong emphasis is put on activation. Because of these three elements the Danish model is also called the ‘Golden Triangle’. (Viebrock/Clasen 2009: 313-314)

Before the reforms during the 1990s, the Danish model was that of pure flexicurity consisting of the two elements ‘flexibility’ and ‘security’. When the third element of ‘active labour market policies’ was introduced the model became balanced and performed better. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 391) The labour market reforms were possible because of a carefully prepared compromise made by a special tri-partite committee that formed it self in the early 1990s. (Madsen 2008: 75) The reforms turned the passive focus of the labour market system which laid on income protection into an active one of which is expected to bring the unemployed into employment. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 402)

No change was made to the high level of the unemployment benefit’s payment rate (Dingeldey 2007: 829) which amounts up to a maximum of 90 per cent of previous individual earnings. (Pedersen/Smith 2002: 273) As the income ceiling is quite low

the combination of both “[...] works as a quasi flat-rate benefit.” (Dingeldey 2007: 829)

However, for unemployment benefits and social assistance active measures were introduced. (Green-Pedersen et al. 2001: 316) That activation was linked to the continued right to unemployment benefit became stricter. (Torfing 1999: 15) There was a cut by steps of the unemployment benefit’s duration from 8 to 4 years between 1994 and 1999. (Dingeldey 2007: 829) For each unemployed person an individual action plan is prepared to meet the need of the unemployed with a variety of activation measures such like educational offers, job training, job sharing and job rotation. (Green-Pedersen et al. 2001: 316)

The unemployment benefit period is divided into two smaller periods. During the ‘benefit period’ offers for activation possibilities are given to the unemployed. (Green-Pedersen et al. 2001: 316) During the ‘activation period’ which starts for persons over 30 if after one year of unemployment no job has been found and for those under 30 after six months permanent activation by the participation in education or training is obligatory for the unemployed workers. (Dingeldey 2007: 831; Green-Pedersen et al. 2001: 316)

In social assistance, for the young activation measures already existed. In 1998, the introduction of the Law on ‘Active Social Policy’ demanded that the period in which social assistance recipients younger than 30 must be activated is thirteen weeks. The period for activation of recipients over 30 is one year. The activation measures in the unemployment benefits scheme basically do apply also to social assistance. (Green-Pedersen et al. 2001: 316)

Besides the labour market reforms an important role is played by leave schemes. “These schemes were to a large extent created in order to reduce the unemployment rate either by getting unemployed people to enter the schemes, or by getting employed individuals to enter the scheme in order to create a temporary – or permanent – job for an unemployed person who would substitute for the person on leave.” (Pedersen/Smith 2002: 279) In 1994, education leave and childcare leave became permanent leave schemes. Through education leave insured workers have the possibility to leave the labour market between one week and one year at the maximum for the participation in an acknowledged education during which the worker receives benefits comparable to unemployment benefits. Childcare leave offers parents with children under the age of eight the possibility to care for their

children at home. The parents can take time out between 13 weeks and one year at the maximum.(van Oorschot/Abrahamson 2003: 294)

3.3. The Netherlands

The Netherlands was actually the first of the two member states that coined the expression 'flexicurity'. (Jorgensen/Madsen 2007: 9)

As the key element of Dutch flexicurity, non-standard, flexible forms of work are combined with social security rights. Characteristic is that the social security rights of non-standard and standard employed persons are similar. (Viebrock/Clasen 2009: 314-315) The Dutch flexicurity policies aim at normalizing non-standard work without endangering the labour market's flexibility. (Bekker/Wilthagen 2008: 71)

Since the end of the 1970s, Dutch policy supported the intention that part-time and full-time workers are equally treated in the fields of social security, labour law and collective labour arrangements. In the 'Agreement of Wassenaar' of 1982, the government and social partners agreed the support of work redistribution was promised by the social partners. The promises in detail were that part-time work gets more attention and working-time is reduced. In the mid-1980s, social insurance was no longer dependent on working hours and the height of the wage. Since 1993, all part-time workers were due to a legal minimum wage and from 1994 on they could no longer be excluded from occupational pension funds. (van Oorschot 2004: 20)

In 1996, with the introduction of the 'Prohibition of Discrimination by Working Hours Act' the discrimination between part-time and full-time employees because of differing working hours by their employer is forbidden. (Bekker/Wilthagen 2008: 71-72) Further, the care responsibilities of employees must be allowed for by employers. This means when working times are set and schedules are plotted employers must consider employees' preferences. (Wilthagen/Rogowski 2002: 248)

In 2000, the 'Adjustment of Working Hours Act' came into force. (Bekker/Wilthagen 2008: 72) Through this act, employees have the right to adjust their working hours laid down in the labour contract upwards or downwards if the organization in which they work employs at least ten workers. (van Oorschot 2004: 20)

Regarding the case of flex-workers, their social protection is more insecure than that of part-time workers. (van Oorschot 2004: 20) However, changes in labour law concerning the improvement of flex workers' work security and the increase of flexibility for employers and employees were undertaken. (van Oorschot 2004: 21)

At the end of 1995, Ad Melkert, the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment at the time, presented his 'Flexibility and Security' memorandum in which he drew the picture of how to balance flexibility and social security in the labour market. (Bekker/Wilthagen 2008: 72) The final 'Flexibility and Security Bill Act' of 1999 introduced the regulation of flex contracts, dismissal procedures and probationary periods. (van Oorschot 2004: 21) However, not only agency workers and workers on fixed-term contracts were concerned by this Act but also part-time workers. (Jorgensen/Madsen 2007: 11-12) In standard employment, the dismissal protection was slightly reduced, the temporary work market was liberalized extensively and the security for non-standard workers was improved relating to employment and employability security. (Viebrock/Clasen 2009: 315)

In the Netherlands, to active labour market policies less importance was paid than in the case of Denmark. (Auer 2002: 96) However, changes took place in unemployment insurance. During the 1980s and 1990s, eligibility and entitlement criteria to unemployment insurance became stricter as they now were more linked to a person's work record. The result was that workers with an insufficient work record can only receive social assistance based on a means-test. (van Oorschot/Abrahamson 2003: 292) For all unemployed the benefits have been lowered and the benefit period was shortened. (van Oorschot 2004: 19)

Regarding sickness benefits, during an employee's sickness the employer is obliged to do wage continuation for the first six weeks. In 1996, by the introduction of the 'Law of Sickness Absenteeism' continued wage payment during the first year of illness was made obligatory. (Green-Pedersen et al. 2001: 314-315)

4. The welfare state system of Denmark and the Netherlands

In the following chapter the welfare state system of Denmark and the Netherlands is described by mentioning reforms in social policy in the respective welfare state, too.

4.1. Denmark

Till 1982, "[...] the Danish welfare state consisted of a range of universal, tax-financed cash benefits such as the public pension scheme, unemployment benefits, early retirement benefits, and sickness insurances and highly developed, public, tax-financed and universal welfare services within health care, child care, and care of older people." (Green-Pedersen/Klitgaard 2009: 138) One of the hallmarks of the

universal welfare states in Scandinavia is the high levels of female labour market participation in Denmark which is made possible especially by childcare and care of older people. However, in Denmark some deviations from the idea of a universal welfare state existed. (Green-Pedersen/Klitgaard 2009: 138)

The passive character of labour market policy was a noticeable aspect in which in 1982 the Danish welfare state deviated from the idea of the universal welfare state. Unemployed people's eligibility securing to receive unemployment benefits was it what active labour market policies were limited to in the early 1980s rather than bringing people back to regular jobs. Labour market policy transformation towards active measures and more employment-oriented policies in Denmark took place only during the 1990s (Green-Pedersen/Klitgaard 2009: 138) like mentioned already in the last chapter about Danish flexicurity.

Between 1984 and 2004 a series of welfare reforms took place. More money was put into the health care system by the social democratic-led government from 1993 to 2001 due to public dissatisfaction with the system. With regard to care of older people the same development has taken place, but on a smaller scale. In the late 1990s because of a 'care guarantee' child care has been expanded. (Green-Pedersen/Klitgaard 2009: 140-141)

4.2. The Netherlands

One character of the present Dutch welfare system is its comprehensiveness. In nearly all aspects of citizen's wants, needs and well-being the government intervenes substantially. Health, housing, work and income are the main fields of social policies. As separate from these fields of social policy, is seen the field of education policy. (van Oorschot 2009: 365)

The second main character of the Dutch welfare system is a high degree of corporatism. The government consults social partners in all major socio-economic policy areas. In the standard process of social policy making prescribed is such consultation which is highly institutionalized. A rather flexible adaption of the Dutch welfare system was guaranteed by these, although not always easily reached, agreements between government and social partners. (van Oorschot 2009: 365-366)

The Dutch welfare system is despite its strong corporatist character generally considered as a 'hybrid' between the conservative/corporatist and social-democratic welfare regime. Bismarckian-type social insurances for workers as well as universal, so-called people's insurances that cover all citizens are therefore contained in its

social security system. (van Oorschot 2009: 366) One specific characteristic of the corporatist regime is the preservation of traditional familyhood. One result of this is the evident underdevelopment of day care. (Esping-Andersen 2006: 168) Also in today's social democratic welfare state model a large share of the household burden is still taken for granted especially by mothers. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 645)

At the beginning of 1991, the Dutch parental leave regulation was introduced. At first, it only allowed part-time leave in order to retain intact links between the employee and the labour market. The reduction of the problems surrounding women's re-entry into the workforce was assumed by this approach. In July 1997 legislation was relaxed.. "[...] [L]eave-takers now have the option – although not the statutory right – to take three months' (13 weeks) full-time leave or to spread their leave entitlement over a period longer than six months." (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 204) However, parental leave is unpaid. (Visser 2002: 34)

Maternity leave was no right guaranteed by the constitution. (Anxo et al. 2000: 101) However, today women have the right to paid maternity leave. This leave form can be taken by part-time working women as well. The minimum period for paid maternity leave provided by every county of the European Union must be 14 weeks. Dutch women get 100 per cent of their previous wage as payments for maternity leave. After maternity leave the return to the former jobs is guaranteed to the women. (Appelbaum et al. 2002: 156)

5. The concept of 'flexicurity' in practice – Denmark and the Netherlands in comparison

In the following chapter, Danish and Dutch flexicurity in practice are examined. In each subchapter of Denmark and the Netherlands one of the characteristics of Danish and Dutch flexicurity which are not the same for both countries is regarded and it is examined if some aspects mentioned in the reforms of the respective country can be recognized in the practical use of 'Flexicurity' in Denmark and the Netherlands.

5.1. Denmark

In the following chapter, part-time employment as one form of the flexible labour market and the activation policies for the employed and the unemployed are examined as those two are the important characteristics of Danish flexicurity. It is

looked if any aspects mentioned in the labour market reforms can be recognized in the practical use of flexicurity. Regarding part-time employment the numbers of persons working in part-time, work satisfaction and parental leave/childcare are examined. Regarding the active labour market programmes the effects of these programmes are examined.

5.1.1. Part-time employment

In 2004, the number of people in part-time employment was with 370,000 significantly lower than in the year 1978 with 537,000 persons. After, from the mid-1970s till the mid-1990s, part-time employment experienced a strong decrease it came to a halt and since 1998, the number of part-timers had not changed significantly. (Lind/Rasmussen 2008: 525, 526) The reason for the decrease since the late 1970s was the strong fall of women's participation in part-time employment. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 645) In 2004, only 204,000 women worked part-time which is less than a half compared to 461,000 women in the year 1978. In comparison, the numbers of men in part-time employment more than doubled. Was it only 76,000 men in 1978 by 2004 the numbers had increased to 166,000. (Lind/Rasmussen 2008: 525, 526)

Since 1983, the participation of men and women under the age of 25 in part-time employment remarkably increased. In 2004 nearly half of all men and almost two-thirds of all women in employment up to the age of 24 worked in part-time. (Lind / Rasmussen 2008: 527) “[...] [P]art-time employment has become a youth phenomenon, with around 60 per cent of part-timers now below 30 years of age and participating in some form of education.” (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 645)

As the reasons for the decreasing participation of women in part-time employment and the increasing participation in full-time employment can be named “[...] childcare support, changes in unemployment insurance, emphasis on work and career, and employer preference for full-time workers.” (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 646) Affordable childcare provision was enlarged since the 1970s which on the one hand offered women the possibility to work part-time. As on the other hand the view of ‘full-time’ changed, too, full-time employment became attractive to women. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 646)

Between the 1970s and 1980s, the standard working week was reduced from 44 hours to 37 hours. In addition, the attractiveness of part-time work was lessened by changes in unemployment insurance in the 1990s. So, part-timers' ability to access

additional unemployment benefits was reduced and the claiming of benefits was linked to higher working time thresholds. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 646)

The build-up of a long-term career in part-time employment is difficult. As the career length and the benefit system stand in interaction, this can cause a reduction in income levels. In order to prevent this loss women decided to work full-time. Welfare state measures supported this decision. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 646-647)

The preference of employers for full-time workers has to do with the business structure in which on permanent learning and up-skilling a high stress is laid. Because of the high flexibility the labour force structure can easily be adapted without the necessity to create part-time employment. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 647)

Regarding work satisfaction, among Danish women full-time employment is deeply preferred. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 647) Working-time in Denmark is laid down by national policies. Working days are of average length and weekly working time which shows little up or down variation amounts to 37 hours. (Gash 2008: 660) In 2005, full-time working mothers had 'normal' working hours of around 40 hours per week. 11.1 per cent of the mothers had long working hours of 46 hours or more per week. While only 3.2 per cent and 24.1 per cent of the mothers worked part-time for 1 - 19 hours respectively 20 - 34 hours per week 64.7 per cent of the mothers worked full-time for 35 hours or more per week. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 26, 27) Regarding working time arrangements there is relatively satisfaction at Danish women. Despite the high level of women in full-time employment, less than one third of these women wanted to work fewer hours. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 647) In 2005, 31.3 per cent of the mothers who worked full-time wanted no change in their working hours. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 31) Of all Danish full-time employees who were asked if they would like to work part-time, 82 per cent denied this. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 647)

The majority of people in part-time are satisfied with being in part-time employment. Regarding satisfaction with their working time almost half of all part-timers affirmed this. (Lind/Rasmussen 2008: 529) In 2005, 46 per cent of the mothers in part-time work wanted no change in their working hours. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 31) However in 2004, 17.4 per cent are involuntary part-time employees as they actually prefer to be in another employment form. (Lind/Rasmussen 2008: 529)

In general, according to Gash (2008: 660) part-time work in Denmark is of good quality concerning wages, access to training provided by the employer and job autonomy. Danish part-timers' education is good, they receive formal training and their occupational status is high. In Denmark access to affordable childcare is

provided, the quality of part-time work is above average and the design of working hours is open to work-life balance. (Gash 2008: 660)

Regarding parental leave, in 1996, 2,000 men and 28,000 women, working or unemployed, made an application for parental leave. (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 200) However, of the option to take parental leave not everyone made use of. Actually parental leave was taken by one in three mothers and 3 per cent of the fathers with a child younger than 3 years. By the unemployed parental leave was taken relatively often. At slightly lower levels came out take-up rates for working mothers and fathers. (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 203) However, parental and maternity leave experienced a dramatic increase. At present, employees can claim one year of parental leave. 25 years ago, employees were only entitled to 14 weeks of parental leave at the maximum. Usually they had to live completely on maternity benefits during this time. Now, they receive their normal wages up to six months. For the remaining six months employees get maternity benefits. The level of this benefit is the same as that of unemployment and sickness benefits. (Lind/Rasmussen 2008: 533) 80 per cent of the maximum unemployment benefit was the initial payment for parental leave. However, it has been reduced to 60 per cent from 1 April 1997. (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 203)

The parental leave scheme is not used on women with children as a disemployment strategy. It is actually used so that within the family childcare needs can meet while it is guaranteed that both parents are later reintegrated into the labour market. As a result, after childbirth mothers stay at home up to 85 per cent for only six months. (Dingeldey 2007: 840)

The fast re-entry of mothers into the labour market and the increase of women's employability with children are possible because of an expansion in childcare provision. Between 1990 and 2000, coverage rate for all age groups increased from 38.1 per cent to 59.2 per cent. The good quality of care was kept up while the transformation of half-time day-care places into full-time places. As a result, the employment rates of women with children are one of the highest in Denmark. In 1998, 88.1 per cent of the women with one child and 77.2 per cent of the women with two children worked. Among these two groups there was still a decline in the proportion of part-time employment which was 13.3 per cent for women with one child and 16.2 per cent for women with two children. (Dingeldey 2007: 840, 842) In 2005, 67.8 per cent of the Danish parents said that their youngest child in the age

group between 0 and 6 years was in formal childcare. Only 8.1 per cent of the parents said that one parent cared for the child at home. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 32)

5.1.2. Active labour market programmes for the employed

Among those enrolled in activation in 2001, subject to some manner of job training were nearly 47 per cent and in educational measures enrolled were 53 per cent. (Halvorsen/Jensen 2004: 473)

The punishment of social insurance beneficiaries was limited only to a few cases. It was guessed that between 1994 and 2000 the loss of the right to unemployment benefits amounted to less than 1 per cent of all recipients. The withdrawal of the benefits of recipients which receive a means-tested welfare benefit was rare. (Halvorsen/Jensen 2004: 476)

From 1994 till 1999, over a third (42 per cent) of individuals began training each year. However, to begin a training course was with 47 per cent more probable for women than for men with 42 per cent. (Arulampalam et al. 2004: 348, 350) The probability of men and women with tertiary education to get training was considerably higher than for those of less than upper secondary level. (Arulampalam et al. 2004: 355)

For the employed the two forms of continuing and vocational training exist.

Regarding the transition from employment to unemployment and if by the participation in continuing training the risk of entering unemployment is reduced strong and significant effects were proved for general education. Job tenure was inversely related to the risk of becoming unemployed in the way that the risk decreases with increasing job tenure. One reason for that were job-specific investments employees accumulate during their working life in the company. Another reason was that the longer an employee worked in the company the higher were the costs in the case of dismissal. In Denmark it is less likely for workers to enter unemployment again after a previous unemployment spell was experienced. The risk for unemployment increases with the worker's age. The risk of making a transition from employment to unemployment considerably decreases in the case of being male. (Dieckhoff 2007: 301)

Regarding the transition from lower skilled jobs into higher level employment, the upward occupational mobility was experienced more likely by workers recently participating in continuing education or training than by those workers without such training. The probabilities for mobility decreased with the length of time spent in the

current job. However in Denmark, tenures must reach beyond six years in order to show negative effects. Third-level education had a strong positive effect. The probabilities of making the transition into a higher level employment were notably higher for employees who attended third-level education than for those with lower secondary education. (Dieckhoff 2007: 302-303) Un- and semi-skilled workers were more likely to make the transition than workers of the occupational groups “[...] skilled manual, sales and personal services, clerical, and professional, semi-professional, or technical [...]” (Dieckhoff 2007: 302) The effect of previous unemployment on the probability to make a transition to higher level employment was not significant. (Dieckhoff 2007: 302-303) All in all, the probability of entering a higher level employment was positively affected by continuing training. (Dieckhoff 2007: 303)

Regarding vocational training and what effect education does have on the likelihood of being in lower-skilled employment, it was considerably more probable for the untrained to be in lower-skilled employment than for persons with lower secondary education who attended vocational training. The difference between not trained workers with higher secondary education and workers with lower general education who were vocationally trained was not significant. There was a lower risk for trained workers with higher secondary education to be in lower-skilled employment than for trained workers with lower secondary education. It was notably less probable for workers with third-level or university education to be in lower-skilled jobs than for person with lower secondary education who attended vocational training. (Dieckhoff 2008: 100-101)

Regarding in what relation education and training do stand to the likelihood of a person to be in professional, semi-professional or technical employment, it was considerably less probable for untrained workers to be in professional employment than for workers with lower secondary education who were vocationally trained. The probability between not trained workers with higher general secondary education and persons with lower levels of general education who attended vocational training of being in professional employment was not significantly different. According to Dieckhoff (2008: 101-102) it is proposed that for workers who were vocationally trained and for workers with higher levels of secondary education who attended no training the chances of professional employment were the same. The advantage of vocationally trained employees with higher general secondary education being in professional employment was notably better than for persons with lower secondary

education who attended vocational training. The probability of employees with third-level or university education being in professional or semi-professional employment was considerably higher than for persons who attended vocational training. (Dieckhoff 2008: 101-102)

5.1.3. Active labour market programmes for the unemployed

Education is normally the most common type of activation. However, from 2001 to 2003 there has been a reduction in the importance of education from 69 per cent to 52 per cent. At the same time the importance of public job training increased from 13 per cent to 16 per cent and that of other activation forms increased even from 11 per cent to 23 per cent. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 410, 412)

That education secures employment has generally been believed concerning to Kvist/Pedersen (2007: 108). However in fact, the effects of education in the form of activation for the unemployed are small. According to Kvist/Pedersen (2007: 108) one reason for that result might be that the measurement of the effect of education is difficult. Only over the long term this effect might materialise with different effects for different target groups. Another reason might be that there is no match between the individual and the labour market demand because of not properly designed education offers. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 108)

Regarding training programmes, since the implementation of the leave schemes in 1994, the claim of these schemes increased dramatically. Education leave was taken twenty times as much by people in 1994 compared to 1993 and parental leave seven times as much compared to 1993. (Compston/Madsen 2001: 122) In 1995 at the programme's peak, of the people being on training leave more than 9,731 were employed and 29,706 were unemployed. (Dingeldey 2007: 837) Regarding the claim of leave between 1993 and 1999, employees and the unemployed built the group of leave-takers to one half each. (Compston/Madsen 2001: 123) Of all employees on education or parental leave around 65 per cent were substituted by a person at their job replacing the leaver. Roughly half of these persons were previously unemployed. (Compston/Madsen 2001: 123)

According to Compston/Madsen (2001: 123) the Danish Ministry of Finance regarded it as a fact that the contribution of the leave schemes to unemployment reduction is unquestionable. The flexibility of the schemes was also confirmed. The reduction of structural unemployment was another contribution of the leave schemes

as job rotation was made easier and qualifications were improved. (Compston/Madsen 2001: 123)

However, the whole programme was phased out because the demand for labour increased since 1995. Yet, the support of education and training, particularly for the unemployed was continued. Since 1995, in courses for extra secondary education 10,000 - 37,000 unemployed people participated each year. No less than 5,000 participants per year were counted in an apprenticeship programme for adults introduced in 2001. Job search during the activation period was intensified with the help of some short-term labour market training programmes. In 2000, the spending for labour market training programmes remained remarkably high at 0.86 per cent of Growth Domestic Product despite a programme structure reshuffling which caused reductions and despite a decline in unemployment participants. (Dingeldey 2007: 837)

In the main, activation programmes cause three effects which are motivation or threat effects, lock-in effects and qualification effects.

The motivation effect causes that as a condition for the entitlement to benefits is the participation in activation, the unemployed are made intensify their job search and by that the likelihood to get a job is increased. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 106) "The motivation effect implies that an unemployed person seeks work more actively in the period immediately before she or he has to participate in a mandatory activation programme." (Madsen 2002: 9)

Kvist/Pedersen (2007: 106) described a study in which the threat effect of activation was analysed. In the study two groups of which one faced activation and the other did not face activation were compared concerning their exit rate from unemployment.

The study ran for 12 months. Some time after the start of the activation period the exit rate from unemployment insurance increased noticeably. This time delay between the start of activation and the increase in the exit rate were due to the necessity of formulating first an activation plan and then finding a suitable offer. Therefore, at the start of the activation period the threat effect was not very serious. After eight months of the activation period had passed the exit rate from unemployment insurance decreased dramatically. The leave of the system by the voluntary unemployed who did not wish to participate in activation caused this decreases on the one hand. On the other hand, the remaining persons participating in activation showed fallen search intensity for work. According to Kvist/Pedersen

(2007: 106) the motivational and the lock-in effect which is described in the following are illustrated by the results of the study.

Andersen/Svarer (2007: 414-415) too speak of a direct effect on the exit rate from unemployment which is caused by the individual risk of being activated. The job finding rate especially of men notably increases by the risk of being activated. Usually, a reduction of men's unemployment period by around 3 weeks which is approximately 10 per cent is the result of this activation. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 414-415)

On social assistance claimants, activation has overall small motivation effects. However, for persons under the age of 30, motivation effects were stronger. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 106)

To assess the effectiveness of an activation programme, Graversen and van Ours (2008: 309-310), too described a controlled experiment that was done by the Danish Labour Market Authority in two Danish countries in the period between November 2005 and March 2006. A group of persons who were registered as unemployed were randomly divided into a treatment and a control group. The treatment group was assigned to an activation programme. The control group received the normal services for the unemployed from the Public Employment Service.

It was measured how many persons were still unemployed after 5, 10 and 20 weeks participation in the activation programme respectively the normal services for the unemployed. While 76.2 per cent of the persons in activation were still unemployed after 5 weeks, in the control group it was 78.4 per cent. After 10 weeks, 55.6 per cent in the treatment group but 62.3 per cent in the control group remained unemployed. After 20 weeks only 28.2 per cent of the persons in the activation programme were still unemployed while in the control group it was 36.8 per cent. Regarding returns to unemployment after leaving the activation programme quickly, no difference could be seen between the treatment and the control group. The return to unemployment was not more likely for the persons who left the activation programme quickly than for those who did not participate in activation. Another finding was the positive effect of the activation programme on the job finding rate for all groups of workers irrespective of gender and age. (Graversen/van Ours 2008: 309-310)

The main result of the field experiment was that the exit rate from unemployment increased by the assignment to a mandatory activation programme. In the beginning of the unemployment spell, which means in the first 5 weeks, this increase was

mainly present. According to Graversen/van Ours (2008: 310) “[a]pparently individuals assigned to the mandatory activation program want to avoid the program and therefore leave unemployment quickly.”

Andersen/Svarer (2007: 415) who referred to Graversen and van Ours write that for helping the unemployed back to work with participation in any of the active labour market programme no evidence was found. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 415)

The lock-in effect causes that as the participation in activation takes time the search of the unemployed for work is less intensively during participation in activation. Another reason for that behaviour is the preference of the unemployed to finish the activation offer before applying for a job. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 106)

Regarding the lock-in effect of most activation programmes, according to Andersen/Svarer (2007: 414) it is rather significant. However, in most cases there are only minor post-programme effects. Private job training registered the most positive effects. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 414)

The qualification effect causes that the unemployed experience an improvement of their labour market qualifications during activation and therefore finding a job matching the unemployed qualifications is made easier. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 106)

Measurement of qualification effects is hard as it is difficult to assess whether new qualifications or increased job search is responsible if the activated persons become employed. Direct measurement of changes in skill and search costs is hardly possible, too. As an alternative the study of changes in the transition rates from unemployment into employment comes into question. To get a guess of the employment effect of activation is not easy for two reasons. One reason is that due to a lack of a good control group the measurement of the isolated effect of activation is difficult. Another reason is that on the exact extent of individual employment good data is missing. Therefore, in order to solve these data problems, the change in numbers receiving social security can be used to estimate the effect of activation. On a scale from 0 to 100 the degree of a person’s living on social security benefits within a year is measured. Full employment is indicated by 0 and full public support by 100. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 107)

For the insured unemployed, the largest employment effect had without equal private job training. The participation in private job training, on average, reduced the dependence on social security of persons older than 25 years by 20 per cent or 2 months per year. However, in private job training only one person in ten in activation

participates. Other activation measures had notably smaller effects. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 107)

For social assistance claimants, the use of employment projects was the most frequently applied measure to this group. The dependence on social security was reduced by only 3 per cent by participation in this programme type. This was one-fifth of the private job training effect. Another frequently used measure was individual job training in public workplaces. The participants' dependence on social security was reduced by 6 per cent or three weeks per year by this type of measure. (Kvist/Pedersen 2007: 107)

Regarding the long-term effects of active labour market programmes, according to Andersen/Svarer (2007: 416) “[...] it could very well be the case that workfare programmes help unemployed getting closer to employment and hence reduce the risk that they become long-term recipients of public support.” (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 416)

Andersen/Svarer (2007: 427) described an investigation the Danish Economic Council did in 2007 in which four different programmes types were examined concerning their long-term effects in terms of following employment rates. While the short-term effects were negative, there is a positive effect for several of the programmes with regard to employment rates. Especially participation in private job training and other programmes rather than education and public job training affected the employment rates positively. (Andersen/Svarer 2007: 417)

5.2. The Netherlands

In the following chapter, part-time employment, flex-work and temporary work are examined as those are the central characteristics of Dutch flexicurity. It is looked if any aspects which were mentioned in the labour market and social security reforms can be recognized in the practical use of these employment forms. Regarding part-time employment the numbers of persons in this employment form, work satisfaction and parental leave/childcare are examined. For the other two employment forms the numbers of persons in the specific employment form and work satisfaction are examined.

5.2.1. Part-time employment and social security

Between 1983 and 2000 in the Netherlands, there was a yearly increase of 2 per cent in the number of jobs which is compared to the EU average four times higher. A

strong contributory factor to that was the expansion of part-time work. Since 1983, 2 million new jobs were created of which three quarters were part-time jobs. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 643)

In the Netherlands, “[...] part-time work is mainly ‘female’ work” (Blázquez Cuesta/Ramos Martín 2009: 226) as it is in the main women taking these jobs who were responsible for the growth of the labour force. “The women enter the labour market far more often from the non-working labour force than from the unemployed.” (Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren 1999: 278) In 1997, from the non-working population 123,000 people entered the labour market which is more than the 56,000 people from the unemployed population. Students and housewives built most of the non-working population. In contrast, during time the number of permanent full-time labour contracts stayed nearly the same. (Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren 1999: 278)

In 1996, of the estimated 6,745,000 workers in the Dutch labour force, part-time workers with a permanent labour contract amounted to approximately 26.5 per cent. (Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren 1999: 277) There was an increase in the participation rate of women in the labour market between 1990 and 2000 from 46 per cent to 63 per cent as most of these part-time jobs went to women. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 643) In 2003, nearly 75 per cent of total employment was female part-time employment. (Blázquez Cuesta/Ramos Martín 2009: 226) So, according to Visser (2002: 32) in the 1990s, “[...] part-time jobs have become common for women.” (Visser 2002: 32)

The numbers about the share of part-time workers on all workers differ. While van Oorschot (2004: 24) writes that the share of part-time workers on all workers is a third Rasmusen (2004: 643) in contrast is speaking of 40 per cent part-time workers on all workers.

Regarding the percentage of part-time workers in the different age groups in 2002, for women the numbers are very similar with 71.7 per cent in the age group 15 – 24 years and 71.2 per cent in the age group 25 - 49 years. For men it was 56.7 per cent in the age group 15 - 24 years but only 12 per cent in the age group 25 - 49 years. An explanation for the high number in male part-time employment in the age group 15 - 24 years is that during the schooling process men tend to work part-time. (Blázquez Cuesta/Ramos Martín 2009: 228)

According to Visser (2002: 32) in 2 out of 3 firms with 10 or more employees part-time jobs exist.

During time, part-time and full-time workers' differential treatment was abolished by the Dutch government whose actions were based on the principle of equal treatment. Now, the same standard is applied to part-time and full-time workers' wages, labour contracts, working conditions and social protection entitlements. A high satisfaction with their contracts results therefore out of this equalization at Dutch part-time workers of both sexes according to van Oorschot (2004: 24).

Regarding their employment conditions, part-time workers usually receive pro rata entitlements in exchange for the pay of pro rata social insurance contributions. Through bipartite negotiations and/or tripartite consultations the 'standardisation' of employment conditions for part-time work was achieved. The standardisation brought about that the workers' rights and protections experienced progressively adjustments. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 644) Collective agreements cover most of the part-time employees. The description as "[...] [S]tandard jobs of intermediate length, subject to full dismissal protection" (Visser 2002: 33) applies to 81 per cent which is most of the part time jobs in comparison to 91 per cent of full-time jobs. (Visser 2002: 33)

Dutch part-timers usually work 17 hours per week on average which is short. A high share, that is nearly three quarters, of these short-working part-timers get a personal income which lies in the lowest quartile of the income distribution. However, according to Cousins/Tang (2004: 539) the interpretation of this fact is difficult "[...] as the principle of equal treatment in the Netherlands means that part-timers receive an hourly pay rate pro-rata with full-timers and the pay penalty associated with part-time work is smaller in the Netherlands than elsewhere." (Cousins/Tang 2004: 539) Regarding the decision about working hours, four out of five part-timers are free to determine their working hours themselves within the range of time autonomy granted to them. Alternatively working hours are set in negotiations between part-timers and their employer. The conditions of 'negotiated flexibility' are reflected in this high degree of control over work hours. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 540)

In 2005, compared to 33.3 per cent and 34.1 per cent of the mothers in part-time with working hours between 1 - 19 hours respectively 20 - 34 hours per week only 11.5 per cent of the mothers worked full-time with 35 hours or more per week. Usually, mothers who worked full-time had 'normal' working hours of around 40 hours per week. Only 1.9 per cent the mothers had long working hours of 46 hours or more per week. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 26, 27)

Employment protection is present in the Netherlands. Only 6 per cent of Dutch part-time workers have no employment contract. The share between part-timers and full-timers with no contract is little, too. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 540, 541) Regarding job tenure, one eighth of Dutch part-timers have been employed in a job for less than one year. Comparing job tenure between part-timers and full-timers there is little difference. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 541)

The duration of weekly working hours in flexible part-time jobs is with an extent between 0 and 11 hours mostly very short. Catering, cleaning and trade are sectors in which these jobs are located. Compared to the 49 per cent of full-time employees, 52 per cent of part-timers in these sectors have irregular working hours or evening, night or weekends shifts. However, the majority of these workers have a written contract which determines the amount of working hours and the working times. In 1995, male part-time employees received median hourly earnings which stood at 69.8 per cent of male full-timers earnings. Respectively, female part-time employees received median hourly earnings which stood at 93.1 per cent of female full-timers earnings. According to Visser (2002: 33) the numbers show that male part-time workers in particular are given a lower priority and that flexible part-time work is concentrated in low-pay service sectors. (Visser 2002: 33)

Regarding job satisfaction, preference for part-time work could be found at most part-time employees. The percentage of those who wanted to work full-time was only 5.5 per cent in 1997. (Visser 2002: 36) In 1998, 7.7 per cent of the men and 4.2 per cent of the women in part-time employment could not find a full-time job and therefore worked part-time. (Sels/Van Hootegem 2001: 332) With 68.6 per cent of women and 17.9 per cent of men working on a part-time basis in 1999, part-time work is popular compared to the EU-15 average of 33.5 per cent of the women and 6.1 per cent of the men. (Plantenga 2002: 60, 61)

Dutch women show a positive attitude towards part-time work in the categories of contractual status, job tenure, perceived career chances, job satisfaction and social security. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 644; Visser 2002: 31) Part-time working women in the Netherlands are generally satisfied with the current hours they work. This indicates that their working time preference matches with their actual working hours. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 538) In 2005, 35.3 per cent of the mothers in part-time work wanted no change in their working hours. 10.2 per cent of the mothers in full-time work wanted no change in their working hours. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 31)

The choice for part-time work of Dutch workers is voluntary. Regarding the reasons for working part-time, being enrolled in education or training is the main reason for both male and female part-time workers between 16 and 24 years. Among Dutch females between 25 and 44 years caring for children is the main reason for more than 70 per cent. However, less than 30 per cent of the males in this age group name childcare as the main reason. (Blázquez Cuesta/Ramos Martín 2009: 244) In 2000, regarding the reasons for working part-time only 6.7 per cent of the male and 3.5 per cent of the female part-time workers did undesired part-time work as they could not find a full-time job. (Plantenga 2002: 61)

As it is a good way to combine paid work and motherhood many working mothers exhibit a preference for part-time work. The normalization of part-time work is the result of this trend. (Blázquez Cuesta/Ramos Martín 2009: 227)

However, the high degree of voluntariness does not mean that the choice for part-time work is always free. (Visser 2002: 36) One of the reasons for the low percentage of only slightly more than 10 per cent of the Dutch part-timers who wanted to have a full-time job in 1998 was perhaps the poor childcare services. (Becker 2000: 232)

Regarding the criticism about Dutch part-time critics complain about the part-time jobs' lower quality. Critical points in their perspective are: career opportunities are fewer, working hours are more-irregular, work is dirty and monotonous and pay and status are low. Further, they put forward the new separation between insiders and outsiders of the labour market caused by part-time work. Men with high quality jobs working in full-time are the insiders and women with low-quality work working in part-time are the outsiders. According to von Oorschot (2004: 24) this criticism is not true for all forms of part-time work. It can definitely be used on flex-jobs which are done by people with low skill and education. However in general, Dutch part-time work can neither be called atypical nor marginalised work. (van Oorschot 2004: 24)

However, part-time work has negative impacts, too. In the low paying service sectors and in construction, there seems to be a tendency for the concentration of part-time jobs. The participation of part-time employees in job-related training seems to be lower than that of full-timers. The chances for part-timers to stay in a job for a long term are fewer and therefore the creation of long-term career paths is difficult. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 644) "However, the most important 'driver' of part-time work is probably the lack of suitable family support." according to Rasmussen et al. (2004: 644- 645). The availability of provisions and services to support young

families is underdeveloped. (Rasmussen et al. 2004: 645) The provision of child care is insufficient and the same concerns measures for parental leave. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 533)

In 1995, the user rate for parental leave by women and men is with a percentage of about 0 per cent for both sexes low. However of those who used it, women had a 40 per cent take-up rate for parental leave. The advantage of the option for parental leave was taken by only 9 per cent of the Dutch fathers. According to Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 203) the relatively short duration of parental leave in the Netherlands was the main reason for that. Only six months of parental leave was the duration that parents were entitled to since 1997. A second reason was that under the 'old' arrangement parents had to meet two requirements: "they must be employed for at least 20 hours per week and they must have been employed for at least one year without interruptions with the same employer." (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 203) No entitlement to parental leave when a child was born had therefore 75 per cent of all women and nearly 30 per cent of all men as a result of these restrictions. (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 203-204)

In 1996, the average duration of parental leave was 39 days for both fathers and mothers. The option to parental leave was only used by few Dutch fathers. However, the duration of leave did not differ significantly from that of women in the case that the fathers decided to take parental leave. So in the Netherlands, motivated fathers build a relatively small group. (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 204, 205) At the end of their leave with approximately 15 per cent a relatively low number of the female leave-takers stop working. "However, more than half of the leavetakers reduce the number of hours worked." (Bruning/Plantenga 1999: 207)

As parental leave is unpaid according to the Work and Care Act of 2001, the state compensated this gap by offering a paid leave to its employees at a 75 per cent basis. In 2005, 19 per cent of fathers took parental leave which is a high percentage compared to other countries. (Lewis et al. 2008b: 273) The duration of parental leave is with 11 weeks very low as in the private sector parental leave is largely unpaid. (Lewis et al. 2008b: 273)

Especially mothers are conditioned in their choice for part-time jobs by the scarcity of childcare service provision. In 1996, places in nurseries or day schools with long opening hours were rare as only 8 per cent of children under the age of 3 had one. (Visser 2002: 36-37) By the absence of services many mothers were forced to take a short-hours part-time job according to Rasmussen et al. (2004: 645). However, in the

determination of their working hours a high degree of autonomy is granted to many women. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 542) In 2005, 32.5 per cent of the Dutch parents said that their youngest child in the age group between 0 and 6 years is in formal childcare. 22.3 per cent of the parents said that one parent cares for the child at home compared to 8.1 per cent of the Danish parents. (Lewis et al. 2008a: 32) So, the traditional preference for childcare within the family experiences a strong continuation according to Cousins/Tang (2004: 542).

Public support for care work is lacking. Therefore in order to combine work and family parents have to find their own individualized solution. (Cousins/Tang 2004: 541-542) Regarding childcare services, for children younger than 3 years the public provision was very little. From 1990 to 2002, there was a decrease in public financial support for childcare from 53 per cent to 14 per cent. Employers picked up the loss. In 1990 they paid 11 per cent of the childcare costs and by 2005 it was already 72 per cent. (Lewis et al. 2008b: 273)

5.2.2. Flex work and social security

Flexible labour contracts are defined in Dutch census data “[...] as contracts restricted in time – that is less than one year – and/or as contracts without a fixed number of working hours.” (Remery et al. 2002: 479)

The category of flexible workers includes besides employees with short-term contracts or on-call contracts also substitute workers as well as temporary workers. (Remery et al. 2002: 479) In 1996, of the estimated 6,745,000 workers in the Dutch labour force almost 10.4 per cent were flexible workers. On call basis worked 50 per cent of these flexible workers. (Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren 1999: 277) In 1998, of all workers 10.3 per cent were flexible workers. Since this time the percentage has remained stable. (Remery et al. 2002: 479-480)

Regarding the employment conditions most of these around 10 per cent flex-workers would prefer to have a normal job. Compared to persons with a normal contract the payment of flex-workers is lower and their risk to get unemployed is higher. Among persons with flex jobs marginal workers are mostly found. It is persons whose labour market positions are traditionally unfavourable which work as flex-workers. To this group belong women, ethnic minorities and persons which are less educated. (van Oorschot 2004: 24) This also showed the percentage of 14.5 per cent female and 7.5 per cent male flexible workers in 1998. (Remery et al. 2002: 480) The position of flex-workers is well aware to the Dutch government which is concerned of it.

Important policy goals regarded by the government are therefore the stimulation of both flexibility of labour and social protection of flex-workers. However, these ‘flexicurity’ goals have been implemented quite differently laying more stress on the first one (flexibility) than on the second (protection). When it comes to taking practical measures so that the social security protection of flex-workers, who become ill or unemployed, gets an improvement the Dutch government has been very reserved. (van Oorschot 2004: 24)

The government has not improved flex-workers’ social rights. Instead of that, the government adjusted labour law and in this way tried a partial realisation of its flexicurity goals. The adjustment of labour law mainly took place through the Flexibility and Security Act of 1999. (van Oorschot 2004: 24)

During time, an improvement of stand-by workers’ situation and that of workers with a fixed-term contract took place. However, according to van Oorschot (2004: 24) there is no evidence that only the introduction of the ‘Flexibility and Security Act’ contributed to this improvement. Furthermore, the expectation to the ‘Flexibility and Security Act’ was that because of its rules the stand-by workers’ position improves regarding the conditions of a labour contract and the minimum salary per call. However at the moment, there are still no results if a real improvement has occurred. (van Oorschot 2004: 24)

5.2.3. Temporary work and social security

According to the OECD “temporary employments is generally defined as dependent employment of limited duration.” (de Jong et al. 2007: 495) There are different types of temporary employment such as fixed-term employment, temporary agency work or seasonal employment. (de Jong et al. 2007: 495)

In 1996, of the estimated 6,745,000 workers in the Dutch labour force flexible workers amounted to approximately 10.4 per cent. Of all flexible workers the number of employees with a temporary contract was estimated to nearly 27 per cent. Temporary employment agency workers counted around 23 per cent of the flexible workers. (Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren 1999: 277) In 1998, temporary employment in the Netherlands made up 13.3 per cent. (Sels/Van Hootegem 2001: 331) In the Netherlands from 2000 till 2005 the numbers of temporary workers increased. Was it 16 per cent in 2000, temporary workers by 2005 made up 18 per cent of all workers. (de Jong et al. 2007: 495)

Regarding the employment conditions, Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren (1999: 281-282) mention a representative study in 1998 in which 1030 flexi-workers were questioned about the reasons for their job choice. The job choice of most flexible workers was free. Of the only 21.9 per cent which felt forced to this job choice this applied more often to temporary workers. A crucial contribution to the total household income was the wage earned by flex-work for temporary employees and agency temporary workers. This was less of a problem for on-call workers. Women (re-)entering the workforce built a large share of the flex-workers' group. Part-time work on an on-call basis was a solution to these women as they often had household obligations and in this way could combine care duties and work. As they could not find another job, temporary employees and agency temporary workers more often took this kind of job. (Klein Hesselink/van Vuuren 1999: 281-282)

In the Netherlands in 2005, regarding employment conditions and benefits, there were still differences between temporary and permanent work. Usually, the wages of temporary workers were lower than those of permanent workers. Further, a lot of temporary workers were not eligible to health insurance and other peripheral benefits. This was predominantly probable for the group of temporary agency workers. To temporary workers fewer prospects to personal and professional development such as additional education and training were offered. These workers had therefore limited access to these opportunities. (de Jong 2007: 496)

Regarding employment relations, temporary workers were in a weak position. Temporary workers' mobility and employability was affected by the unequal opportunities mentioned above. On the whole, internal and external career opportunities of temporary workers were fewer than those of permanent workers. In the case of an organization downsize the group of temporary workers was the first one which was affected by dismissals. Further, added to their weak position was that in the case of illness or unemployment temporary workers' chances to be recipients of public benefits were fewer as well as in the case of an application for a credit to get one. (de Jong 2007: 496)

6. Conclusion

The intention of the thesis was to examine what components of the theoretical concept of Danish and Dutch 'flexicurity' are visible in the practical realization.

First, part-time employment in Denmark and the Netherlands was examined. A central subject that came into view was women in this employment form. Regarding the numbers of persons in part-time employment in order to show the importance of this employment form, for Denmark the decreasing numbers of women in part-time employment and increasing numbers in full-time employment during time were remarkable. In the Netherlands, the strongly increasing numbers of people especially women in part-time employment confirmed that the implementation of part-time employment was achieved.

Regarding the satisfaction of women in employment, most of the Danish women were satisfied with their working times and did not want a change. However, Dutch women also spoke about their satisfaction with working conditions and social security in the job. This confirmed that the aim of creating social security for part-time employment was achieved, too. That social security was not mentioned by Danish women can be contributed to generous social security system in general. Further, both Danish and Dutch women prefer working in their employment form. However, the reasons for this preference are different and can be found in the provision of parental leave and day care.

Regarding parental leave and day care for children, in Denmark parental leave is paid generously and has a long duration. In addition, both parents are guaranteed to be re-integrated into the labour market. Therefore in Denmark the numbers of parents taking parental leave is high. In contrast, in the Netherlands parental leave is unpaid and of short duration which is why the number parents in parental leave are low. Though only few mothers stop working after the parental leave period many of them reduce their working hours. The reason for this is the scarce availability of day care for children. By this many mothers are forced to start part-time working. In contrast, in Denmark the quality and the coverage rate of day care for all age groups are good. This is why mothers can afford to work full-time while it is cared for their children.

Second, the active labour market programmes for the employed and the unemployed in Denmark were examined starting with continuing and vocational training for the employed.

Regarding continuing training and the risk of becoming unemployed only weak results were presented by only mentioning that for general education strong effects were proved but not confirming this by numbers.

Regarding continuing training and the probability of getting into higher level employment, the participation in it increased this probability. Though, in general previous education did not play an important role it was more likely for persons with a higher previous education to get into higher level employment. So it can be concluded that continuing training had a positive effect on getting into a higher employment position.

Regarding vocational training and the probability of being in low-skilled employment as well as the probability of getting into higher level employment, the previous education as well as the participation in vocational training played a significant role. It can be concluded that the higher the previous education of a person in vocational training the less likely it was for the person to be in low-skilled employment. However, the higher the previous education of a person in vocational training the more probable it was for the person to get into higher level employment. The probability of workers with a lower previous education to be in low-skilled employment decreases by the participation in vocational training. However, the probability of workers with a lower education to get into higher level employment increases by the participation in vocational training.

The general conclusion for continuing and vocational training is therefore that by the participation in these training forms the workers get into a better employment position.

Regarding the active labour market programmes for the unemployed, the importance of education which was the most common type of activation decreased while public job training increased in importance. Reasons for the decreasing importance of education were the not measurable effects of education and because of the non-harmonization of the educational offers to the labour market demands, the occurring of a mismatch between the acquired new skills of the unemployed and the labour market demands.

Regarding training leave within the surroundings of the job rotation scheme, the numbers of the unemployed in this training form increased. Despite the phasing-out of educational leave schemes the support of education and training for the unemployed was continued. However, numbers of how many of the unemployed were integrated into the labour market were not available.

Regarding the three main effects activation causes, the motivation or threat effect of an activation programme was confirmed by the study and the experiment about two groups of which one faced activation and the other not. The threat effect was caused by the risk to be activated and made the unemployed search more actively for a job before the activation started in order to avoid the programme.

The lock-in effect of an activation programme too was confirmed by the study mentioned above as the persons remaining in the activation programme showed fallen search intensity for work.

The qualification effect too was difficult to measure. As an alternative the changing numbers in the dependence on social security was taken. Private job training had here the largest employment effect by reducing the dependence on social security by 2 months per year. However, only few people participate in this form of training.

Regarding the long-term effect of active labour market programmes the investigation of the Danish Economic Council mentioned by Andersen/Svarer showed that private job training had a positive effect but this was not confirmed by numbers.

So it can be concluded that active labour market programmes show certain effects but that these programmes help the unemployed back to work could not be confirmed as no numbers were available.

Third, flex-work and temporary work in the Netherlands were examined and other than for part-time work were the numbers of employees increased, for flex-work this was not the case. However, in temporary work the number of persons increased. Regarding employment conditions, flex-workers and temporary workers are in a weak position. Social security is not present as well as in the case of illness or unemployment these workers have no eligibility to insurance or benefits. So it can be concluded that for flex workers and temporary workers the situation did not improve in the Netherlands.

In general, in Denmark the labour market is flexible as women have the free choice between part-time and full-time employment because of well established childcare. Active labour market programmes for both the employed and the unemployed exist and show certain effects but participation numbers are missing. In the Netherlands in contrast to flex work and temporary work, part-time employment and social security for part-timers are well established. However part-time employment is mainly used as an employment possibility for mothers as the availability of childcare is scarce.

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