Labour market measures in the Netherlands 2008-13: The crisis and beyond

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Introduction[1]

How has the financial crisis affected employment in the Netherlands? What types of policy measures did the government implement to attenuate the impact of the crisis on the labour market during the period 2008-13? How were the social partners involved in developing solutions to overcome the difficulties faced by the labour market? This report provides answers to these complex questions by looking at the wide array of labour market policy measures put in place in response to the financial and economic crisis in the Netherlands.

In comparison with other EU member states, the Netherlands seems to have weathered the crisis rather well; in 2013 the employment rate, at 74 per cent, was one of the highest in the EU, while the unemployment rate, at 6.9 per cent of the labour force, was considerably lower than the EU average of 10.7 per cent[2]. Section 1 of this report looks at how short-time work and labour laws regulating the employment relationship might have contributed to these positive outcomes. Section 2 analyses the income support available to jobseekers during the period 2008-13, and the conditionalities associated with this support. Section 3 provides an overview of wage trends, collective bargaining on wages, and minimum wage policy. Section 5 elaborates on the role of active labour market policies in supporting job search and improving job matching. Section 6 concludes the report.

1. Netherlands: Kea Tijdens, Maarten van Klaveren, Paul de Beer and Wiemer Salverda are researchers at the Amsterdam Institute for Advanced labour Studies, University of Amsterdam, Netherlands.

2. Source: Eurostat. The unemployment rate refers to November 2013.

Contractual arrangements and Employment Protection Legislation (EPL)

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1.1 Introduction

How has the financial crisis affected employment? This report provides an inventory of the policy responses to the financial and economic crisis in the Netherlands. It contains four sections, concerning employment and employment policies, unemployment and unemployment benefits, wages and wage policies, and finally active labour market policies.

The focus of section 1 is on changes in the employment and employment policies in the Netherlands, particularly on the policies concerning **short-time working (STW)** schemes in 2008–10. In the period 2008–13 the labour force grew from 8.7 to almost 9.0 million persons, or by 2.8 per cent. In this period, unemployment more than doubled, whereas the employed labour force declined by 1.1 per cent and the number of people not included in the labour force grew by 4.2 per cent (section 1.3). Since 2008, the Act on Work and Security (*Wet Werk en Zekerheid*) (14 June 2014) has been the most prominent piece of legislation, covering a number of changes in by-laws laid down in 2008–13. The Act includes a radical reform of employment protection legislation. Its main goal is to narrow the gap between the employment protection of open-ended and fixed-term contracts (section 1.4). During the crisis years, employers increasingly used various methods to evade the statutory minimum wage, such as paying expense allowances instead of wages and the use of international bogus business set-ups. Section 1.5 details the governmental policies implemented to fight this misuse. If precariousness is defined as including both employees with non-permanent contracts and the self-employed, as is often the case, then precariousness as a proportion of the total Dutch labour force grew considerably, from 33 per cent in 2008 to 37.4 per cent in 2013 (section 1.6). Between 2008 and 2013, unemployment in the Netherlands more than doubled, to 335,000 registered unemployed and 656,000 unemployed. A breakdown by gender shows that the increase in both groups was much larger for men than for women (section 1.7). In terms of duration of unemployment, the group with an unemployment duration of 12–24 months increased most rapidly, followed by the group with a duration of 6–12 months, whereas the group with a duration of more than 24 months grew at the lowest rate (section 1.8). The flipside of the coin is shown by the number of vacancies. By 2013 the number of new vacancies had almost halved compared with 2008, and not surprisingly, the number of unfilled vacancies declined even more (section 1.9).

1.2 Main debates

In 2008–10, public debates involving the social partners concentrated on how to tackle the consequences of the financial crisis, in particular in terms of unemployment. Following pressure from the social partners, the government established, first, a temporary Special Regulation (December 2008 – March 2009) and from April 2009 on, a more general Ministerial Order for Part-time Unemployment Benefit for Retained Skilled Employees (in the Netherlands mostly called *Deeltijd-WW* or *Part-Time UB*; internationally known as short-time working (STW) schemes). The Order accepted company applications until April 2010 and ended in December 2010, although benefits were still paid until July 2011. The Special Regulation was used by 850 firms and covered 40,000 full-time employees (FTEs); the Ministerial Order covered 7,800 firms and in total 76,000 employed, though over time FTE coverage may have been similar to that under the Special Regulation. The macroeconomic effects of both STW arrangements have been limited, although they have had considerable effects on older male workers, mainly in manufacturing. Until August 2009, up to 40 per cent of additional unemployment of males aged 45 and over may have been prevented, and up to 25 per cent for younger men. By contrast, for women of all ages the effect may have been at best around 10 per cent. Total government spending on both regulations may have been about €1.4 billion.

Both STW arrangements have been subject to heated debates, involving social partners and the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment, and at times also the Second Chamber of Parliament. Repeatedly, and under pressure from both trade unions and employer associations, the Minister announced extensions of earlier deadlines for applications, e.g. in February, June and December 2009; in order to make these announcements, additional government funding had to be found. In March 2009 the social partners agreed upon a (Spring) Social Accord in the STAR (*Stichting van de Arbeid,* Labour Foundation), which put further pressure on the government to pursue "temporary measures aiming at continuation of firms' liquidity, innovative power and efforts towards sustainability" (Den Haag: Akkoord Stichting van de Arbeid 25 March 2009, p. 1). Indeed, the main statement in the Spring Accord, which replaced the optimistic Autumn Accord of 2008, was that the current situation made it imperative to prioritize employment security and training over improvement of incomes, though maintaining purchasing power for median incomes would remain possible. The new Accord thus fitted in with the Dutch wage moderation tradition. The maximum wage increase was set at 1 per cent, whereas for 2010, zero increases were envisaged; this instead of the 3.5 per cent yearly wage increase that earlier was labelled "responsible" in the Autumn 2008 Accord (see also sections 3.2 and 3.3).

The emphasis concerning the labour market was on continuous training. The March 2009 Accord stipulated that weak groups in the labour market, including flexible workers, should be better protected. The same day, most of the contents of this Accord were included in a draft tripartite agreement that included the government, though that mainly focused on the issue of increasing the statutory retirement age to 67. Through a paper-based referendum, a large majority (94 per cent) of the voters among the constituency of the *Federatie Nederlandse Vakbeweging* (FNV) union confederation agreed with this Accord. Yet, interpretations of what the Accord exactly meant concerning the retirement age turned out to differ widely. In August 2009, the *Christelijk Nationaal Vakverbond* (CNV) union confederation changed its earlier position and announced that under certain conditions an increase to the age of 67 would be acceptable, whereas the largest confederation, FNV, maintained that there were no good reasons for retiring at 67.

After closing the March 2009 Accord, debates continued on the modalities of the STW scheme as well. For instance, in May 2009 the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment suggested that the scheme was not meant to agree upon additional wage payments up to 100 per cent of the former wage. This provoked a strong reaction from the FNV union confederation, pointing out that, during the negotiations on the new scheme, government and social partners had agreed that specific arrangements at company level would be subject to decentralized negotiations. The Minister reacted by announcing a reformulation of the settlement in the direction indicated by the union confederation. According to the collective bargaining coordinator of the largest private sector union, FNV Bondgenoten, in 87 per cent of all company agreements in which her union participated, additional payments up to 100 per cent of the former wage were laid down. In November 2011, when unemployment in the Netherlands rose more steeply than generally expected, the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment resisted pressure from notably the trade union side to reintroduce the STW scheme. A spokeswoman for the minister suggested that other schemes might be more appropriate.

Based on data from a continuous employee web survey in the Netherlands and Germany in 2009 and 2010, the trade-off between wage and workforce adjustments and the role of industrial relations in firm-level responses to the economic crisis has been investigated (Tijdens et al., 2014). Workforce adjustments seemed to be a continuous organizational strategy, but wage adjustments were less often reported. The data allowed a distinction to be made between workers working for organizations that were hit by the crisis and organizations that were not. In Germany, wage adjustments were reported almost twice as often by employees in crisis-hit organizations compared with those in organizations not hit by the crisis (means of 0.40, standard deviation of 0.49 against 0.21, standard deviation of 0.41, respectively; $p < 0.001$), while workforce adjustments were reported one-and-a-half times more often (means of 0.84, standard deviation of 0.37 against 0.57, standard deviation of 0.50, respectively; $p < 0.001$). In the Netherlands a similar pattern was evident. Wage adjustments were reported twice as often by employees working in crisis-hit organizations (means of 0.23, standard deviation of 0.42 against 0.12, standard deviation of 0.32, respectively; $p < 0.001$), and workforce adjustments almost twice as often compared with those in organizations not hit by the crisis (means of 0.81, standard deviation of 0.39 against 0.45, standard deviation of 0.50, respectively; $p < 0.001$). The authors found no large-scale evidence of wage concessions being traded-off for job protection in the two countries. Collective bargaining ensured that wage setting was more robust than employment protection: employees covered by collective agreements reported workforce adjustments more often than wage adjustments. Less-skilled and low-wage employees reported basic wage reductions more often:

the economic crisis increased wage inequality. Labour hoarding was reported predominantly by young, male employees with a permanent, full-time contract.

In the course of 2010, the main point of socio-economic debates shifted to the issue of increasing the **statutory retirement age**. In May 2010, the main employers' federations and union confederations reached a basic national agreement on this issue, which, as indicated above, was a major area of disagreement between employers, unions and government in 2009. The new Accord provided for the lifting of the current age for state and company pensions from 65 to 66 years by 2020. Depending on the general life expectancy, the pension age would be revised again every five years. Again, the FNV confederation organized a referendum on this outcome. This was the prelude to complex debates within the FNV, that initially seemed to end in early June 2011, when the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment, employers' associations and union confederations presented a basic pension Accord that will see the pension age increased from 65 to 66 in 2020 and then to 67 in 2025, and also includes a new calculation basis for employers' and employees' contributions. FNV union confederation president Agnes Jongerius defended the Accord and announced that it would be subject to a vote by the affiliates' membership. In the course of the month, the assumptions on which the Accord were based came under heavy criticism from various sides, also from within the union movement. This eventually led to the retreat of the FNV president and fuelled an internal crisis in the FNV, followed by an effort to "redesign" the confederation (see section 2.7 for developments concerning the retirement age after June 2011).

In 2011, **labour market flexibility** became a major issue for the union movement. In their 2011 New Year speeches, the leaders of the trade union confederations FNV and CNV both announced that their focus would be on the widespread abuse of flexible and short-term contracts. They pleaded for better rights for workers on flexible contracts, including better access to social security benefits. CNV president Jaap Smit said that he agreed that working patterns are changing and labour market reforms are needed, but he also said that the question must be asked as to how healthy limits can be put on these developments. In 2012 and 2013, the debate on the disadvantages of the widespread labour market flexibilization (data in section 1.3.2) for the working population intensified. Also, it was linked with the debate on the strengths and weaknesses of the Dutch economy. The government initiated some "repair" legislations so as to cover legal loopholes, such as the one enacted in December 2012 covering loopholes in the minimum age legislation, bringing all flexible workers under that legislation, in particular those under assignment agreements ("ovo"), which are fairly common in the construction sector as well as for post deliverers.

On 11 April 2013, on this issue the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment sent a letter to the Second Chamber of Parliament announcing the Act on Work and Security (*Wet Werk en Zekerheid*). Its main goal would be to contribute to a new, modernized balance between flexibility and security in the labour market; work security would increasingly replace job security. In his letter, the Minister noted that employers used more and more creative methods to evade the statutory minimum wage, such as paying expense allowances instead of wages and the use of international bogus business set-ups such as letterbox companies or temp agencies, registered notably in Cyprus, employing truck-drivers and other workers in the Netherlands but avoiding payment of social fees. In this respect, the law would provide temporary and freelance workers with greater protection, ensure equal treatment, and would try to tackle bogus employment arrangements more effectively. In doing so, the Law would offer a legal form to the Government Accord of 29 October 2012 of the government parties PvdA (Labour Party) and VVD (Liberal Party), the Social Accord of 11 April 2013 between government and social partners, and the Budgetary Arrangement of the administration as of October 2013. After extensive parliamentary debate, in June 2014 the Act passed the First Chamber of Parliament with a large majority. The FNV confederation called it "an important step in ending the excesses and false structures in the labour market"[3].

In between, debates on working arrangements such as zero-hours contracts had continued. Zero-hours contracts are on-call contracts, whereby the employer prioritizes these workers over any other workers when work is available. Workers on zero-hours contracts have the right to refuse the request of the employer without losing their status. In particular, zero-hours contracts were debated in the care sector. In the April 2013 Social Accord, social partners had laid down the intention to provide zero-hours-contract workers with minimal income security. The Accord also stipulated that, in the care sector, zero-hours contracts would be forbidden from 1 January 2015. Employers in the care sector said that major recruitment and scheduling problems should be expected under such an arrangement.

3. (http://www.fnv.nl/over-fnv/nieuws/nieuwsarchief/2014/juni/1042375-fnv-reactie-op-wet-werk-en-zekerheid/)

In the course of 2011 and related to governmental austerity measures, issues concerning maintaining **purchasing power** and **wage demands** came to the fore. In August 2011, the FNV union confederation wrote a letter to Prime Minister Rutte, arguing that the effects of the budget cuts that had been announced by the government were highly unfair and would heavily hit the low- and middle-income groups. The confederation pointed to the cumulative negative effects of a number of measures, for instance, rises in the costs of child care and house rental. The FNV bargaining coordinator characterized the spending cuts of the government as too large, and stressed the importance of maintaining purchasing power for the recovery of the Dutch economy. In February 2012, the chairpersons of the three union confederations unanimously rejected the idea of nominal zero wage increases. A few days earlier, president Wientjes of the main employers' association VNO-NCW had held a plea for a "national zero line". In contrast, in September 2013 the FNV union confederation announced that it would seek a 3 per cent wage increase across the board in the 2013–14 collective agreement negotiations. The CNV confederation followed suit, stating that it would aim for wage increases between 1.5 and 3.5 per cent depending on the sector. In December 2013, the employers' organization AWVN said that profitable companies should no longer hold on to a pay freeze, though it did not agree with the earlier wage demands of the trade unions.

Recently, (debates on) **efforts to contain rising unemployment** have again become more prominent in the Netherlands. For instance, in August 2013 the Ministry of Social Affairs and Employment announced that €600 million would be set aside for projects tackling unemployment if the social partners were prepared to contribute an equal amount to the programme. Trade unions and employers' associations were asked to submit realistic strategies to combat unemployment, targeted towards the worst-hit groups of employees, regions and sectors, with young people, older workers and the disabled as target groups. Basically, these sectoral plans were already agreed upon in the Social Accord of April 2013.

1.3 Data and analysis

1.3.1 Employment and unemployment in the Netherlands

To provide national data and analysis on employment and unemployment trends in the Netherlands, data from Statistics Netherlands have been used, available through its download tool StatLine. In all sections data for the period 2008–13 have been provided, however in a few cases, data for 2013 were not yet available at the time of writing. In all sections, as much as possible, data have been broken down by gender, age and education. A breakdown by occupation is unfortunately frequently not available. In this section employment and unemployment, temporary jobs (fixed-term and interim jobs) and working hours will be discussed. No data is available on job turnover. Note that Statistics Netherlands has two definitions of employment, a national one, which has been in use for decades, and an international one according to the ILO standards and the requirements of Eurostat. The national definition of employment does not include people with jobs of less than 12 hours per week, whereas the international definition includes everyone with a job from 1 hour per week. In this report the international definition is used as much as possible, however, Statistics Netherlands provides much more detail for data based on the national definition. If no data was available according to the international definition, data according to the national definition was used.

Between 2008 and 2013 the total (employed plus unemployed) labour force increased from 8.7 to almost 9.0 million persons, a growth of 2.8 per cent (table 1.1). The employed labour force decreased, however, from 8.5 to almost 8.4 million persons (–1.1 per cent). This

Table 1.1 Trends 2008-13: Employment and unemployment (thousand persons)

Labour force (international definition)	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total	8722	8786	8761	8757	8893	8965	243	2.8
Employed	8454	8460	8371	8369	8424	8365	–89	–1.1
Unemployed	267	327	390	389	469	600	333	124.7
People not included in the labour force	4594	4607	4696	4764	4739	4788	194	4.2

See Appendix for breakdown of this table by gender, age and education.
Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 20-8-2014.

growth in the total labour force is primarily dominated by a substantial growth in unemployment in the years covered, notably from 267,000 to 600,000. The number of people not included in the labour force grew also in this period, but to a much smaller degree (4.2 per cent).

A breakdown by gender reveals that the decline of the employed labour force is predominantly due to a decrease in the numbers of employed men by –3.4 per cent, whereas those of employed women increased (1.8 per cent). Unemployment among men tripled in this period, whereas unemployment among women did not even double. In addition, the number of men not included in the labour force increased substantially (9.9 per cent), whereas that of women hardly increased (0.6 per cent). In sum, between 2008 and 2013 the employed labour force became more feminized, whereas the unemployed labour force and those not included became more male dominated.

A breakdown by age shows that the age composition changed over this five-year period. In all age groups up to 45, the employed labour force decreased, whereas in all age groups from 45 on an increase can be noticed, which was particularly substantial for the employed aged 55–65 with an increase from 1.1 to 1.3 million (19.8 per cent). The unemployed labour force increased substantially in all age groups in about equal amounts: by 49,000 in age group 55–65 to 79,000 in age group 25–35, and all other age groups in between. In sum, while unemployment used to be a youth phenomenon in 2008, this was no longer the case in 2013.

Whereas in 2008 the Dutch GDP per capita still showed some growth, in 2009 its decrease was substantial (table 1.2). Next, after two years of some growth, in 2012 and 2013 the Dutch economy entered into the notorious “double dip” with again decreasing GDP per capita rates. Average real wages fell somewhat less, with in 2012 and 2013 a stronger decrease in actual wages over collectively agreed wages. In tune with the fall of GDP per capita, private consumption fell, though more gradually. After an initial strong decrease in 2009, both goods imports and exports recovered strongly, exports even more than imports, though in 2013 both growth rates flattened. Finally, the unemployment rate, remaining at a relatively low level until 2012, suddenly rose in 2012–13.

Table 1.2 Key economic figures, the Netherlands, 2008–13

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
Year-to-year increase						
GDP per capita	1.4	–4.2	1.0	0.5	–1.6	–1.1
Real increase coll. agreed wage	0.5	1.3	–0.2	–1.2	–1.2	–1.5
Real actual wage increase	0.2	1.4	–0.9	–0.2	–1.8	–2.5
Consumer Price Index (CPI)	2.5	1.2	1.3	2.3	2.5	2.5
Labour productivity	0.3	–3.0	2.0	0.3	–1.1	0.4
Private consumption	1.0	–2.2	0.8	–0.8	–1.6	–1.5
Imports	3.9	–11.3	11.3	4.0	4.1	1.0
Exports	1.8	–8.8	12.9	4.6	2.8	1.0
2008 = 100						
GDP per capita	100.0	95.8	96.8	97.3	95.7	94.6
Real increase coll. agreed wage	100.0	101.3	101.1	99.9	98.7	97.2
Real actual wage increase	100.0	101.4	100.5	100.3	98.5	96.0
Consumer Price Index (CPI)	100.0	101.2	102.5	104.8	107.4	110.0
Labour productivity	100.0	97.0	99.0	99.3	98.2	98.6
Private consumption	100.0	97.8	98.6	97.9	96.2	94.8
Imports	100.0	88.7	100.0	104.0	108.2	109.3
Exports	100.0	91.2	103.0	107.7	110.7	111.8
Unemployment rate	*3.0*	*3.7*	*4.5*	*4.4*	*5.3*	*6.7*

Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands 20-8-2014.

1.3.2 Permanent and flexible jobs in the Netherlands

According to Statistics Netherlands, the percentage of those with flexible (non-permanent) employment contracts in the employed labour force increased from 24 per cent in 2001 to 33 per cent in 2008 and to 37.4 per cent in 2013. The proportion of employees with flexible contracts grew particularly in 2006–07 before remaining stable until 2012, when it rose again and reached 17 per cent in 2013. From 2001 until 2013 the percentage of the second category of flexible workers, namely the self-employed, grew continuously and reached 15 per cent in 2013; three-quarters of whom were self-employed without staff. The highly educated were to a larger extent self-employed and had less flexible contracts, while such contracts were more widespread among the less-skilled and less so among the self-employed (Driessen and Lautenbach 2012, 2014).

In this analysis covering 2008–13 the focus is on three groups, notably the employees with a flexible job, the self-employed and family workers (table 1.3). StatLine does not provide a breakdown by interim jobs. In the period 2008–13 the number of employees decreased in favour of the self-employed (–3.2 vs. +12.1 per cent). Family workers are a small minority in the Dutch labour force, and their numbers did not change substantially in the period under study.

A breakdown by gender reveals that the decrease in employees was particularly strong among male employees, and much less among female employees. The increase in self-employment, however, was particularly strong among females and less among males. Focusing on the employees, the trend shows that a strong decline of employees with a permanent contract can be noticed particularly among males (–11.8 per cent), whereas the decline was much smaller among women (–2.5 per cent). The number of employees with a flexible contract increased over the period 2008–13. For men, the increase amounted to 125,000, or 16.4 per cent, whereas the increase for women was much less, notably 74,000, or 8.7 per cent. In sum, between 2008 and 2013 the number of employees with a permanent contract decreased, particularly among men, whereas the number of employees with a flexible contract increased, again particularly among men. The number of self-employed increased substantially in this period, relatively more among women than among men.

A breakdown by age shows that the decrease in employees with a permanent contract is found in all age groups up to age 55, but has been particularly strong in the group 15–25 years of age (–31 per cent). The age group 55–65 shows an increase in numbers with a permanent contract (+23.7 per cent). Most likely, in previous years the employees in this age group had a permanent contract but left the labour force for early retirement or disability reasons, whereas now they are increasingly staying in the labour force. The increase in employees with a flexible contract is mainly due to an increase in the age groups 15–25 and 25–35 years (+15.9 per cent, respectively 18.5 per cent), whereas the age group 35–45 reveals a decline (–11.6 per cent). The two age groups 45–55 and 55–65 show an increase in employees with a flexible contract (9.2 per cent, respectively 9.7 per cent). Self-employment hardly occurs in the age group 15–25, while it occurs predominantly in the age group 35–65. Between 2008 and 2013 it increased noticeably, by 55,000 persons, in the age group 45–55 (17.0 per cent). Yet, self-employment also increased in the age group 15–25, but given much lower starting levels, the increase was not that large (18,000). In sum, flexible employment has increased among the young, whereas the increase in employment among the older age groups was due mainly to a continuation of the employment relationship of those with permanent contracts. Self-employment increased in the prime age groups.

Table 1.3 Trends 2008–13: Permanent and flexible jobs (head-count, thousands)

Employed labour force (international definition)	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total employees	7249	7237	7137	7114	7132	7018	–231	–3.2
Of which: permanent jobs	5642	5636	5533	5482	5403	5211	–431	–7.6
Of which: flexible jobs	1607	1601	1604	1632	1729	1806	199	12.4
Self-employed	1163	1180	1186	1202	1245	1304	141	12.1
Family workers	42	42	46	52	47	43	1	2.4

See Appendix for a breakdown of this table by gender, age and education.
Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 20-8-2014.

1.3.3 Working hours in the Netherlands

The analysis of working hours is based on a breakdown in three categories of the employed labour force, notably 1–19 hours per week, 20–34 hours per week and 35 or more hours per week; the latter is considered here to be a full-time job. In addition, for a very minor group in the labour force working hours are unknown; this group is not considered in this section. Slightly over half of those in the Dutch labour force have a full-time job (4.26 million in 2013), whereas 4.03 million hold a part-time job (table 1.4). Between 2008 and 2013, the number of full-time jobs has decreased substantially (–7.7 per cent), whereas part-time jobs of 20–34 hours per week have substantially increased (10 per cent). The number of jobs of 1–19 hours per week remained constant in this period. These figures imply that the share of full-time workers in the labour force at large (excluding working hours unknown) fell from 54.8 per cent in 2008 to 51.4 per cent in 2013.

A breakdown by gender reveals that, not surprisingly, women make up the large majority of those in part-time jobs, whereas men do so in full-time jobs. From 2008 on, the number of part-time jobs of 20–35 hours per week increased for both genders, though relatively more for men than for women (13.6 versus 8.8 per cent). The number of small part-time jobs has not increased, due to an increase in men and the same numerical decrease in women working in these jobs. The decrease in persons working full-time is particularly due to men (–8.8 per cent) and much less so to women (–3.5 per cent).

A breakdown by age reveals that a decrease in full-time jobs is found in all age groups up to 45 years (between –7.6 and –26.7 per cent), whereas among those aged 55–65 the number of full-time jobs increased (19.8 per cent), as did employment overall in this age group. The number of part-time jobs of 20–34 hours per week increased, particularly among the age group 55–65 (31.9 per cent). The number of part-time jobs in the youngest age group (20–34) hardly grew, but it increased in the age groups 25–35 and 45–55. In the age group 35–45, however, the number declined (–3.3 per cent). Similarly, there was a sharp decline in the number of people in this age group working in small part-time jobs (–28.0 per cent). The largest increase in jobs with such working hours was noticed among the youngest group (+5.9 per cent). In sum, those in the age group 35–45 increasingly occupied the full-time jobs, whereas those aged 55–65 did so for both full-time and large part-time jobs, whereas there was an increase in small part-time jobs for the age group 15–25.

A breakdown by levels of education reveals that a decrease in full-time working hours can be noticed in all educational categories, except persons with tertiary education, showing an increase over time (3.5 per cent). The increase in part-time jobs of 20–35 hours per week is predominantly found in the educational categories of upper secondary and tertiary education. Within the part-time 1–19 hours per week category, the table shows an increase for persons in upper secondary education and a decrease in persons with lower secondary education.

1.4 Changes in legislation

The Law on Work and Security (*Wet Werk en Zekerheid*) (14 June 2014) is the most prominent piece of legislation, covering a number of changes in by-laws laid down in 2008–13. The Law includes a radical reform of employment protection legislation. Its main goal is to narrow the gap between the employment protection of permanent (open-ended) contracts and temporary (fixed-term) contracts. A temporary contract can only be renewed twice within a period of two years before a permanent contract should be offered by the employer; this was three years under the old law. Moreover, the period between two separate temporary contracts which

Table 1.4 Trends 2008–13: Working hours (thousand persons)

Working hours per week of employed labour force (international definition)	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total	8454	8460	8372	8369	8424	8364	–90	–1.1
1–19	1610	1617	1590	1572	1598	1610	0	0.0
20–34	2198	2275	2314	2347	2404	2417	219	10.0
>35	4612	4531	4422	4392	4357	4259	–353	–7.7
Unknown	34	37	46	58	65	78	44	129.4

See Appendix for a breakdown of this table by gender, age and education.
Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 20-8-2014.

are not considered as a sequence is prolonged from three months to six months. The procedures for the termination of a permanent contract are changed considerably. Under earlier laws, the employer could decide to apply for a dismissal either at the public employment service (*Uitvoeringsorgaan Werknemersverzekeringen,* UWV) or at court. Under the new law, employers have to apply to the UWV in cases of dismissal for economic reasons or due to disability of the employee, while they can apply to court in other cases. Severance pay (called a transition allowance) will be introduced for all employees who are dismissed after being employed for at least two years. The transition allowance will amount to one-third of a monthly salary for every year that a person has been employed with a maximum of €75,000 or one yearly salary.[4]

1.5 Application of EPL legislation

In his letter of 11 April 2013, the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment gave a broad overview of abuse and improper use concerning taxation, social security and subsidies. The Minister noted that employers used increasingly more creative methods to evade among other things the statutory minimum wage, such as paying expense allowances instead of wages and the use of international bogus business set-ups. He also noted a growing share of bogus employment among the self-employed, and the growing use of rogue labour market intermediaries, such as non-certified staffing agencies. The Minister quantified neither the incidence of these practices nor the amount of employees victimized, though in the parliamentary debate he referred to Labour Inspectorate reporting. Yet there is no overall official information available on this incidence.

Most likely, abuse of employment protection and related legislation is similar to underpayment of the statutory minimum wage (SMW), as covered in section 1.6. A number of cases covered by press reports include: firms building a motorway tunnel exploiting Polish and Portuguese construction workers (November 2013); a staffing agency exploiting workers from Eastern Europe (October 2013); and a building subcontractor ordered to pay according to the collective labour agreement (CLA) (August 2012) (AIAS-ETUI Collective Bargaining Newsletter of respective months).

The SNCU (*Stichting Naleving CAO voor Uitzendkrachten*), a foundation created by the social partners to control compliance with the collective agreements for temporary agency workers, has reported a growing number of violations of these CLAs, in 2012 reaching non-payments of €7.5 million, totalling €23 million over 2009–12.

1.6 Evolution of employment relationship

If **precariousness** is defined as including both those employees with flexible (non-permanent) contracts and the self-employed, as is often the case, then precariousness as a proportion of the total Dutch labour force would have grown considerably in 2008–13, from 33 per cent in 2008 to 37.4 per cent in 2013 (section 1.2.2). There are signals that a growing part of self-employment, notably of the self-employed without staff (making up 75 per cent of all self-employed), is bogus or false self-employment. According to trade union officials, the incidence of bogus self-employment has clearly increased over the last five years in the Dutch construction industry. Yet, on the other hand, in the Netherlands not all those with flexible contracts and not all self-employed can be regarded as working under precarious conditions. This also holds for a considerable proportion of part-time workers, as part-time work in the Netherlands has been formally de-marginalized through the adoption of equal treatment legislation (Tijdens 2005). Nevertheless, there are good reasons to doubt the effectiveness of such legislation for many employed in small part-time jobs.

If the focus is on wages, precarious work may cover those at or under the minimum wage and/or those below the international low-wage yardstick (two-thirds of the national median hourly wage): see section 3.1. This may also relate to the issue of undeclared and illegal work. The incidence of undeclared work, or the size of the "shadow economy", seems relatively low in the Netherlands and was, like elsewhere in the EU, declining between 2008 and 2012 (Schneider 2012). Illegal employer practices, namely employing people at wage rates below the SMW, often combined with sub-standard working conditions, have been reported by both the Labour Inspectorate and the trade unions mainly from seven industries: (1) food processing, in particular meatpacking; (2) construction; (3) hotels, restaurants and catering; (4) agriculture, in particular horticulture; (5) transport, in particular road haulage; (6) industrial and related cleaning; and (7) domestic work (information *Inspectie SZW* (Labour Inspectorate) and trade union press messages; see also section 3.7, on the minimum wage).

4. For an overview of existing Employment Regulation Legislation, see: http://www.oecd.org/els/emp/Netherlands.pdf

In most of these industries, exploitation of migrant workers plays an important role: in transport, for instance, use of Central and Eastern European drivers has become widespread, as has violation of working hours' legislation. Notably in food processing, construction and transport, complex outsourcing arrangements in which internationally operating companies play a major role have become increasingly used. By contrast, in horticulture, where seasonal labour dominates, exploitation mostly concerns individual employer–worker initiatives and small-scale arrangements (for perceptions of precarious work in 12 EU Member States including the Netherlands, see: Working Lives Institute 2012, p. 47). Neither the Labour Inspectorate nor the trade unions have recently been able to produce overall estimates of the incidence of illegal practices combined with underpayment of the SMW. It may be noted that the greater use of flexible employment and the incidence (or suspicion) of illegal employer practices in some Dutch industries has been matched by an increase in collective bargaining activities and higher bargaining coverage, as has been the case in food processing and in cleaning (cf. Visser 2013b).

A peculiar form of precariousness can be traced in the academic world. Currently on average 40 per cent of the scientific staff of the Dutch universities have been reported to be employed on temporary contracts, with the trend showing a continuous increase. A considerable portion of the researchers at stake was reported to lack prospects for a permanent contract (*De Volkskrant*, 2 Sept. 2014).

1.7 Data on jobseekers receiving unemployment benefits

Statistics Netherlands has detailed data about unemployment (table 1.5). The unemployed labour force is defined as people without work, or with less than 12 hours of paid work per week, who are actively looking for paid work for 12 hours per week or more and who are available to start work immediately (national definition). The registered unemployed are defined as people aged 16–64 registered with the UWV with less than 12 hours of paid work per week, who are actively looking for paid work for 12 hours per week or more and who are available to start work imediately or who have accepted a job so that they will work at least 12 hours per week. The number of registered unemployed persons is currently approximately half of all unemployed persons. Note that data about the number of unemployed persons is based on the Dutch Labour Force Survey of Statistics Netherlands and that data about the registered unemployed is derived from administrative registers kept by the UWV.

In 2013 the Netherlands had on average 335,000 registered unemployed and 656,000 unemployed. Between 2008 and 2013 the numbers in both groups more than doubled. A breakdown by gender shows that the increase in both groups was much larger for men than for women. In 2008 women made up 45 per cent of the labour force, 46 per cent of the registered unemployed and 53 per cent of the unemployed. By 2013, women made up 46 per cent of the labour force, 40 per cent of the registered unemployed and 46 per cent of the unemployed. However, the proportion of women in the registered unemployed and among the unemployed remained unchanged over the period 2008–13.

A breakdown by age shows that the number of registered unemployed persons increased most for those 25–35 years of age (179.2 per cent), and much less so for the 16–25 age group (111.1 per cent) and for the 35–65 age group (108.4 per cent). In 2008, the number of registered unemployed persons was smallest in the age group 16–25 and it was still the smallest in 2013. The boundaries between the age groups differ across the registered unemployed and the unemployed (see Appendix, table A5). However, the numbers depict the same patterns. In absolute numbers, unemployment growth was larger among all age groups 25 and over compared with the youngest group. Yet, in all years the unemployment rate, thus the proportion of the unemployed in the total

Table 1.5 Trends 2008–13: Registered unemployed and unemployed labour force, age 15–65 (thousand persons)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total registered unemployed (15–65)[a]	153	201	231	213	252	335	182	119.0
Total unemployed labour force (15–65)	300	377	426	419	507	656	356	118.7

[a] Not seasonally adjusted. See Appendix for a breakdown of this table by gender, age, education.
Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 20-8-2014.

labour force, is highest for the young people up to age 25. By 2013, 15.9 per cent of the youth labour force was unemployed, though only a small share of them was a registered unemployed person. These facts point to an increase in the duration of time between leaving education and finding a job.

A breakdown by education shows that growth rates in unemployment occurred in all educational groups, but particularly among those persons with post-secondary non-tertiary education (153.5 per cent) and with tertiary education (164.3 per cent). In 2013 by far the largest group among the unemployed were persons with post-secondary non-tertiary education. No breakdown by education is available for the registered unemployed.

1.8 Data on unemployment duration

This section details the unemployment duration of the unemployed labour force, as reported by Statistics Netherlands using the national definition of unemployment. The duration of the registered unemployed and the duration of the unemployment benefits as reported by the Public Employment Service are detailed in section 2.2, table 2.2. Statistics Netherlands does not provide data about the average duration. The unemployment duration is categorized in four groups: 0–6 months, 6–12 months, 12–24 months, and more than 24 months. In addition, one category includes those whose unemployment duration is not known. This group is not considered in the analysis hereafter, because it is a small group. For the decomposition of the unemployed population by length of unemployment spell the same breakdown is used as in previous sections, that is, by gender, age and education.

As noted, in 2013 the Netherlands had 656,000 unemployed, compared with 300,000 in 2008 (table 1.6). In this period, the group with an unemployment duration of 12–24 months increased most rapidly (230.6 per cent), followed by the group with a duration 6–12 months (175.0 per cent), whereas the group with a duration 24 months or longer grew at the lowest rate (58.9 per cent). Initially, due to the influx of new unemployed, the rate of long-term unemployed, defined in European Union statistics as unemployment lasting for longer than one year, fell from 36 to 24 per cent; in the next four years, with gradually growing unemployment, this share increased to 32 per cent in 2012, before the labour market situation deteriorated substantially in 2013 and, with a minimal outflow to work, the long-term share reached the pre-crisis share of 36 per cent.

A breakdown by gender shows that in all duration groups the number of unemployed men grew more rapidly than that of unemployed women. For example, in 2008 there were more women than men with an unemployment duration of 0–6 months, but in 2013 there were more men than women in this category. The number of unemployed males grew much faster compared with females (152.5 vs. 70.8 per cent). The same, though to a smaller extent, applies to all other unemployed duration categories; by 2013, 355,000 men were unemployed compared with 301,000 women.

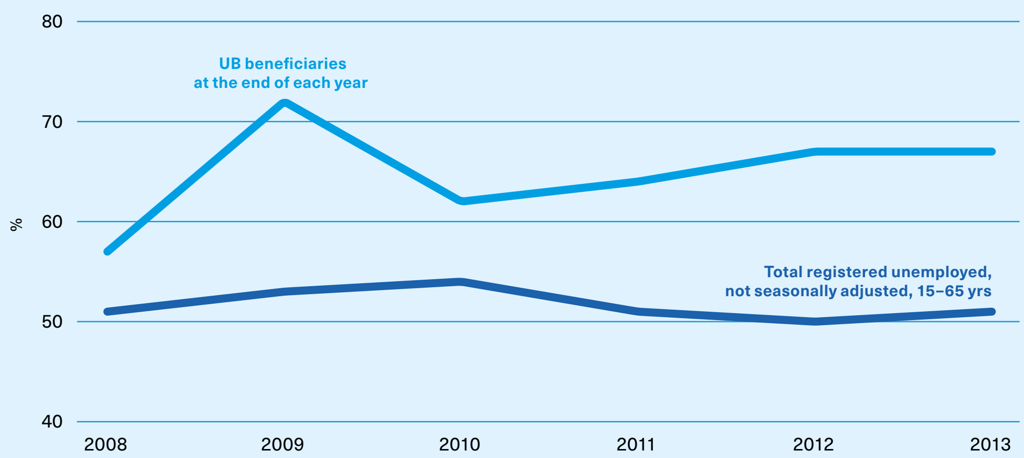
A breakdown by age shows that the growth in unemployment was largest in the age group 25–35, followed by age group 55–65. The growth in the category with an unemployment duration of 12–24 months occurred equally in all age groups. The growth in the 6–12 months category was largest in the age group 25–35 and slowest in the age group 35–45 (237.5 per cent, respectively 115.4 per cent). The growth in the

Table 1.6 Trends 2008–13: Unemployment duration

Unemployment duration of unemployed labour force (national definition)	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total (abs., thousand persons)	300	377	426	419	507	656	356	118.7
Total (%)	100	100	100	100	100	100	–	–
0–6 months (%)	44	53	47	45	45	41	141	107.6
6–12 months (%)	15	19	21	18	20	18	77	175.0
12–24 months (%)	12	8	15	17	14	18	83	230.6
24 months or longer (%)	24	16	14	16	18	18	43	58.9
Duration not specified (%)	5	3	3	4	3	4	12	75.0

See Appendix for a breakdown of this table by gender, age and education.
Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 20-8-2014.

Figure 1.1 Trends 2008–13: Unemployment benefits recipients and registered unemployed as a percentage of all unemployed (national definition)



Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 11-8-2014 and UWV (2013).

24 months or longer category was largest in the age group 25–35, and slowest in the age group 15–25.

A breakdown by education shows that the education group upper secondary education or post-secondary non-tertiary education had the largest growth rate (153.4 per cent), whereas those with primary or lower secondary education revealed the smallest growth (75.4 per cent). Across all duration groups the group upper secondary education or post-secondary non-tertiary education grew most rapidly.

As stated, Statistics Netherlands surveys the number of unemployed persons and receives data from the Public Employment Service about the registered unemployed persons, whereas the Public Employment Service itself registers the number of persons receiving an unemployment benefit. In section 1.7, the numbers of unemployed and registered unemployed persons were detailed, and in section 2.2 the number of unemployment benefits recipients will be detailed. Therefore, this section only provides a graph with the number of unemployment benefits recipients under the Unemployment Insurance Act (WW) not terminated at the end of the period under review (current benefits) (figure 1.1).

1.9 Labour market dynamics

Statistics Netherlands provides only very limited data regarding labour market dynamics for the period under review. Thus, no official employer-survey data on firings, hirings and new jobs is available, though there is data from employer surveys concerning job vacancies. Statistics Netherlands provides three indicators for labour demand, namely unfilled vacancies, new vacancies and filled vacancies. Vacancies are registered on a quarterly basis and yearly averages or yearly totals are generated from these data.

Between 2008 and 2013 the numbers of vacancies declined substantially. Table 1.7 shows that in 2013 the number of new vacancies had almost halved to 622,000.

Table 1.7 Trends 2008–13: Vacancies (yearly averages/yearly totals, thousands), economic activities A–U (SIC2008)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
New vacancies	1 028	725	743	766	658	622	−406	−39.5
Filled vacancies	1 088	794	737	774	679	624	−464	−42.6
Unfilled vacancies	240	143	122	133	112	95	−145	−60.4

See Appendix for a breakdown of the new vacancies by economic activities A–U (SIC2008).

Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 29-8-2014.

Table 1.8 Trends 2008–13: Number of jobseekers according to status one year ago (thousand persons)

Jobseekers[a]	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
1. Total jobseekers	1 195	1 017	927	951	907	844	–351	–29.4
2. Had a job < 1 year ago	538	456	372	347	324	282	–256	–47.6
3. Previously school pupil/student/school leaver	295	248	236	264	254	250	–45	–15.3
4. Previously in a job 1–2 years ago	167	151	164	201	189	177	10	6.0
5. Previously disabled	16	15	12	11	14	11	–5	–31.3
6. Re-entrant	56	42	38	33	31	25	–31	–55.4
7. Other jobseekers	123	105	105	96	95	99	–24	–19.5

[a] National definition, excluding persons with a job < 12 hours per week. See Appendix for a breakdown of this table by gender, age and education.

Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 24-12-2014.

The number of filled vacancies follows the same pattern of a substantial decline. In each year, the number of filled vacancies was higher than the number of new vacancies, because of the decline of new vacancies over the years and because positions can be filled without reported vacancies. Not surprisingly, the number of unfilled vacancies declined even more. In the case of a wide labour supply, the phenomenon of unfilled or hard-to-fill vacancies would hardly exist. By 2013 the Netherlands had on average only 95,000 unfilled vacancies.

Additionally, based on the Labour Force Survey, data is available for the status one year ago for those respondents who started their current job less than a year ago. Six categories are distinguished – the first four are “had a job less than one year ago”, “was a school pupil/student/school leaver”, “was previously in another job”, or “was previously disabled” (thus unfit for work); the fifth is “re-entrant to the labour market”; the sixth is “other”.

When turning to the topic of jobseekers, table 1.8 shows that 844,000 jobseekers were registered in 2013, hence 10 per cent of the labour force entered or changed jobs. In 2008 the numbers were larger. In that year 1,195,000 persons entered or changed jobs, corresponding to 14 per cent of the labour force, reflecting the tighter labour market at the time. The numbers of two groups decreased most considerably between 2008 and 2013, namely those who had a job one year ago and the re-entrants. Hence, job-to-job mobility declined. Also, fewer school leavers entered the labour force in the course of time. The persons previously in a job 1–2 years ago have been the only group for which numbers increased.

A breakdown by gender reveals few gender differences in the dynamics over time for the categories of persons who had a job one year ago and persons who had a job 1–2 years ago.

A breakdown by age shows that the number of jobseekers decreased in all age categories more or less equally. The number of school-leaving jobseekers declined relatively more in the age group 25–35 compared with the age group 15–25, but the number of jobseekers is of course much larger in the youngest age category. The number of previously disabled jobseekers decreased relatively more in the age group 25–35. Note that no data is available about the total number of disabled people, hence it cannot be identified whether this decline is due to a decreasing number of disabled persons in this age category or to fewer chances to find a job. A similar argument applies to the re-entrants, with a decline noticed for, in particular, the age group 35–45. Again, it cannot be decided whether fewer potential re-entrants were present or whether they had fewer chances to find a job.

A breakdown by education shows that the number of jobseekers declined in all educational categories, but relatively most in the category primary or lower secondary education (–32.3 per cent), whereas the number of jobseekers with tertiary education or a doctorate (PhD) declined relatively less (–16.5 per cent). The number of school-leaving jobseekers declined relatively most among the category primary or lower secondary education (–31.3 per cent) and least in the category tertiary education/doctorate (PhD) (–2.7 per cent). Chances for job-to-job mobility declined in *absolute* terms strongest among those with upper secondary education or post-secondary non-tertiary education, but in *relative* terms strongest for those with primary or lower secondary education (–44.9 per cent).

Unemployment benefits, social insurance and social assistance

2

2.1 Introduction

This section details the developments in unemployment benefits (UB), social insurance and social assistance between 2008 and 2013. The number of UB recipients increased strongly during the crisis. At the end of 2013 the figure stood at two-and-a-half times the level at the beginning of the crisis, i.e. at the end of 2008. The expenditure on unemployment benefits also more than doubled in this period. Section 2.2 provides an overview of the trends in UB recipients and expenditure. In the period under consideration, no reforms of any substance with respect to the UB scheme were implemented, as will be discussed in section 2.3. In exploring the cyclicality of reforms of UB systems, it is shown that there is no direct linkage between UB and the business cycle. However, there is an automatic indexation mechanism for all social benefits, including UB and social assistance, as is discussed in section 2.4, whereas section 2.5 details that the entitlement conditions for social assistance are much stricter than for UB, since entitlement to social assistance is based on an income and wealth test of the household. The number of households that are primarily dependent on social assistance benefits is about three times as large as the number of households that depend mainly on UB, as discussed in section 2.6. Finally, in spite of strong political debates, social action and a national employer–union Accord during 2008–13, actual changes in the system of occupational pensions are still under discussion (section 2.7).

2.2 Trends

Data on unemployment benefits (UB, in Dutch abbreviated as WW) are available from Statistics Netherlands (CBS) and from the Public Employment Service (PES), the UWV. Only very limited information is available on unemployed persons who claim a social assistance benefit (abbreviated as WWB in Dutch).

Table 2.1 Trends 2008–13: Unemployment benefits – beneficiaries (thousands) and total expenditure (million euros)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Number of beneficiaries at the end of the year	171	270	264	270	340	437	266	155.6
Total amount of UB expenditure	2 514	4 246	5 024	4 636	5 386	na	2 872	114.2

Source: Tables 2.1 and 2.2 in Uitvoeringsorgaan Werknemersverzekeringen (2013); UWV (2014, p. 39).

Table 2.2 Trends 2008–13: Registered unemployed receiving UB, by duration (persons)

UB duration	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total	170 830*	269 860	263 740	269 900	340 170	437 730	266 900	156.2
0–6 months	71 910	144 780	128 500	135 280	179 460	225 380	153 470	213.4
6–12 months	27 940	65 750	59 190	58 130	76 690	100 250	72 310	258.8
12 months or longer	70 970	59 330	76 050	76 490	84 020	112 100	41 130	58.0

* The total includes 10 persons for which duration was missing. See Appendix for a breakdown of this table by gender and age. No data is available by education.

Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 28-8-2014.

The number of UB recipients increased strongly during the crisis (table 2.1). At the end of 2013 the figure stood at two-and-a-half times the level at the beginning of the crisis, i.e. at the end of 2008. The expenditure on UB also more than doubled in this period.

A breakdown of the registered unemployed by unemployment duration shows that the large inflow into unemployment initially resulted in a strong increase in unemployment with a duration of less than half a year (table 2.2). Over the five years, their number tripled to 225,380 (213 per cent). The number of persons receiving unemployment benefits for over a year only started to rise in 2012, as an increasing number of short-term unemployed did not succeed in finding a job within a year after they lost their previous job.

A similar picture emerges if the focus is on the completed duration of the receipt of UB for those beneficiaries who leave the UB scheme – either because they have found new employment or for other reasons, such as expiration of their benefit entitlement. Table 2.3 shows that the number of beneficiaries who left the scheme within a year after entering doubled between 2008 and 2013, while the number who left after more than a year of benefit duration remained stable. The dynamics in the unemployment duration categories have already been explained in section 1.8.

The group of social assistance beneficiaries includes both the long-term unemployed, whose entitlements to UB are exhausted, and the unemployed who are not eligible for UB for other reasons (such as limited work experience) as well as other persons who are not able to sustain themselves (such as single mothers with young children). Since, formally, all social assistance beneficiaries have the obligation to search for employment, the available statistics do not distinguish between unemployed and other social assistance beneficiaries, even though some of the beneficiaries are not officially counted as unemployed. During the crisis the number of social assistance beneficiaries increased rather moderately, by about one-third (table 2.4).

Basically, in the Netherlands it is possible to claim various benefits at the same time if there are multiple reasons for being out of work or if one benefit does not provide sufficient income to reach the official social minimum level. However, little is known about the interaction of unemployment benefits with other benefits, since the statistics of Statistics Netherlands and UWV only provide information on the total number of beneficiaries for each benefit scheme separately. Nevertheless, from the available income statistics of households it is possible to derive a picture of the combination of various sources of income for households, based on their main source of income. Table 2.5 shows that the majority of the households whose main source of income is UB also have some income from work. Most likely, this includes mainly labour income from the partner. Nevertheless, the share of labour income in total gross

Table 2.3 Trends 2008–13: UB beneficiaries, by duration completed at moment of exit (thousand persons)

UB duration	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total	262	344	472	418	432	516	254	97.1
0–6 months (%)	144	229	273	255	274	na	131	91.1
6–12 months (%)	37	50	119	77	77	na	40	107.3
12–24 months (%)	32	27	54	57	47	na	16	50.5
24 months or longer (%)	50	38	27	29	34	na	–16	–32.3
Average	57	36	33	33	32	31	–26	–45.6

Source: UWV (2013, 2014).

Table 2.4 Trends 2008–13: Beneficiaries of social assistance benefits (aged 64 or less at the end of the year, below minimum level, eligibility criteria not met, etc.; thousands)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Beneficiaries	304	330	357	367	381	413	109	35.8

Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 04-09-2014.

Table 2.5 Trends 2008–13: Interaction of unemployment benefits systems with other forms of social protection, such as pensions (retirement age, early retirement rules, etc.) and other benefits (sick leave, disability benefits, etc.)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Households with UB as main source of income								
Total (000s)	54	69	78	76	87	na	33	61.1
Receiving income from work (000s)	31	44	51	49	59	na	28	90.3
Receiving social assistance (000s)	15	21	29	26	31	na	16	106.7
Share of UB (% gross income)	81.3	78.0	77.0	78.1	76.9	na	−4.4	
Share of labour income (% gross income)	15.9	20.2	21.8	20.6	21.5	na	5.6	
Share of social assistance (% gross income)	3.0	3.5	4.2	4.3	4.2	na	1.2	
Households with social assistance as main source of income								
Total (000s)	226	232	245	256	262	na	36	15.9
Receiving income from work (000s)	68	63	72	71	67	na	−1	−1.5
Receiving social insurance benefit (incl. UB) (000s)	28	32	48	48	50	na	22	78.6
Share of social assistance (% gross income)	81.6	82.8	81.9	83.1	83.3	na	1.7	
Share of labour income (% gross income)	5.8	5.4	6.1	5.5	5.1	na	−0.7	
Share of social insurance benefits (% gross income)	2.5	2.6	3.0	2.6	2.8	na	0.3	

Since not all income components are included, the shares of gross income do not add up exactly to 100%.
Source: StatLine © Statistics Netherlands, Den Haag/Heerlen 04-09-2014.

income of these households was only 21.5 per cent in 2012, although this share had increased considerably since 2008, probably caused by the increasing share of two-earner households. Although approximately one in three households receiving UB also receive some (additional) social assistance, the share of social assistance in their total income is almost negligible, although it increased slightly between 2008 and 2012.

Relatively few households whose main source of income is social assistance also receive income from work or a social insurance benefit (including UB). This is understandable in view of the strict entitlement rules for social assistance (see section 2.6). The share of other sources of income in total income decreased slightly between 2008 and 2012.

However, it is remarkable that the number of households receiving both UB and social assistance doubled from 2008 to 2012, from 43,000 to 81,000. (Actually, the total number is larger, since table 2.4 excludes households whose main source of income is neither UB nor social assistance, some of which may also receive UB as well as social assistance.)

2.3 Review of reforms of unemployment benefits systems

In the period under consideration, 2008–13, no reforms of any substance with respect to the UB scheme were implemented. However, in 2014 an important reform was passed by Parliament regarding UB duration and eligibility conditions. The maximum duration of UB, which depends on the employment history of the beneficiary, will be reduced from 38 to 24 months. In the existing scheme, every year that an insured employee has worked increases their UB entitlement by one month, with a maximum of 38 months. In the new scheme, which will be gradually introduced in the period 2016–19, only during the first ten years of employment will UB entitlements increase by one month for each year of employment. After ten years, UB entitlements will increase by half a month for every year of employment, with a maximum of 24 months. Since the maximum duration of UB is at least three months, an unemployed person who has been employed for three years or less is entitled to a benefit of three months. The maximum duration of UB will only be shortened for persons who have been employed for over ten years. For example, a person with an employment history of 24 years was entitled to a benefit for a maximum of 24 months under the old law, while this will be 18 months under the new law. In addition, the conditions for accepting a job offer with a qualification level below the educational level of the beneficiary will be tightened. In the new scheme, after receiving half a year of UB, a beneficiary will be obliged to accept any job that is available, irrespective of their level of qualifications.

Furthermore, in the Netherlands there is no automatic linkage between access to unemployment benefits and the business cycle. Eligibility conditions are fixed and are not automatically adapted to the labour market situation.

The conditionality of unemployment benefits did not change in the period 2008–13, but entitlement conditions will become more strict in the coming years, especially with respect to the obligation to accept any job offer. UB recipients are obliged to participate in any activities that the PES deems necessary to increase their chances of finding a job, such as training.

Since no substantial reforms were implemented in 2008–13, the impact of policy reforms on youth and female labour market outcomes and living standards are negligible. The reforms that passed Parliament in 2014 will mainly affect older unemployed persons with a long employment history, since their maximum benefit duration will be considerably reduced. For young persons who have been employed for less than ten years, the accrual of benefit entitlements will remain the same and, consequently, for most youth the maximum duration of their unemployment benefit will not change.

Apart from reducing expenditures on UB, the main purpose of the 2014 reform is to stimulate older unemployed persons to keep actively seeking jobs and to accept any reasonable job offer. Since hardly any person who has been unemployed for more than two years finds a job, the new law aims to stimulate the outflow from unemployment in the first two years of unemployment.

In the absence of substantial reforms in 2008–13, the main effects for youth are caused by the increase in flexible unemployment, which makes it more difficult for many young workers to comply with the eligibility conditions for UB, stipulating that a person is only entitled to UB if they have been employed for at least 26 weeks in the last 36 weeks. Moreover, to be entitled to UB for more than three months, one also should have been employed in four of the past five years. Many (young) people who have a work history of fixed-term contracts interspersed with spells of unemployment do not comply with these conditions and are therefore not entitled to UB or not entitled to UB for more than three months.

2.4 Cyclicality of reforms of unemployment benefits systems

There is no direct linkage between UB and the business cycle. However, an automatic indexation mechanism for all social benefits, including UB and social assistance, does exist. Biannually, the level of all benefits is increased by the average percentage increase in contractual wages. Although the Act on the indexation of social benefits provides for the option to freeze benefit levels in the case of a strong relative increase in the number of beneficiaries, the government did not use this option in the period under consideration. However, since contractual wage rises were relatively low during the crisis (see section 3), benefit levels also increased slowly.

As regards the reform of the UB scheme, the Bill that the administration presented to Parliament mentioned explicitly that the reduction of the maximum duration of the benefit would be introduced gradually, so that the negative effects on benefit entitlements would not coincide with effects of the current economic crisis.

2.5 What happens when benefits are exhausted?

Basically, any unemployed person whose benefit entitlements are exhausted can claim social assistance. However, the entitlement conditions for social assistance are much stricter than for UB, since social assistance entitlement is based on an income and wealth test of the household. Consequently, an unemployed person whose UB is exhausted but who either has a partner with an income that exceeds the official social minimum level of a household (viz. €1,360 per month in 2014) or who has wealth exceeding €11,700 for a household or €5,850 for a single person (or who owns a house with a net value of more than €49,400), is not entitled to social assistance. For unemployed persons aged 50 and over, there are special schemes (IOW, IOAW and IOAZ) which provide a minimum income for a single person without a wealth test.

2.6 Contribution of social assistance and social insurance in providing support to the unemployed

Information on UB and social assistance as sources of income is not readily available. No information can be provided on the sources of income of the group of unemployed persons. Table 2.4 showed that the number of households that are primarily dependent on social assistance benefits is about three times as large as the number of households that depend mainly on UB. However, from 2008 to 2012 the latter amount increased more strongly than the former, indicating that the importance of UB income protection for households has increased.

2.7 Measures to increase statutory retirement age

In spite of strong political debates, social action and a national bipartite Accord (see section 1.1) during the period 2008–13, actual changes in the system of occupational pensions are still under discussion. Equally the retirement age of employees, which is mostly determined by collective labour agreements, has remained largely unchanged at the precise age of 65. At the same time, however, the government has increased the age of retirement for the public pension (AOW). This traditionally kicked in at the same precise age of 65 but at that age the threshold was increased by one month as of 1 January 2013 and a second month as of 1 December 2013 (a third month was added on 1 October 2014, while after that date the threshold will increase more rapidly to 12 months in total as of 1 January 2019). As the public pension provision is an indispensable complement to that of occupational pensions, which builds on a franchise of earnings corresponding to AOW, a problem of income at the start of retirement has arisen, especially for employees already in pre-retirement (the "AOW gap"), for which the state is being challenged in court by the FNV union confederation. For those still employed at ages 61–65 a special tax credit was introduced as of 1 January 2013.

Wages

3

3.1 Introduction

This section focuses on the wage impact of the financial and economic crisis in Europe, including minimum wages, public-sector wages and wage bargaining. As discussed in section 3.2, the 2008–13 trends show that the nominal hourly wage has grown by 10 per cent, meaning that it has stagnated in real terms (0 per cent change). Wages as contracted in collective labour agreements rose less (8 per cent) and have actually declined in real terms (–2 per cent). The crisis has hardly elicited any changes and debates in wage institutions. During 2008–13, there were no major debates on the role of wage bargaining and wage flexibility, except for the debate on bonuses and similar payments to CEOs and other top executives, as discussed in section 3.3. The crisis has not significantly modified the role of actors in shaping wage policy. The internal coordination mechanisms inside the employers' ranks and the trade unions hardly seem to have changed, as discussed in section 3.4. The effects of the economic crisis on wage trends have been noticeable, as detailed in section 3.5. Real wages have clearly fallen with very notable differences by age, by industry and by type of labour contract. The role of minimum-wage employment first grew but then stagnated and declined, though no explicit policy measures to freeze or lower wages, including the minimum wage, have been taken, in contrast with earlier recessions. Wage inequality has changed very little but there may be important composition effects hidden behind this stability as the least-paid jobs fell away and the whole remaining distribution of wages seems to have shifted upwards while maintaining its structure of inequality.

In the Netherlands, non-compliance with both collective bargaining outcomes and labour legislation seems to apply more to non-wage issues than to wages. The existence of job evaluation implies that employers have only limited room to choose the wage that goes with a job. In 2008–13, hardly any changes took place in the adoption and use of these schemes and the related grids. Section 3.6 illustrates that limited data are available concerning employment creation and destruction, "green jobs" and start-up firms. Some limited evidence is available for foreign-controlled enterprises. Between 2008 and 2011, the share of foreign-controlled enterprises in Dutch private sector employment grew further, from 14.0 to 15.9 per cent. The Netherlands had programmes aiming at wage subsidies. After an initial rise until 2009, the total of subsidies paid on labour costs halved over the period.

3.2 Trends

As table 3.1 shows, the nominal average hourly wage has grown cumulatively by slightly over 10 per cent, meaning that it has stagnated in real terms (0 per cent change). The latter results from an increase by 1.4 per cent up to 2010 followed by an equally large decrease. Wages as contracted in collective labour agreements rose less (8 per cent) and have actually declined in real terms (–2 per cent). Contrary to the former, which is a running average, the latter is an index number that controls for compositional changes in the workforce; it indicates the nominal annual rise in wages as they have been negotiated in collective labour agreements between unions and employer associations. The 2 percentage point difference between both is due to wage drift. This adds positively or negatively to the index number reflecting a range of effects, which comprise compositional changes in the workforce due to personal or job characteristics, the results of individual wage settlements that deviate from collectively negotiated rates, and also individual transitions within the system of wage scales from one year to the next (cf. Salverda 2009). It may seem that in contrast to hourly earnings, annual earnings have grown somewhat more (up to 2012): +8.4 per cent up to 2012 as against +7.6 per cent. However, hourly earnings are based on full-time equivalents, while annual earnings are on the basis of persons; more importantly, the latter also ignore those working less than 12 hours per week who were left out of the Dutch LFS definition up to and including 2014. Further details are shown in tables 3.5 to 3.7.

Wage growth increased with the decile (table 3.2), in spite of a real-wage decline across the board in 2011 (see table 3.1). The bottom and top evolved slightly better

Table 3.1 Trends 2008–13: Nominal and real hourly wages

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Hourly wages, running average (nominal €)	23.60	24.30	24.70	25.00	25.40	26.00	2.40	10.2
Hourly wages, running average (€ prices 2013)	25.99	26.50	26.69	26.36	26.05	26.00	0.01	0.0
Index of collectively negotiated hourly wages (nominal €)	122.0	125.4	127.0	128.4	130.2	131.6	9.6	7.9
Index of collectively negotiated hourly wages (€ prices 2013)	134.4	136.8	137.2	135.4	133.5	131.6	–2.8	–2.1
Annual primary earnings of employees (nominal €)	41 500	42 700	43 300	44 000	45 000	na	3,500 (2008–12)	8.4 (2008–12)
Annual primary earnings of employees (€ prices 2013)	45 707	46 575	46 794	46 399	46 151	na	444 (2008–12)	1.0 (2008–12)

Notes: Hourly wages are running averages over total employee hours worked. Collectively negotiated hourly wages include special payments and are index numbers (2000 = 100), index controls for composition change. Primary earnings are current averages but for those working at least 12 hours per week only; they may include supposedly small amounts of income from enterprise. Deflation is by harmonized CPI.

Source: CBS/StatLine, Labour Accounts, CLA Statistics, Labour Force Statistics linked to income data, and HCPI Statistics.

Table 3.2 Trends 2008–13: National wage differentials – running deciles of hourly wages

Deciles	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Hourly wages (nominal €)								€ prices 2013
1	9.72	10.06	10.18	10.24	10.51	na	0.82	8.5	1.0
2	11.87	12.22	12.39	12.45	12.80	na	0.94	8.0	0.5
3	13.66	14.10	14.32	14.41	14.79	na	1.14	8.3	0.9
4	15.45	15.90	16.15	16.26	16.74	na	1.29	8.3	0.9
5	17.20	17.68	17.98	18.12	18.63	na	1.43	8.3	0.8
6	19.13	19.67	20.03	20.20	20.75	na	1.60	8.4	0.9
7	21.57	22.19	22.64	22.81	23.38	na	1.78	8.3	0.8
8	24.89	25.67	26.18	26.41	27.08	na	2.15	8.6	1.2
9	31.29	32.33	32.99	33.41	34.27	na	2.91	9.3	1.8

Note: Upper boundaries of deciles. A change of survey in 2010, which added 86,000 employees has been accounted for in the period growth.

Source: Authors' estimation based on tabulated data by classes of wages and normal weekly working hours – thus wages differ from tables based on Labour Accounts. Tables provided by CBS.

than the middle of the distribution. However, here composition effects seem particularly strong as the number of observations in the bottom absolute class of wages (less than €5 per hour, where youths are found) fell significantly (–20 per cent). This will be examined further when discussing wage inequality in table 3.10.

The aggregate stagnation of real wages for the economy as a whole is not shared by all sectors (see table 3.3). Trade, transportation, and hotels and catering (G–I), information and communication (J) and business services (M–N) have suffered declines; the latter include temporary agency workers (table 3.3). Unfortunately, no trend data is available on national wage differentials among categories of jobs.

The development of minimum-wage employment is shown in table 3.4. Unfortunately, the data suffer from a series break in 2010 which overestimates the rise from the year 2009. According to the method preceding the break, total employment actually fell between 2009 and 2010, and plausibly the incidence of the minimum wage stagnated if not fell in 2010 compared with 2009. As a result, the incidence of head-count minimum-wage employment (panel A) may, after an initial rise from 2008 to 2009 that particularly affected young workers,

Table 3.3 Trends 2008–13: Wage differentials among sectors including the public sector

Sectors	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Hourly wages (nominal €)								Prices 2013
Total	23.60	24.30	24.70	25.00	25.40	26.00	2.40	10.2	0.0
A	16.10	16.10	16.70	16.90	17.30	17.90	1.80	11.2	0.9
B–E	24.10	24.90	25.10	25.60	26.00	27.00	2.90	12.0	1.7
F	23.80	24.60	25.00	24.80	25.40	26.20	2.40	10.1	0.0
G–I	19.80	20.30	20.60	20.90	21.10	21.40	1.60	8.1	–1.9
J	30.70	31.20	31.80	32.40	32.60	33.10	2.40	7.8	–2.1
K	37.60	37.60	38.30	39.20	39.70	41.80	4.20	11.2	0.9
L	28.00	28.40	28.90	29.30	30.40	31.30	3.30	11.8	1.5
M–N	22.70	23.70	23.70	24.10	24.30	24.80	2.10	9.3	–0.8
O–Q	24.90	25.70	26.40	26.70	27.10	27.70	2.80	11.2	1.0
R–U	20.80	21.40	21.80	22.20	22.60	23.00	2.20	10.6	0.4

Notes: Hourly wages are running averages over total employee hours worked. The change of industry classification from SBI1993 to the (European) SBI2008 explains the combination of sectors; however, small shifts may remain. Deflation is by harmonized CPI.

Source: CBS/StatLine, Labour Accounts and HCPI Statistics.

have been diminishing since. This also holds for the hours-count employment volume (panel B) where the decline in the latest years has been more significant, as the role of part-time employment among minimum wage jobs grew even further (cf. Salverda 2010).

The table shows also a breakdown by sector, indicating the incidence of the minimum wage within various sectors (panel C) on the one hand and the distribution of minimum-wage employment across the sectors (panel D) on the other. Both show the familiar picture of low-wage employment: a higher incidence in agriculture (A), retail trade (G), hotels and catering (I), business services (L–N, which includes temporary agencies) and other services (R–U), and high shares in total minimum-wage employment for retail trade, business services and health care (Q). Particularly, health care shows an increase in both incidence (from 4 to 6 per cent) and share (from 10 to 17 per cent), while trade shows a declining share (from 25 to 18 per cent).

Tables 3.5 to 3.7 reveal further details that are consistent with annual earnings developments shown in table 3.1. Strong divergences occurred by age categories (table 3.5). Youths experienced a 9.5 per cent decline in real earnings, while middle-aged workers witnessed a 0.7 per cent decrease and older workers a 1.8 per cent increase. A comparable divide occurs depending on the worker's type of employment contract (see table 3.6). Employees on permanent contracts experienced a 2 per cent earnings growth and those on temporary contracts a 2 per cent decrease. It can be observed that simultaneously the numbers of employees found in the two categories evolved in opposite directions; the permanent number fell by 4 per cent, while the flexible number increased by 4 per cent.

Finally, as shown in table 3.7, those working full-time (35+ hours) saw their real average annual earnings grow by 7 per cent, much more than those working 12–19 hours (–1.3 per cent) or 20–34 hours (2.4 per cent). Note, however, that the number of jobs in the smallest hours category fell by 5 per cent and in the highest category by 7 per cent; only those in the middle increased, by almost 8 per cent.

In 2013 the level of real GDP was still 3 per cent below that of 2008 (table 3.8). Following the same metric, the sum of employee compensation increased by 1.3 per cent. Unsurprisingly, based on these figures the wage share grew by 2.1 percentage points to 50.5 per cent. That level was reached immediately in 2009, and since then the share has been volatile. Employee compensation includes employer contributions to social security and occupational pensions; without those, i.e. gross wages only, there was an increase of 0.5 per cent in GDP-prices. The corresponding, more narrowly defined, wage share grew from 38.1 per cent in 2008 to 39.4 per cent in 2013. Though calculated on yet another basis (compensation per employee as percentage of GDP at factor cost per person employed), the adjusted wage share for the Netherlands as registered by the European Commission's Ameco database shows a similar pattern,

Table 3.4 Trends 2008–12: Number of salaries under or at the age-related minimum wage and repartition by sector including the public sector

Sectors		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
A. Head-count, absolute level (number of jobs, thousands)						
All jobs		7 880	7 819	7 860	7 927	7 872
Total paid ≤ minimum wage		464	478	513	506	491
Incidence of minimum wage		5.9%	6.1%	6.5%	6.4%	6.2%
Ages 15–24		14.4%	15.1%	15.8%	15.5%	15.9%
Ages 25–64		3.9%	4.0%	4.3%	4.2%	4.0%
B. Hours-count, absolute level (number of full-time labour-years, thousands)						
All jobs		6 010	5 924	5 924	5 926	5 866
Total paid ≤ minimum wage		273	275	302	291	277
Incidence of minimum wage		4.5%	4.6%	5.1%	4.9%	4.7%
Full-time fraction per person		59%	58%	59%	58%	56%
Head-count		**Percentage of all jobs**				
C. Percentage* within *sectors						
A	Agriculture	10	10	10	9	9
B	Mining	0	0	0	0	0
C–E	Manufacturing & utilities	4	4	4	4	4
F	Construction	2	2	2	2	2
G	Trade	9	8	8	7	7
H+J	Transport & communication	5	5	5	6	5
I	Hotels & catering	14	13	14	13	13
K	Financial services	2	2	3	3	3
L–N	Business services	8	9	9	9	9
O	Public administration	3	3	5	4	4
P	Education	3	2	2	2	2
Q	Health care	4	5	6	7	6
R–U	Other services	9	10	10	10	10
D. Percentage* across *sectors						
A	Agriculture	3	2	2	2	2
B	Mining	0	0	0	0	0
C–E	Manufacturing & utilities	4	7	6	7	6
F	Construction	2	1	2	2	2
G	Trade	25	22	19	19	18
H+J	Transport & communication	5	6	6	7	7
I	Hotels & catering	9	8	9	9	9
K	Financial services	2	1	2	1	1
L–N	Business services	26	27	25	25	26
O	Public administration	3	3	5	4	4
P	Education	3	3	3	2	2
Q	Health care	10	14	16	17	17
R–U	Other services	6	6	6	5	5

Notes: Controlling for the change of survey in 2010, total employment (and possibly also the incidence of the minimum wage) fell between 2009 and 2010. This concerns people employed at the age-specific minimum wages, ranging from 30 per cent (at age 15) to 100 per cent (at age 23) of the adult minimum wage; thus many young workers were paid below the adult minimum wage. Large changes for several sectors concern small numbers. Data for 2013 are not yet available. The change of industry classification from SBI1993 to the (European) SBI2008 which was not applied to the data for 2008 explains the combination of sectors shown; however, small shifts may remain.

Source: CBS/StatLine, Employment and minimum wage – employee characteristics.

Table 3.5 Trends 2008–12: Wage distribution by age

Age	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Nominal €							Prices 2013	Number
Total	41 500	42 700	43 300	44 000	45 000	3 500	8.4	1.0	–2.6
15-24	17 900	18 100	17 300	17 400	17 400	–500	–2.8	–9.5	–10.0
25-44	42 300	43 200	43 700	44 500	45 100	2 800	6.6	–0.7	–9.1
45-64	48 100	49 300	50 300	51 300	52 600	4 500	9.4	1.8	9.2

Note: For annual earnings see table 3.1.

Source: CBS/StatLine, Labour Force Statistics linked to income data

Table 3.6 Trends 2008–12: Variable components of wages

Contract	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Nominal €							Prices 2013	Number
Total	41 500	42 700	43 300	44 000	45 000	3 500	8.4	1.0	–2.6
Permanent	45 000	46 300	47 200	48 100	49 400	4 400	9.8	2.2	–4.0
Flexible	24 500	24 600	24 600	24 900	25 800	1 300	5.3	–1.9	4.0

Source: See table 3.1. Note: See table 3.1.

Table 3.7 Trends 2008–12: Wage distribution by weekly hours of work

Contract	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Nominal €							Prices 2013	Number
Total	41 500	42 700	43 300	44 000	45 000	3 500	8.4	1.0	–2.6
12–19 hours	13 100	13 600	13 500	13 400	13 500	400	3.1	–1.3	–5.4
20–34 hours	30 300	31 000	31 300	31 800	32 400	2 100	6.9	2.4	7.6
35+ hours	52 400	54 300	55 500	56 700	58 300	5 900	11.3	6.5	–7.4

Source: See table 3.1. Note: See table 3.1.

Table 3.8 Trends 2008–13: Wage share in GDP

Contract	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Nominal € (millions)								Prices 2013
GDP	635 794	617 650	631 512	642 929	640 644	642 851	7 057	1.1	–2.9
Compensation	307 355	311 679	310 471	318 040	323 237	324 389	17 034	5.5	1.3
Wage share	48.3%	50.5%	49.2%	49.5%	50.5%	50.5%	2.1%	4.4%	

Notes: Deflated by implicit GDP prices. GDP is at market prices – note, however, that the balance of product-based subsidies and taxes has declined significantly (–16 per cent): this accounts for more than half of the 3 per cent fall (value added at basic prices in 2013 is 1.3 per cent below the 2008 level).

Source: CBS/StatLine, National Accounts.

increasing from 64.3 per cent in 2008 to 67.9 per cent in 2013 (Ameco 2014).

The level of labour productivity that corresponds to these outcomes for GDP has stagnated on balance, albeit with decreases in 2009 and 2013 and increases in 2010, 2011 and 2013 (table 3.9).

The inequality of hourly wages (table 3.10) increased slightly, but one has to note the uncertainty due to the nature of the underlying estimation by means of linear interpolation in classes of wages. The increase was confined to the upper half of the distribution, while the bottom half remained unchanged. As was already mentioned, substantial compositional changes, especially a decline in the number of jobs found at the lower end of the wage distribution, may have affected this outcome, implying that the entire wage distribution may have shifted upwards while the mutual ratios remained largely unchanged.

Note also that, by necessity of the data, here inequality is measured by means of the traditional decile ratios, which are based on the upper boundaries of the deciles. Using average wages within the deciles instead would offer a more pertinent picture, especially for the top decile, which has no upper limit. Unfortunately, such averages are not available. Data presented by De Beer (2014), however, suggest that the very top may have been declining since 2008.

The Dutch statutory minimum wage is defined not on an hourly basis but on a full-time basis, where the precise number of hours depends on the collective labour agreement that is applicable. An estimation using average full-time hours of work is presented in table 3.11. It increased in nominal terms by 9 per cent from 2008, implying a loss in purchasing power of almost 1 per cent, while average real earnings remained unchanged and collectively negotiated hours fell by 2 per cent (see table 3.1). The minimum wage lags the development of negotiated wages by six months and developed somewhat more favourably than those wages because of the negotiated rise of the last six months of 2007.

Table 3.12 shows the evolution of aggregate employer contributions. These have increased over 2008–13 in real terms by 4.3 per cent in spite of a decline in 2010. Contributions relative to wages increased by a similar percentage. Again this evolution partly reflects compositional change in the workforce. The price index of labour, which is also shown, corrects for such change and shows a smaller real increase (+3.2 per cent).

Table 3.13 shows the divergence between private-sector and public-sector wage trends. Average hourly wages (panel A) slightly increased (+1.0 per cent) in the public sector as a whole, while in the private sector they fell by 0.6 per cent. This divergence is affected slightly by the allocation of health care (which is made up of private organizations conducting private wage negotiations – compare Salverda (2013)) to either of these two sectors. In health care real wages increased most (+2.7 per cent). Attributing health care to the private sector, the 1.6 per

Table 3.9 Trends 2008–13: Labour productivity

Contract	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	€ prices 2010							
GDP/hour	50.69	49.72	50.61	50.98	50.29	50.72	0.03	0.1

Notes: GDP at market prices; value added at basic prices per hours worked increased by 1.7 per cent. Hours include those of the self-employed.
Source: CBS/StatLine, National Accounts.

Table 3.10 Trends 2008–12: Hourly wage inequality (average/median wage, wage dispersion, etc.)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Nominal ratios							
P90:P10	3.22	3.21	3.24	3.26	3.26	na	0.02	0.8
P90:P50	1.82	1.83	1.83	1.84	1.84	na	0.02	0.9
P50:P10	1.77	1.76	1.77	1.77	1.77	na	0.00	–0.1
Mean/median	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11	1.11	na	0.00	0.0

Source: See table 3.2 (also about series break).

Table 3.11 Trends 2008–13: Minimum wages per hour; annual average

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth, prices 2013 (%)
Euro	8.07	8.33	8.46	8.57	8.74	8.78	0.74	9.2	−0.9
Annual change		3.3%	1.8%	1.3%	2.0%	0.5%			

Sources: Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs for weekly minimum wage and CBS/StatLine, Labour accounts for average weekly hours of full-time working employees.

Table 3.12 Trends 2008–13: (Other) labour costs (tax wedge, tax rates, social security contributions, etc.)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Nominal € (millions)								Prices 2013
Employer contributions	65195	66063	63929	66325	69749	70794	5599	8.6	4.3
% of wages	26.9%	26.9%	25.9%	26.3%	27.5%	27.9%	1.0%	4.3	
	2010 = 100								Prices 2013
Price index of labour	98.5	100.0	100.0	101.6	103.4	105.9	7.4	7.5	3.2

Sources: Ministry of Employment and Social Affairs, CBS/StatLine.

Table 3.13 Trends 2008–13: Wages in the public sector (wage bill/total public expenditure, etc.)

Sectors	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	A. Hourly wages (nominal €)								Prices 2013
Total	23.60	24.30	24.70	25.00	25.40	26.00	2.40	10.2	0.0
Private	23.16	23.80	24.06	24.37	24.77	25.36	2.20	9.5	−0.6
Public	24.90	25.70	26.40	26.70	27.10	27.70	2.80	11.2	1.0
Government	27.00	27.90	28.60	29.00	29.50	29.90	2.90	10.7	0.5
Education	26.20	27.80	28.60	29.10	29.30	29.20	3.00	11.5	1.2
Health	29.10	29.70	30.40	30.90	31.80	32.90	3.80	12.2	1.8
	B. Index of collectively negotiated hourly wages (2000 = 100)								Prices 2013
Total	122.0	125.4	127.0	128.4	130.2	131.6	9.60	7.9	−2.1
Private	121.3	124.6	125.9	127.5	129.5	131.1	9.80	8.1	−1.9
Government	123.9	126.5	129.0	129.0	130.3	130.4	6.50	5.2	−4.4
Education	124.8	128.9	130.1	130.2	130.2	130.5	5.70	4.6	−5.1
Health	123.3	127.6	130.5	132.6	134.8	137.0	13.70	11.1	0.9

Notes: Hourly wages are running average over total employee hours worked. Collectively negotiated hourly wages are index numbers 2000 = 100, index controls for composition change (no data available for public sector including health care). Deflation is by harmonized CPI.

Source: CBS/StatLine, Labour Accounts, CLA Statistics, and HCPI Statistics.

cent gap between the two sectors would have been reduced by no more than 0.3 percentage points.

However, these trends reflect wage drift related, among others, to compositional change, as can be illustrated by the index of collectively negotiated wages (panel B), which controls for such changes. For government and education these negotiated outcomes fell by 4–5 per cent in real terms, more than double the fall experienced by the private sector. Only health care registered a modest increase (+0.9 per cent), which is due to larger increases in 2009 and 2010 and smaller declines since 2011. Apparently, the wage drift in the public sector has been much larger than in the private sector.

3.3 Debates

During 2008–13, there were no major debates on the role of wage bargaining and wage flexibility, except for the debate on bonuses and similar payments to CEOs and other top executives. This debate started during 2009 and concentrated on bankers' bonuses, especially in view of the fact that in 2008 the Dutch government bailed out two private banks (followed by a third in 2013) and injected large amounts of money into these and into other financial institutions. After the Dutch government pared bonuses for top banking executives to 100 per cent of their annual salaries in 2010, in 2012 Finance Minister Dijsselbloem announced plans to cap bankers' bonuses to 20 or 25 per cent of fixed pay. By mid-2014, Minister Dijsselbloem stated that the plan would continue.

3.4 Has the crisis modified the role of actors?

The internal coordination mechanisms inside the employers' ranks and the trade union movement hardly seem to have changed, at least in the period 2008–11. In 2012–13, when in particular the FNV confederation but also CNV and MHP experienced some internal turmoil, there may have been some fine-tuning problems, but in the course of 2013 in all three confederations coordination appeared to function mainly as before.

The existing external coordination mechanisms, i.e. the pattern of top-level negotiations in the STAR and sector and company bargaining, did not change in the period under scrutiny. Table 3.14 shows the levels of centralization of collective bargaining for the Dutch economy as a whole and for five main sectors, rated 1 to 5 according to the most important bargaining level and based upon a scale developed by Visser (2013a). During the period under scrutiny there was no noticeable change in the level of centralization. Table 3.15 indicates the levels of coordination, again for the economy as a whole and the five main sectors and based on a scale developed by Visser; that scale is explained in a note below the table. According to this measure, there were also no changes found during the period 2008-2013. There was no clear wage leadership in this period.

As already noted (section 1.1), the Spring Accord 2009 of the social partners replaced the optimistic Autumn Accord of 2008. It is not that clear which of the three parties involved took the initiative to negotiate the Spring Accord. At the time this Accord was signed, the macroeconomic situation of the Netherlands had already become much worse than assumed, leading to massive public budget shortages and production cuts. The macroeconomic "braking distance" turned out to be longer than institutional arrangements suggested: over 2009, depending on the definition used, the collectively agreed wage increases for 4.7 million employees were 1.9–2.7 per cent, decreasing in 2010 to 1.0–1.3 per cent. Yet, more detailed analysis reveals that one out of three collective labour agreements (CLAs) agreed in 2009, 2010 and 2011 contained a 0 per cent wage increase agreement; these CLAs could be found mainly in the public sector, retail and media. In 2009 and 2010, no CLAs were renegotiated during their terms. More generally, in the 2009–10 bargaining season, wage levels agreed in comparable CLAs were lowered by 2 percentage points (Harteveld 2012). Hardship, opening or inability-to-pay clauses are virtually unknown in the Netherlands, and they were not introduced in the 2008–13 period. On the other hand, shortening the duration of CLAs, in some cases from two years to six months, for example at the Tata steel works, created opportunities to reconsider and renegotiate the CLA under crisis conditions.

Table 3.14 Centralization of collective bargaining, the Netherlands, 2008–13

	Whole economy	Manufacturing	Construction	Retail trade	Finance	Public administration
2008	4	2	3	2	1	3
2009	4	2	3	2	1	3
2010	4	2	3	2	1	3
2011	4	2	3	2	1	3
2012	4	2	3	2	1	3
2013	4	2	3	2	1	3

Source: Estimates by authors, rated according to most important bargaining level (scale used by Visser in ICTWSS database of AIAS): 5 = national or central level; 4 = national or central level, with additional sectoral/local or company bargaining; 3 = sectoral or industry level; 2 = sectoral or industry level, with additional local or company bargaining; 1 = local or company bargaining.

Table 3.15 Coordination of collective bargaining, the Netherlands, 2008–13

	Whole economy	Manufacturing	Construction	Retail trade	Finance	Public administration
2008	4	2	3	2	1	3
2009	4	2	3	2	1	3
2010	4	2	3	2	1	3
2011	4	2	3	2	1	3
2012	4	2	3	2	1	3
2013	4	2	3	2	1	3

Source: Estimates by authors, rated on a scale of 1 to 5 according to the following definitions (used by Visser in ICTWSS database of AIAS): 5 = economy-wide bargaining, based on (a) enforceable agreements between the central organizations of unions and employers affecting the entire economy or entire private sector, or on (b) government imposition of a wage schedule, freeze, or ceiling; 4 = mixed industry and economy-wide bargaining: (a) central organizations negotiate non-enforceable central agreements (guidelines) and/or (b) key unions and employers associations set pattern for the entire economy; 3 = industry bargaining with no or irregular pattern setting, limited involvement of central organizations and limited freedoms for company bargaining; 2 = mixed industry- and firm-level bargaining, with weak enforceability of industry agreements; 1 = none of the above, fragmented bargaining, mostly at company level.

Collective bargaining coverage (CBC) remained at the level of the 2000s, when coverage fluctuated between 82 and 86 per cent. CBC reached 86 per cent in 2011, 84 per cent in 2012 and 85 per cent in 2013 (Van Klaveren and Tijdens 2012; calculations based on Ministry of SZW 2012–14, and CBS, StatLine). Yet the gap with the trade union density rate grew further, as this density continued to decrease, from 19.7 per cent in 2008 and 19.0 per cent in 2011 (Visser 2013a). By March 2013, compared with mid-2011, trade unions lost another 80,000 members (CBS, StatLine), bringing union density down to below 18 per cent. Moreover, the share of the three union confederations decreased even more. As a number of single unions in 2012 and 2013 left two of three confederations, CNV and MHP, in March 2013 membership of the confederations (including FNV) covered 83 per cent of all trade unionists in the Netherlands, against 92 per cent in 2008 (calculations based on StatLine).

3.5 Evidence on the effects of the economic crisis on wage trends

Real wages have clearly been affected (table 3.1) with very notable differences by age (table 3.5), and interesting and important differences between industries (table 3.3), public and private sectors (table 3.4) and by type of labour contract (table 3.6). Wage inequality seems to have changed very little, but an important limitation is that data for the year 2013 is not yet available. However, many of these outcomes seem subject to strong compositional shifts as is suggested by index numbers that correct for these shifts, such as for collectively negotiated wages and the price of labour. This seems to imply that the growth of wages tends to be overestimated and the increase in wage inequality underestimated.

No explicit policy measures to freeze or lower wages have been taken, in contrast with earlier recessions. The minimum wage has been adjusted in its normal correspondence with the evolution of collectively negotiated wages. The indexation laid down in the Act on SMW was carried out. This includes the obligatory evaluation of whether the minimum wage lags general wage trends and should be adjusted for that reason. Due every four years, the evaluation of 2011 led the government to the conclusion that the usual lack of adjustment was sufficient and no extra adjustment was needed due to this reason (Ministry of SZW 2011).

However, the state is the direct negotiating partner for wages in the government sector, while it plays an indirect yet substantial role in negotiations in education and health care. In this respect the state has largely refrained from negotiations; overall wage bargaining here developed in a laborious way, particularly in 2011–13. Real negotiated wages in the government and education sectors have been declining strongly as a result (table 3.13).

In the Netherlands, firm non-compliance with both collective bargaining outcomes and labour legislation seems to apply more to non-wage issues than to wages. As regards wages, the shop-floor effects of the traditional weakness of the Dutch trade unions at company level and rather low trade union density have been mitigated by the solidity of the “wage building” in both the private and the public sector. Nearly all CLAs provide a grid that links detailed wage scales to jobs irrespective of the characteristics of the occupant of the job and, in most collective agreements, these scales are connected to job evaluation schemes, which mostly go down all the way to the lowest job levels. The existence of job evaluation implies that employers have only limited room to choose the wage that goes with a job.

In 2008–13, hardly any changes took place in the adoption and use of these schemes and the related grids. The "wage building" with this architecture overall seems to have rather effectively acted as a shield against employers' arbitrariness in individual wage setting, also in the crisis years. Most likely, exceptions are concentrated in the private sector, notably in the seven industries with prevailing precarious conditions, as mentioned in section 1.6. These industries also show the lowest trade union densities (cf. Ter Steege et al. 2012). Another "escape" for employers is to assign new job entrants to lower scales than before. Although it is nearly impossible to research such practices, indications in, for example, the care sector suggest that they increased in 2011–13.

3.6 Data on employment creation and destruction, by sectors

There is no data available concerning employment creation and destruction in the Netherlands for the period after 2008, definitely not systematized by sector.

Some limited evidence is available for foreign-controlled enterprises. Between 2008 and 2011, the share of foreign-controlled enterprises in Dutch private sector employment grew further, from 14.0 per cent to 15.9 per cent. Yet, Statistics Netherlands notes in view of this outcome: "It is too early to conclude whether or not these enterprises created new and additional jobs" (CBS 2013a, pp. 76–77). Moreover, no data is available concerning foreign-controlled enterprises for 2012 and later years.

In spite of the widespread attention concerning "green growth" and the existence in politics of a "Green Deal" in the Netherlands, very few official figures are available on (the growth of) "green jobs" after 2008. According to Statistics Netherlands, between 2008 and 2011 employment in the environmental goods and services sector (EGGS) grew slightly, to 113,000 FTEs in 2011 (CBS 2013b, p. 54).

There is no recent overall overview available of (employment creation in the Netherlands by) the creation of start-up firms. The only reports available are on scattered parts of the "new economy" where the Netherlands is supposed to be leading (parts of the creative industry, the games industry, etc.). These reports are in particular issued by the official investment agency of the Netherlands (NFIA), aiming to attract foreign investors, and mainly contain data for some companies. It remains nearly always unclear whether this kind of information is representative of a larger sample of firms.

3.7 Programmes aimed at wage subsidies or tax credits

The Netherlands had programmes aiming at wage subsidies. After an initial rise until 2009, the total of subsidies paid on labour costs halved by 2013 (see table 3.16).

Table 3.16 Trends 2008–13: Wage subsidies

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)	Growth (%)
	Nominal € (thousands)								Prices 2013
Total compensation	305149	308592	307476	315462	320801	323235	18086	5.9	1.7
Subsidies	2206	3087	2995	2578	2436	1154	−1052	−47.7	−49.8
% subsidies	0.7	1.0	1.0	0.8	0.8	0.4			

Note: Subsidies are after deduction of levies. Deflated by implicit GDP prices.
Source: CBS/StatLine, National Accounts.

Active labour market policies (ALMPs) 4

4.1 Introduction

This section reviews the active labour market policies (ALMPs) in the Netherlands, as well as their design and effectiveness. Total expenditure on ALMPs and the number of participants in ALMPs initially increased between 2008 and 2010, but declined in more recent years (section 4.2). The most important ALMP measures, as indicated in section 1.2, were the introduction of an STW scheme, which was effective from December 2008 until March 2009, succeeded by a part-time unemployment benefit scheme, which was effective from April 2009 to December 2010. More information on these schemes will be added in section 4.3.

No specific sectoral measures were introduced during the crisis. Turning to possible reforms of vocational training, it has to be noted that, although vocational training is problematic to many, particularly employers, there was little change between 2008 and 2013, as discussed in section 4.4. Finally, this section discusses the Dutch policies regarding the EU mobile and third-country migrant population, showing that in the period under scrutiny, under the transitional measures, restrictions applied to migrants from Bulgaria and Romania, whereas other policies focused on attracting international knowledge workers. Dutch official policies have recently aimed at streamlining permit procedures.

4.2 Trends

Table 4.1 shows that total expenditure on ALMPs and the total number of participants increased initially at the start of the crisis, but started to fall in 2011. The decline in the expenditure and the number of participants was largely due to the reduction of employment incentives.

Table 4.1 Trends 2008–13: ALMPs – expenditure and participants, per type of programme

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Expenditure								
Total ALMP	4283	4628	4694	4343	3897	na	−386	−9.0
Training	603	732	804	789	679	na	76	12.6
Employment incentives	892	1048	1079	876	501	na	−391	−43.8
Supported employment and rehabilitation	2788	2848	2811	2678	2717	na	−71	−2.6
Direct job creation	na	na	na	na	na	na		
Start-up incentives	na	na	na	na	na	na		
Participants								
Total ALMP*	315513	390590	390160	381060	367940	na	52427	16.6
Training	136540	171730	184460	172060	158440	na	21900	16.0
Employment incentives	32593	63180	65470	70520	66630	na	34037	104.4
Supported employment and rehabilitation	146380	155680	140230	138480	142870	na	−3510	−2.4
Direct job creation	na	na	na	na	na	na		
Start-up incentives	na	na	na	na	na	na		

Source: Eurostat (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database), 04-09-2014.

Notes: No figures available yet for 2013. * Including double counts due to persons who participate in more than one programme. Only very limited information is available for the number of participants by age and sex, therefore no breakdown by these characteristics is presented.

Table 4.2 Trends 2008–13: Training/vocational programmes

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Expenditure								
Total training	603.1	731.5	804.1	789.3	679.1	na	76	12.6
Participation budget WWB	69.2	80.0	92.0	101.9	67.1	na	−2	−3.0
Reintegration budget UWV regarding WW recipients	31.2	32.5	42.3	43.3	19.7	na	−12	−36.9
Minority-targeted LMP (stimulation labour participation) – training	1.5	36.3	42.7	15.1	na	na	14	906.7
WVA – Act on the reduction of employers' tax and social security contributions	291	348	377	386	382	na	91	31.3
WWB – national assistance benefits paid to participants training	163	172	190.4	197.3	187.6	na	25	15.1
WW – unemployment insurance benefits paid to participants in training	47.2	62.7	59.7	45.7	22.7	na	−25	−51.9
Participants								
Total training	136 540	171 730	184 460	172 060	158 440	na	21 900	16.0
Participation budget – training	18 900	20 100	22 300	21 200	19 500	na	600	3.2
Reintegration budget UWV regarding WW recipients – training	3 540	4 530	3 460	3 060	140	na	−3 400	−96.0
Minority-targeted LMP (stimulation labour participation) – training	700	16 000	19 400	6 800	na	na	6 100	871.4
WVA – Act on the reduction of employers' tax and social security contributions	113 400	131 100	139 300	141 000	138 800	na	25 400	22.4

Source: Eurostat (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database), 04-09-2014.

Table 4.3 Trends 2008–13: "Special" target groups (young, long-term unemployed, older workers, etc.)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Unemployed aged less than 25 years								
Labour market services	13 110	16 400	22 560	20 290	14 590	na	1 480	11.3
Training	na	na	na	na	na	na		
Employment incentives	1 330	1 540	1 670	na	na	na		
Supported employment and rehabilitation	12 550	14 280	13 010	12 440	12 720	na	170	1.4
Disabled and handicapped persons								
Supported employment and rehabilitation	146 380	155 680	140 230	138 480	142 870	na	−3 510	−2.4

Note: No figures for long-term unemployed and older workers.

Source: Eurostat (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database), 04-09-2014.

Table 4.4 Trends 2008–13: Public employment services (expenditure, (new) registrations, etc.)

	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Expenditures	1 799	2 180	2 301	2 234	1 755	na	−44	−2.4
Entrants	139 770	173 790	186 670	135 580	109 830	na	−29 940	−21.4
Stock	193 330	238 130	250 880	219 830	176 940	na	−16 390	−8.5

Source: Eurostat (http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/portal/page/portal/statistics/search_database), 04-09-2014.

Since the introduction of the SUWI Act in 2002, the social partners (trade unions and employers' associations) are no longer formally involved in either the administration of UBs or in the execution of public ALMPs. However, the social partners still play a considerable role in labour market policies at sectoral and company level. In most sectors sectoral education and training funds (abbreviated to O&O funds in Dutch) exist, which are funded by mandatory contributions of employers included in CLAs. These funds provide and/or fund training for employees and unemployed persons seeking a job in the sector at stake. In addition, many collective labour agreements include specific measures for vulnerable groups or those on apprenticeships.

4.3 ALMPs

From 2008, only a few additional measures were introduced. As indicated, the most important measures were the introduction of an STW scheme, succeeded by a part-time UB scheme. The numbers of firms and employed persons covered by both (850 and 7,800 firms and 45,000 and 76,000 employed persons, respectively) have remained limited, compared with the total impact of the economic crisis on employment, as have the macroeconomic effects of both arrangements. This may be explained by the strict entry conditions. For the STW scheme, the revenue of the company should have dropped by at least 30 per cent during two months and the trade unions (or the employee representation in the case of a company with less than 20 employees) should agree with application of the measure. Application for the part-time UB scheme also required the consent of the trade unions or employee representatives. Moreover, during the hours that the employees applied for a (part-time) unemployment benefit, they should be involved in activities that improved their labour market opportunities, such as training (Ministry of SZW 2014).

Apart from a short-term programme in 2009–10 of bringing forward planned expenditures on infrastructural investments, mainly in construction, no specific sectoral measures were introduced during the crisis. There were also no specific measures introduced for youth or for the working population aged 45 and over. Table 4.1 shows that total expenditures and the total number of participants in ALMPs actually declined after 2010. After 2010 the expenditure on employment incentives declined strongly as a consequence of the structural cut in the participation budget that is available for municipalities to provide wage cost subsidies for social assistance beneficiaries finding employment.

The developments described above can be projected against the backdrop of the dominant initial perception of the crisis in the Netherlands. ALMPs were regarded on the assumption that the crisis was an exceptional short-term event, to be followed in the medium and long term by a structural trend of a diminishing labour force and a tight labour market, in which labour shortages would pose a more serious problem than lack of employment. This analysis was largely based on the report of an expert committee from 2008 (Commissie Arbeidsparticipatie 2008), which was commissioned by the government and which concluded that impending labour shortages were the most important challenge for government policy in the next decade. Consequently, the government initially focused on specific measures to bridge the steep but supposedly short-lived decline in production in 2008 and 2009 by means of STW schemes. For the medium and long term, activation of the (potential) labour force and fostering job mobility were considered to be the most important goals of labour market policies. Therefore, ALMPs mainly focused on the supply side of the labour market, including the new sectoral plans. After the expiration of the temporary crisis measures, until October 2013 no official measures were implemented to boost labour demand.

On 1 October 2013 a new subsidy scheme for so-called sectoral plans was introduced. This scheme offers a total subsidy of €600 million for special employment measures initiated and implemented by the social partners and other actors at the sectoral level, focusing on specific sectoral problems. The government subsidy should be matched by (at least) an equal contribution of the sectoral actors. The sectoral plans focus mainly on training and the facilitation of job mobility.

The available budget for and the number of participants in sheltered workplaces for handicapped persons (WSW in Dutch) did not change much between 2008 and 2012. However, due to a radical reform of the WSW, the WWB (social assistance) and the Wajong (benefit scheme for disabled youth) merged under the so-called Participation Act passing Parliament in 2014; in the following years the number of participants and the expenditure on sheltered workplaces will be reduced strongly.

No specific programmes for direct job-creation and start-up initiatives exist in the Netherlands. Nevertheless, these measures may be included in broader programmes, such as in the participation budget of municipalities. However, no information is available on the expenditure for and the number of participants in these programmes.

Formally, all unemployed who claim either an unemployment benefit or social assistance are obliged to seek work and to accept a job. Consequently, no information is available on the share of the long-term unemployed who are actively seeking a job. However, table 1.1 (see section 1.3.1) shows that from 2008 until 2013 the number of persons aged 15–64 who are not active in the labour market has increased relatively more (+4.2 per cent) than the active labour force (+2.8 per cent). This implies that the activity rate (the labour force as a percentage of the population of working age) has declined slightly. Apparently, a number of persons not able to find a job have withdrawn from the labour market (discouraged worker effect).

4.4 Reform of vocational training

Though further reforms of vocational training have been discussed in the Netherlands for quite a while, little changed between 2008 and 2013. Current problems relate to the nature of the curriculum but also the attainment of a diploma, and occur in spite of strong reforms over the 1990s which have allowed a large role for employers in influencing the curriculum. Apprenticeships in enterprise are an important part of the public system of secondary vocational education (BBO-BBL). However, the number of pupil places has been decreasing very considerably, as the number of places offered by enterprise declined, by 42,000 or 25 per cent between 2008/09 and 2013/14, at a growing pace. This concerns especially male youths and ethnic minorities. Apparently, many of the pupils have shifted towards full-time in-school vocational education (MBO-BOL).

4.5 Policy regarding the EU mobile and third-country migrant population

In the period under scrutiny, and under the transitional measures, restrictions applied to migrants from Bulgaria and Romania. Since 1 January 2014, Bulgarian and Romanian citizens are able to register as legal workers in the Netherlands.

Dutch policies focus in particular on attracting international knowledge workers. Though earlier multinational firms operating in the Netherlands complained about the limited opportunities to hire knowledge workers from outside the EU, recent policy documents by the Ministries of Economic Affairs (2011) and Infrastructure and the Environment (2011) suggest that the Dutch government has recently taken a more active and inviting stand. Nevertheless, only one-sixth of all foreign workers in the Netherlands can be regarded as knowledge workers, and the Netherlands continues to attract relatively more low-skilled workers from abroad. In 2010, the average hourly wage of foreign knowledge workers was €31.40 (Dutch knowledge workers: €28.30), and the hourly wage of foreign non-knowledge workers €13.70 (Dutch non-knowledge workers: €15.80) (CBS 2013a).

Concerning these and other migrant categories, some Dutch official policies have recently aimed at streamlining permit procedures. On 1 June 2013, the Modern Migration Policy Act came into force. This Act combined the application procedures for a provisional residence permit and for the residence permit. For many aliens this meant no longer having to deal with a double application procedure and review. In addition, regular residence permits could be granted for longer periods, which meant fewer renewal procedures. According to the government, the enactment of the Act also meant that it would become easier, for instance, to switch to a different educational institute without this requiring a new permit. The new permit procedures may have to do with the complications caused earlier by the highly volatile number of asylum seekers entering the Netherlands, and its impact on the functioning of the official Immigration and Naturalization Service (IND). Many political debates have focused on this functioning.

It should be noted that Dutch immigration rules are rather strict for migrants from outside the EU, EEA, Turkey or Switzerland. Under the Law on Integration (*Inburgeringswet*) that came into force on 1 January 2007, immigrants have to pass a basic Dutch language test and a test of knowledge of Dutch society, even if they do not aspire to adopt the Dutch nationality.

Conclusion

How has the financial crisis affected employment? This report provides an inventory of the policy responses to the financial and economic crisis in the Netherlands. It contains four sections, concerning employment and employment policies; unemployment and unemployment benefits; wages and wage policies, and finally active labour market policies.

The focus of the first section is on changes in the employment and employment policies in the Netherlands, in particular on the policies concerning STW schemes in 2008 to 2010. In the period 2008–13 the labour force grew by 2.8 per cent, from 8.7 to almost 9.0 million persons. In this period, unemployment more than doubled, whereas the employed labour force declined by 1.1 per cent and the number of people not included in the labour force grew by 4.2 per cent. The Law on Work and Security (14 June 2014) is the most prominent piece of legislation, covering a number of changes in by-laws laid down in 2008–13. The Law includes a radical reform of employment protection legislation. Its main goal is to narrow the gap between the employment protection of open-ended and fixed-term contracts. During the crisis years employers increasingly used various methods to evade the statutory minimum wage, such as paying expense allowances instead of wages and the use of international bogus business set-ups. The governmental policies implemented to fight this misuse were presented. If precariousness is defined as including those employees with non-permanent contracts and the self-employed, then precariousness as a proportion of the total Dutch labour force grew considerably, from 33.0 per cent in 2008 to 37.4 per cent in 2013. Between 2008 and 2013, unemployment in the Netherlands more than doubled, to 335,000 registered unemployed and 656,000 unemployed. The increase in both groups was much larger for men than for women. In terms of duration of unemployment, the group with an unemployment duration of 12–24 months increased most rapidly, followed by the group with a duration of 6–12 months, whereas the group with a duration of over 24 months grew at the lowest rate. The flipside of the coin is shown by the number of vacancies. By 2013 the number of new vacancies had almost halved compared with 2008, whereas the number of unfilled vacancies declined even more.

Section 2, on unemployment benefits, social insurance and social assistance details their developments between the crisis year 2008 and 2013. The number of UB recipients increased strongly during the crisis. At the end of 2013 the figure stood at two-and-a-half times the level at the beginning of the crisis. The expenditure on unemployment benefits also more than doubled in this period. During the period 2008–13, no reforms of any substance with respect to the UB scheme were implemented. Exploring the cyclicality of reforms of unemployment benefits systems led to the conclusion that there is no direct linkage between UB and the business cycle. However, there is an automatic indexation mechanism for all social benefits, including UB and social assistance, whereas the entitlement conditions for social assistance are much stricter than for UB. The number of households primarily dependent on social assistance benefits is about three times as large as the number of households that depend mainly on an unemployment benefit. Finally, in spite of strong political debates, social action and a national bipartite Accord during the 2008–13 period, actual changes in the system of occupational pensions are still under discussion.

Section 3, on wages, focuses on the wage impact of the financial and economic crisis in Europe, including minimum wages, public-sector wages, and wage bargaining. In 2008–13 the nominal hourly wage grew by 10 per cent, implying that in real terms there was zero change. Wages as contracted in collective agreements rose less (8 per cent) and actually declined in real terms by 2 per cent. Real wages have clearly fallen with very notable differences by age, industry and type of labour contract. The role of minimum-wage employment first grew but then stagnated and declined, though no policy measures to freeze the minimum wage were taken. Wage inequality changed very little but there may be important composition effects hidden behind this stability as the least-paid jobs fell away and the whole remaining distribution of wages seems to have shifted upwards while maintaining its structure of inequality. During 2008–13, there were no major debates on the role of wage bargaining and wage flexibility, except for the debate on bonuses and similar payments to CEOs and other top executives. The crisis has hardly modified the role of actors in shaping wage policy. The internal coordination mechanisms inside the employers' ranks and the trade union movement hardly seem to have changed.

In the Netherlands, non-compliance with both collective bargaining outcomes and labour legislation seems to apply more to non-wage issues than to wages. The widespread incidence of job evaluation schemes leave only limited room for employers to choose the wage that goes with a job. In 2008–13, hardly any changes took place in the adoption and use of these schemes and the related grids. Quite limited data is available concerning employment creation and destruction, "green jobs" and start-up firms. Some evidence is available for foreign-controlled enterprises, showing that their share in private sector employment of the Netherlands rose nearly 2 percentage points between 2008 and 2011. The Netherlands had programmes aiming at wage subsidies. Yet, after an initial rise until 2009 the total of subsidies paid on labour costs halved over the period under scrutiny.

Section 4, on active labour market policies, shows that total expenditure on ALMPs and the number of participants in ALMPs initially increased between 2008 and 2010, but declined recently. The most important ALMP measures were an STW scheme succeeded by a part-time UB scheme, in 2008–10, effective from April 2009 until July 2011. Except for stimulus packages in 2009–10 aimed at infrastructural projects, covering mainly construction, no specific sectoral measures were introduced during the crisis. Finally, this section discusses the Dutch policies regarding the EU mobile and third-country migrant population, showing that in the period under scrutiny under the transitional measures restrictions applied to migrants from Bulgaria and Romania, whereas other policies focused on attracting international knowledge workers. Recently, Dutch official policies have aimed at streamlining permit procedures.

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Appendix

Table A1. Trends 2008–13: Employment and unemployment (thousand persons)

Labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total		8 722	8 786	8 761	8 757	8 893	8 965	243	2.8
Employed		8 454	8 460	8 371	8 369	8 424	8 365	–89	–1.1
Unemployed		267	327	390	389	469	600	333	124.7
People not included in the labour force		4 594	4 607	4 696	4 764	4 739	4 788	194	4.2
	Gender								
Total	Men	4 775	4 781	4 734	4 709	4 779	4 826	51	1.1
	Women	3 947	4 005	4 027	4 048	4 114	4 139	192	4.9
Employed	Men	4 641	4 606	4 525	4 499	4 524	4 485	–156	–3.4
	Women	3 813	3 853	3 846	3 870	3 900	3 880	67	1.8
Unemployed	Men	134	175	208	211	254	341	207	154.5
	Women	134	152	182	178	214	259	125	93.3
People not included in the labour force	Men	1 783	1 814	1 890	1 945	1 938	1 959	176	9.9
	Women	2 811	2 793	2 806	2 818	2 801	2 829	18	0.6
	Age (years)								
Total	Total	8 722	8 786	8 761	8 757	8 893	8 965	243	2.8
	15–25	1 409	1 413	1 385	1 383	1 415	1 429	20	1.4
	25–35	1 796	1 785	1 772	1 764	1 790	1 807	11	0.6
	35–45	2 255	2 216	2 149	2 075	2 036	1 998	–257	–11.4
	45–55	2 027	2 064	2 100	2 127	2 150	2 160	133	6.6
	55–65	1 118	1 170	1 213	1 266	1 323	1 381	263	23.5
	65–75	103	124	130	132	164	172	69	67.0
	75 and older	13	14	12	12	15	19	6	46.2
Employed	Total	8 454	8 460	8 371	8 369	8 424	8 365	–89	–1.1
	15–25	1 320	1 304	1 264	1 277	1 281	1 271	–49	–3.7
	25–35	1 755	1 726	1 701	1 690	1 702	1 689	–66	–3.8
	35–45	2 208	2 155	2 075	2 003	1 949	1 884	–324	–14.7
	45–55	1 980	2 008	2 027	2 047	2 063	2 046	66	3.3
	55–65	1 080	1 131	1 165	1 214	1 260	1 294	214	19.8
	65–75	98	121	126	125	155	162	64	65.3
	75 and older	13	14	12	12	15	19	6	46.2

Table A1. Trends 2008–13: Employment and unemployment (thousand persons)

Labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Unemployed	Total	267	327	390	389	469	600	333	124.7
	15–25	89	109	121	106	134	157	68	76.4
	25–35	40	60	71	73	89	119	79	197.5
	35–45	48	61	74	71	87	113	65	135.4
	45–55	47	55	73	79	88	114	67	142.6
	55–65	38	38	47	53	62	87	49	128.9
	65–75	5	3	4	7	9	10	5	100.0
	75 and older	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
People not included in the labour force	Total	4 594	4 607	4 696	4 764	4 739	4 788	194	4.2
	15–25	569	584	621	627	608	611	42	7.4
	25–35	200	196	204	216	217	232	32	16.0
	35–45	283	270	274	287	276	268	–15	–5.3
	45–55	368	365	358	352	348	355	–13	–3.5
	55–65	971	951	942	897	829	773	–198	–20.4
	65–75	1 215	1 233	1 265	1 326	1 385	1 453	238	19.6
	75 and older	987	1 007	1 032	1 057	1 076	1 096	109	11.0
	Education								
Total	Total	8 722	8 786	8 761	8 757	8 893		171	2.0
	Pre-primary	51	60	56	58	56		5	9.8
	Primary	438	433	432	453	442		4	0.9
	Lower secondary	1 825	1 797	1 735	1 761	1 748		–77	–4.2
	Upper secondary	3 420	3 444	3 409	3 411	3 485		65	1.9
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	288	278	270	240	223		–65	–22.6
	Tertiary	2 566	2 639	2 725	2 711	2 807		241	9.4
	Doctorate (PhD)	61	60	54	46	45		–16	–26.2
	Level unknown	73	75	78	79	85		12	16.4
Employed	Total	8 454	8 460	8 371	8 369	8 424		–30	–0.4
	Pre-primary	47	55	52	52	51		4	8.5
	Primary	406	397	386	410	392		–14	–3.4
	Lower secondary	1 743	1 703	1 623	1 652	1 615		–128	–7.3
	Upper secondary	3 329	3 326	3 271	3 272	3 310		–19	–0.6
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	282	272	263	231	215		–67	–23.8
	Tertiary	2 517	2 577	2 650	2 633	2 718		201	8.0
	Doctorate (PhD)	60	59	53	45	45		–15	–25.0
	Level unknown	70	70	73	73	79		9	12.9
Unemployed	Total	267	327	390	389	469		202	75.7
	Pre-primary	4	4	4	5	6		2	50.0
	Primary	32	36	45	42	50		18	56.3

Table A1. Trends 2008–13: Employment and unemployment (thousand persons)

Labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Unemployed	Lower secondary	81	94	112	109	133		52	64.2
	Upper secondary	91	117	139	139	175		84	92.3
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	6	7	8	9	9		3	50.0
	Tertiary	49	62	75	78	89		40	81.6
	Doctorate (PhD)	–	–	–	–	–			
	Level unknown	3	5	5	6	6		3	100.0
People not included in the labour force	Total	4 594	4 607	4 696	4 764	4 739		145	3.2
	Pre-primary	143	146	148	144	138		–5	–3.5
	Primary	783	765	779	774	761		–22	–2.8
	Lower secondary	1 614	1 627	1 633	1 639	1 624		10	0.6
	Upper secondary	1 274	1 264	1 315	1 364	1 365		91	7.1
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	134	128	126	117	107		–27	–20.1
	Tertiary	610	643	652	683	693		83	13.6
	Doctorate (PhD)	7	10	12	10	9		2	28.6
	Level unknown	28	23	31	32	41		13	46.4

Table A2. Trends 2008–13: Permanent and flexible jobs (thousand persons)

Contracts of employed labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total employees		7 249	7 237	7 137	7 114	7 132	7 018	–231	–3.2
Of which: permanent jobs		5 642	5 636	5 533	5 482	5 403	5 211	–431	–7.6
Of which: flexible jobs		1 607	1 601	1 604	1 632	1 729	1 806	199	12.4
Self-employed		1 163	1 180	1 186	1 202	1 245	1 304	141	12.1
Family workers		42	42	46	52	47	43	1	2.4
	Gender								
Total employees	Men	3 857	3 819	3 724	3 688	3 689	3 616	–241	–6.2
	Women	3 392	3 418	3 414	3 426	3 443	3 402	10	0.3
Of which: permanent jobs	Men	3 098	3 072	2 966	2 913	2 850	2 731	–367	–11.8
	Women	2 544	2 563	2 567	2 569	2 552	2 480	–64	–2.5
Of which: flexible jobs	Men	760	746	757	776	839	885	125	16.4
	Women	847	855	847	856	890	921	74	8.7
Self-employed	Men	775	778	790	797	822	857	82	10.6
	Women	387	402	396	406	424	447	60	15.5
Family workers	Men	9	10	11	13	14	12	3	33.3
	Women	33	33	36	39	33	31	–2	–6.1

Table A2. Trends 2 008–13: Permanent and flexible jobs (thousand persons)

Contracts of employed labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Age (years)								
Total employees	15–25	1 268	1 249	1 208	1 223	1 227	1 201	−67	−5.3
	25–35	1 594	1 567	1 540	1 521	1 523	1 506	−88	−5.5
	35–45	1 857	1 802	1 737	1 662	1 615	1 545	−312	−16.8
	45–55	1 645	1 667	1 669	1 688	1 690	1 656	11	0.7
	55–65	835	886	917	958	997	1 021	186	22.3
	65–75	44	60	61	57	72	81	37	84.1
	75 and older	5	6	5	4	6	8	3	60.0
Of which: permanent jobs	15–25	575	549	494	485	443	397	−178	−31.0
	25–35	1 238	1 222	1 187	1 156	1 136	1 084	−154	−12.4
	35–45	1 598	1 559	1 511	1 444	1 387	1 316	−282	−17.6
	45–55	1 473	1 495	1 498	1 513	1 510	1 467	−6	−0.4
	55–65	743	788	817	860	898	919	176	23.7
	65–75	15	23	25	23	28	27	12	80.0
	75 and older	–	–	–	–	2	–		
Of which: flexible jobs	15–25	694	700	715	738	784	804	110	15.9
	25–35	356	345	353	365	387	422	66	18.5
	35–45	259	244	226	218	228	229	−30	−11.6
	45–55	173	172	171	175	181	189	16	9.2
	55–65	93	98	99	98	100	102	9	9.7
	65–75	29	37	36	34	45	53	24	82.8
	75 and older	4	5	4	3	4	7	3	75.0
Self-employed	15–25	47	49	50	50	49	65	18	38.3
	25–35	156	153	154	164	172	178	22	14.1
	35–45	339	341	328	329	322	328	−11	−3.2
	45–55	323	331	345	343	358	378	55	17.0
	55–65	237	237	239	243	253	264	27	11.4
	65–75	53	61	63	66	81	79	26	49.1
	75 and older	9	8	7	7	9	11	2	22.2
Family workers	15–25	5	6	5	4	5	4	−1	−20.0
	25–35	5	6	7	6	6	5	0	0.0
	35–45	12	11	10	12	11	11	−1	−8.3
	45–55	12	10	13	16	14	12	0	0.0
	55–65	8	8	9	12	10	9	1	12.5
	65–75	–	–	2	2	–	2		
	75 and older	–	–	–	–	–	–		
	Education								
Total employees	Pre-primary	42	49	44	43	43		1	2.4
	Primary	357	347	337	355	339		−18	−5.0
	Lower secondary	1 528	1 494	1 415	1 440	1 402		−126	−8.2
	Upper secondary	2 865	2 856	2 801	2 811	2 838		−27	−0.9

Table A2. Trends 2008–13: Permanent and flexible jobs (thousand persons)

Contracts of employed labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Total employees	Post-secondary non-tertiary	245	237	230	199	182		−63	−25.7
	Tertiary	2 102	2 144	2 204	2 170	2 227		125	5.9
	Doctorate (PhD)	46	47	42	34	33		−13	−28.3
	Level unknown	62	63	64	62	67		5	8.1
Of which: permanent jobs	Pre-primary	31	37	33	34	32		1	3.2
	Primary	246	240	232	247	228		−18	−7.3
	Lower secondary	1 057	1 030	972	992	949		−108	−10.2
	Upper secondary	2 233	2 225	2 166	2 155	2 135		−98	−4.4
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	214	208	198	173	158		−56	−26.2
	Tertiary	1 780	1 811	1 849	1 808	1 824		44	2.5
	Doctorate (PhD)	39	40	36	29	29		−10	−25.6
	Level unknown	43	46	47	46	48		5	11.6
Of which: flexible jobs	Pre-primary	11	12	11	9	11		0	0.0
	Primary	111	107	106	108	111		0	0.0
	Lower secondary	472	464	443	448	453		−19	−4.0
	Upper secondary	633	631	634	656	703		70	11.1
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	31	29	31	26	24		−7	−22.6
	Tertiary	323	334	356	362	403		80	24.8
	Doctorate (PhD)	7	7	6	5	5		−2	−28.6
	Level unknown	19	17	17	16	20		1	5.3
Self-employed	Pre-primary	4	6	8	9	7		3	75.0
	Primary	46	46	46	52	49		3	6.5
	Lower secondary	202	198	194	197	201		−1	−0.5
	Upper secondary	445	452	450	441	454		9	2.0
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	36	34	32	30	31		−5	−13.9
	Tertiary	408	425	437	453	480		72	17.6
	Doctorate (PhD)	14	13	11	11	11		−3	−21.4
	Level unknown	8	7	8	10	11		3	37.5
Family workers	Pre-primary	–	–	–	–	–			
	Primary	3	4	3	4	4		1	33.3
	Lower secondary	13	11	14	15	12		−1	−7.7
	Upper secondary	18	18	19	21	18		0	0.0
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	–	–	–	2	–			
	Tertiary	6	8	8	10	11		5	83.3
	Doctorate (PhD)	–	–	–	–	–			
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–			

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Table A3. Trends 2008–13: Working hours (thousand persons)

Working hours per week of employed labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total		8454	8460	8372	8369	8424	8364	−90	−1.1
1–19		1610	1617	1590	1572	1598	1610	0	0.0
20–34		2198	2275	2314	2347	2404	2417	219	10.0
> 35		4612	4531	4422	4392	4357	4259	−353	−7.7
Unknown		34	37	46	58	65	78	44	129.4
	Gender								
Total	Men	4642	4607	4526	4499	4525	4484	−158	−3.4
	Women	3812	3853	3846	3870	3899	3880	68	1.8
1–19	Men	468	482	480	476	505	532	64	13.7
	Women	1142	1135	1110	1096	1093	1078	−64	−5.6
20–34	Men	536	560	577	578	597	609	73	13.6
	Women	1662	1715	1737	1769	1807	1808	146	8.8
> 35	Men	3623	3549	3450	3419	3392	3305	−318	−8.8
	Women	989	982	972	973	965	954	−35	−3.5
Unknown	Men	15	16	19	26	31	38	23	153.3
	Women	19	21	27	32	34	40	21	110.5
Average	Men	37	36.7	36.5	36.4	36	35.6	−1.4	−3.8
	Women	25.2	25.2	25.2	25.2	25.3	25.2	0	0.0
	Age (years)								
1–19	Total	1610	1617	1590	1571	1598	1610	0	0.0
	15–25	647	658	658	665	673	685	38	5.9
	25–35	151	148	143	150	147	158	7	4.6
	35–45	275	255	242	217	214	198	−77	−28.0
	45–55	258	260	248	243	249	245	−13	−5.0
	55–65	215	220	220	221	223	220	5	2.3
	65–75	55	65	71	69	82	93	38	69.1
	75 and older	8	10	8	6	10	12	4	50.0
20–34	Total	2198	2276	2313	2347	2404	2417	219	10.0
	15–25	245	252	246	253	261	251	6	2.4
	25–35	441	456	461	464	491	492	51	11.6
	35–45	627	646	629	619	610	606	−21	−3.3
	45–55	563	576	602	614	628	634	71	12.6
	55–65	298	314	343	362	374	393	95	31.9
	65–75	21	29	30	31	37	38	17	81.0
	75 and older	3	3	2	3	4	3	0	0.0
> 35	Total	4612	4531	4421	4392	4357	4260	−352	−7.6
	15–25	412	378	339	332	316	302	−110	−26.7
	25–35	1161	1119	1093	1069	1057	1029	−132	−11.4
	35–45	1302	1249	1199	1161	1119	1072	−230	−17.7

Table A3. Trends 2008–13: Working hours (thousand persons)

Working hours per week of employed labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
>35	45–55	1 155	1 168	1 171	1 184	1 178	1 158	3	0.3
	55–65	561	591	595	624	655	672	111	19.8
	65–75	19	25	23	21	31	24	5	26.3
	75 and older	2	–	2	2	–	2	0	0.0
Unknown	Total	33	36	46	59	65	79	46	139.4
	15–25	16	17	21	27	31	34	18	112.5
	25–35	3	3	4	7	7	10	7	233.3
	35–45	3	4	5	6	6	9	6	200.0
	45–55	4	5	6	6	7	9	5	125.0
	55–65	5	6	7	7	9	9	4	80.0
	65–75	3	2	2	4	5	7	4	133.3
	75 and older	–	–	–	–	–	–		
Average	Total	31.7	31.5	31.3	31.2	31	30.8	–0.9	–2.8
	15–25	21.7	21.1	20.4	20.2	19.8	19.3	–2.4	–11.1
	25–35	34.9	34.6	34.6	34.3	34.2	33.8	–1.1	–3.2
	35–45	33.9	33.9	33.8	33.9	33.7	33.6	–0.3	–0.9
	45–55	33.6	33.6	33.7	33.6	33.5	33.5	–0.1	–0.3
	55–65	31.6	31.5	31.4	31.5	31.6	31.5	–0.1	–0.3
	65–75	19.6	20.5	19.2	18.4	19.7	17.1	–2.5	–12.8
	75 and older	15.3	14.8	15.4	15.5	12.9	14.7	–0.6	–3.9
	Education								
1–19	Total	1 610	1 617	1 590	1 571	1 598		–12	–0.7
	Pre-primary	6	9	7	7	8		2	33.3
	Primary	137	132	126	130	128		–9	–6.6
	Lower secondary	520	510	495	491	497		–23	–4.4
	Upper secondary	654	666	660	639	654		0	0.0
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	40	36	38	30	25		–15	–37.5
	Tertiary	244	256	256	264	276		32	13.1
	Doctorate (PhD)	4	3	2	2	2		–2	–50.0
	Level unknown	5	6	6	7	8		3	60.0
20–34	Total	2 198	2 276	2 313	2 347	2 404		206	9.4
	Pre-primary	9	12	12	12	12		3	33.3
	Primary	77	78	84	91	91		14	18.2
	Lower secondary	382	392	372	381	376		–6	–1.6
	Upper secondary	885	915	937	957	985		100	11.3
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	84	84	81	69	69		–15	–17.9
	Tertiary	731	766	794	807	841		110	15.0
	Doctorate (PhD)	13	12	11	9	10		–3	–23.1
	Level unknown	16	18	21	20	21		5	31.3

Table A3. Trends 2008–13: Working hours (thousand persons)

Working hours per week of employed labour force (international definition)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
>35	Total	4612	4531	4421	4392	4357		–255	–5.5
	Pre-primary	31	34	32	33	30		–1	–3.2
	Primary	191	185	173	185	168		–23	–12.0
	Lower secondary	831	791	744	765	725		–106	–12.8
	Upper secondary	1775	1730	1655	1651	1643		–132	–7.4
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	157	151	143	131	119		–38	–24.2
	Tertiary	1535	1548	1589	1549	1588		53	3.5
	Doctorate (PhD)	44	45	41	33	33		–11	–25.0
	Level unknown	48	46	45	45	50		2	4.2
Unknown	Total	33	36	46	59	65		32	97.0
	Pre-primary	–	–	–	–	–			
	Primary	2	2	3	4	5		3	150.0
	Lower secondary	10	10	12	15	18		8	80.0
	Upper secondary	14	16	19	25	28		14	100.0
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	–	–	–	–	–			
	Tertiary	6	7	11	13	13		7	116.7
	Doctorate (PhD)	–	–	–	–	–			
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–			
Average	Total	31.7	31.5	31.3	31.2	31		–0.7	–2.2
	Pre-primary	33.8	33.4	33.8	33.2	32.4		–1.4	–4.1
	Primary	27.4	27.3	27.1	27.5	26.8		–0.6	–2.2
	Lower secondary	28.5	28.2	28.1	28.2	27.7		–0.8	–2.8
	Upper secondary	31.6	31.3	31	31	30.8		–0.8	–2.5
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	32.7	32.7	32.5	32.9	32.8		0.1	0.3
	Tertiary	34.2	34.1	34	33.7	33.6		–0.6	–1.8
	Doctorate (PhD)	37.4	37.9	38.3	37.6	37.8		0.4	1.1
	Level unknown	35.4	34.7	34.2	34.4	34.6		–0.8	–2.3

Table A4. Trends 2008–13: Effective duration of employment (tenure) (thousand persons)

Job duration employed labour force aged 15–64 (excluding persons with a job <12 hours per week)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total		7502	7469	7391	7391	7388	7284	−218	−2.9
< 1 year		1210	1033	947	972	928	865	−345	−28.5
1–5 years		1973	2137	2186	2143	2078	1904	−69	−3.5
5–10 years		1609	1515	1402	1370	1411	1463	−146	−9.1
10–20 years		1374	1441	1509	1581	1633	1656	282	20.5
≥ 20 years		1183	1197	1230	1271	1278	1300	117	9.9
Seniority unknown		153	146	117	54	60	96	−57	−37.3
Average seniority (years)		9.6	9.8	10	10.1	10.2	10.6	1	10.4
	Gender								
Total	Men	4265	4201	4118	4095	4069	3999	−266	−6.2
	Women	3235	3270	3271	3298	3318	3283	48	1.5
< 1 year	Men	645	535	495	521	490	461	−184	−28.5
	Women	564	499	452	452	438	404	−160	−28.4
1–5 years	Men	1109	1181	1172	1132	1083	1000	−109	−9.8
	Women	864	957	1014	1012	994	903	39	4.5
5–10 years	Men	825	773	729	717	758	773	−52	−6.3
	Women	784	742	672	653	654	689	−95	−12.1
10–20 years	Men	784	813	829	855	865	869	85	10.8
	Women	589	628	680	726	768	787	198	33.6
≥ 20 years	Men	837	837	836	833	833	836	−1	−0.1
	Women	346	360	394	438	444	464	118	34.1
Seniority unknown	Men	65	62	57	37	40	60	−5	−7.7
	Women	88	84	59	17	20	36	−52	−59.1
Average seniority (years)	Men	10.6	10.8	11	11	11.1	11.5	0.9	8.5
	Women	8.2	8.4	8.7	9	9.2	9.6	1.4	17.1
	Age								
< 1 years	Total	1210	1033	947	972	928	865	−345	−28.5
	15–25	377	338	315	334	327	300	−77	−20.4
	25–35	364	305	282	287	271	267	−97	−26.6
	35–45	266	216	189	188	172	155	−111	−41.7
	45–55	153	135	123	125	119	107	−46	−30.1
	55–65	50	39	39	39	38	36	−14	−28.0
1–5 years	Total	1973	2137	2186	2143	2078	1904	−69	−3.5
	15–25	346	364	359	372	365	354	8	2.3
	25–35	677	730	752	714	705	648	−29	−4.3
	35–45	535	575	578	548	511	444	−91	−17.0
	45–55	316	355	381	378	368	335	19	6.0
	55–65	100	113	116	132	130	122	22	22.0

Table A4. Trends 2 008–13: Effective duration of employment (tenure) (thousand persons)

Job duration employed labour force aged 15–64 (excluding persons with a job <12 hours per week)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
5–10 years	Total	1 609	1 515	1 402	1 370	1 411	1 463	–146	–9.1
	15–25	59	55	52	54	56	65	6	10.2
	25–35	477	438	413	425	445	468	–9	–1.9
	35–45	544	498	440	418	420	431	–113	–20.8
	45–55	393	379	353	335	342	359	–34	–8.7
	55–65	136	146	143	138	149	140	4	2.9
10–20 years	Total	1 374	1 441	1 509	1 581	1 633	1 656	282	20.5
	15–25	–	–	–	2	–	3		
	25–35	164	176	183	194	206	210	46	28.0
	35–45	571	590	601	605	605	613	42	7.4
	45–55	428	452	479	514	536	536	108	25.2
	55–65	210	222	246	266	285	295	85	40.5
≥ 20 years	Total	1 183	1 197	1 230	1 271	1 278	1 300	117	9.9
	15–25	–	–	–	–	–	–		
	25–35	–	–	–	–	–	–		
	35–45	170	161	167	159	154	143	–27	–15.9
	45–55	557	560	572	591	586	583	26	4.7
	55–65	456	476	491	521	538	573	117	25.7
Seniority unknown	Total	153	146	117	54	60	96	–57	–37.3
	15–25	50	45	29	2	3	5	–45	–90.0
	25–35	22	22	20	10	11	19	–3	–13.6
	35–45	32	29	26	18	16	26	–6	–18.8
	45–55	32	31	26	15	19	29	–3	–9.4
	55–65	17	19	16	9	10	17	0	0.0
Average seniority (years)	Total	9.6	9.8	10	10.1	10.2	10.6	1	10.4
	15–25	1.7	1.8	1.8	1.8	1.9	2	0.3	17.6
	25–35	4.4	4.5	4.5	4.7	4.8	4.9	0.5	11.4
	35–45	8.5	8.6	8.7	8.7	8.8	9.2	0.7	8.2
	45–55	13.7	13.6	13.6	13.8	13.8	14.1	0.4	2.9
	55–65	19.7	19.9	19.9	19.7	19.7	20.5	0.8	4.1
	Education								
< 1 year	Total	1 210	1 033	947	972	928		–282	–23.3
	Primary	63	52	44	49	41		–22	–34.9
	Lower secondary	263	218	200	206	185		–78	–29.7
	Upper secondary	111	95	89	87	80		–31	–27.9
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	501	423	385	400	385		–116	–23.2
	Tertiary	221	199	189	190	185		–36	–16.3
	Doctorate (PhD)	139	121	111	112	117		–22	–15.8
	Level unknown	23	21	18	15	16		–7	–30.4

Table A4. Trends 2008–13: Effective duration of employment (tenure) (thousand persons)									
Job duration employed labour force aged 15–64 (excluding persons with a job <12 hours per week)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
1–5 years	Total	1 973	2 137	2 186	2 143	2 078		105	5.3
	Primary	76	80	79	85	76		0	0.0
	Lower secondary	347	367	343	352	330		–17	–4.9
	Upper secondary	126	132	127	137	126		0	0.0
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	813	875	900	885	856		43	5.3
	Tertiary	435	477	512	501	489		54	12.4
	Doctorate (PhD)	283	316	327	297	304		21	7.4
	Level unknown	19	22	24	23	22		3	15.8
5–10 years	Total	1 609	1 515	1 402	1 370	1 411		–198	–12.3
	Primary	68	63	56	59	58		–10	–14.7
	Lower secondary	252	241	212	218	205		–47	–18.7
	Upper secondary	81	75	68	74	71		–10	–12.3
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	720	670	607	576	596		–124	–17.2
	Tertiary	356	341	329	331	351		–5	–1.4
	Doctorate (PhD)	201	190	187	177	191		–10	–5.0
	Level unknown	11	10	10	9	11		0	0.0
10–20 years	Total	1 374	1 441	1 509	1 581	1 633		259	18.9
	Primary	68	71	79	84	80		12	17.6
	Lower secondary	242	241	250	267	268		26	10.7
	Upper secondary	73	75	85	92	91		18	24.7
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	622	646	665	696	714		92	14.8
	Tertiary	280	310	330	341	366		86	30.7
	Doctorate (PhD)	153	166	178	182	193		40	26.1
	Level of : unknown	8	7	8	10	12		4	50.0
≥ 20 years	Total	1 183	1 197	1 230	1 271	1 278		95	8.0
	Primary	68	71	72	80	76		8	11.8
	Lower secondary	247	244	246	256	254		7	2.8
	Upper secondary	72	69	70	76	79		7	9.7
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	522	536	540	553	565		43	8.2
	Tertiary	236	242	258	266	262		26	11.0
	Doctorate (PhD)	105	99	109	109	113		8	7.6
	Level unknown	4	4	6	7	7		3	75.0
Seniority unknown	Total	153	146	117	54	60		–93	–60.8
	Primary	8	11	7	5	5		–3	–37.5
	Lower secondary	37	35	27	10	13		–24	–64.9
	Upper secondary	16	17	11	3	4		–12	–75.0
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	69	61	50	19	21		–48	–69.6
	Tertiary	24	24	20	10	9		–15	–62.5
	Doctorate (PhD)	14	13	11	7	5		–9	–64.3
	Level unknown	2	3	3	4	7		5	250.0

Table A4. Trends 2008–13: Effective duration of employment (tenure) (thousand persons)

Job duration employed labour force aged 15–64 (excluding persons with a job <12 hours per week)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Average seniority (years)	Total	9.6	9.8	10	10.1	10.2		0.6	6.3
	Primary	10.8	11.5	11.8	11.8	12		1.2	11.1
	Lower secondary	9.9	10.2	10.5	10.6	10.9		1	10.1
	Upper secondary	8.8	8.9	9.3	9.5	9.9		1.1	12.5
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	9.8	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.5		0.7	7.1
	Tertiary	9.4	9.6	9.7	9.9	9.9		0.5	5.3
	Doctorate (PhD)	8.2	8.1	8.4	8.7	8.7		0.5	6.1
	Level unknown	5.6	5.4	6.2	7.4	7.5		1.9	33.9

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Table A5. Trends 2008–13: Registered unemployed and unemployed labour force 15–65 years (thousand persons)

Unemployed		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total registered unemployed (abs.), not seasonally adjusted		153	201	231	213	252	335	182	119.0
Total unemployed labour force		300	377	426	419	507	656	356	118.7
	Gender								
Total registered unemployed (abs.), not seasonally adjusted	Men	82	116	135	125	150	201	119	145.1
	Women	71	85	95	88	102	134	63	88.7
Total unemployed labour force	Men	142	197	218	224	274	355	213	150.0
	Women	158	180	208	195	233	301	143	90.5
Annual change	Men	–12	55	21	6	50	81	93	–775.0
	Women	–32	22	28	–13	38	69	101	–315.6
Unemployment rate	Men	3.2	4.5	5	5.2	6.3	8.2	5	156.3
	Women	4.7	5.2	6	5.6	6.6	8.4	3.7	78.7
	Age (years)								
Total registered unemployed (abs.), not seasonally adjusted	16–25	9	18	18	10	14	19	10	111.1
	25–35	24	41	44	40	52	67	43	179.2
	35–65	119	142	169	163	185	248	129	108.4
Change on same period previous year	16–65	–38	48	30	–18	39	83	121	–318.4
Total unemployed labour force	15–25	76	99	100	83	108	137	61	80.3
	25–45	120	159	181	184	219	278	158	131.7
	45–65	104	119	145	152	179	241	137	131.7
Annual change	15–25	–5	23	1	–17	25	29	34	–680.0
	25–45	–20	40	22	3	36	59	79	–395.0
	45–65	–18	14	26	7	27	62	80	–444.4

Table A5. Trends 2008–13: Registered unemployed and unemployed labour force 15–65 years (thousand persons)

Unemployed		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
Unemployment rate	15–25	8.4	11	11.7	9.8	12.6	15.9	7.5	89.3
	25–45	3	4.1	4.7	4.9	5.9	7.5	4.5	150.0
	45–65	3.5	3.9	4.6	4.7	5.4	7.1	3.6	102.9
	Education								
Total unemployed labour force (15–65)	Primary	30	33	37	36	40	56	26	86.7
	Lower secondary	69	85	97	90	110	117	48	69.6
	Upper secondary	27	31	36	32	38	32	5	18.5
	Post-secondary non-tertiary	99	128	145	146	178	251	152	153.5
	Tertiary	28	43	51	51	60	74	46	164.3
	Doctorate (PhD)	27	25	31	31	34	42	15	55.6
	Level unknown	4	6	6	6	7	15	11	275.0

Table A6. Trends 2008–13: Unemployed labour force by unemployment duration (thousand persons)

Unemployment duration (months)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total		300	377	426	419	507	656	356	118.7
0–6		131	201	202	188	229	272	141	107.6
6–12		44	71	90	75	101	121	77	175.0
12–24		36	30	62	71	70	119	83	230.6
24 or longer		73	61	59	68	92	116	43	58.9
Not specified		16	13	14	16	15	28	12	75.0
	Gender								
0–6	Men	59	105	102	99	122	149	90	152.5
	Women	72	96	100	89	107	123	51	70.8
6–12	Men	19	37	46	36	53	68	49	257.9
	Women	25	34	43	39	48	53	28	112.0
12–24	Men	18	16	35	41	38	63	45	250.0
	Women	18	14	28	30	32	57	39	216.7
24 or longer	Men	37	31	29	38	53	60	23	62.2
	Women	36	30	30	30	39	55	19	52.8
Not specified	Men	9	7	7	9	9	15	6	66.7
	Women	7	6	7	7	6	13	6	85.7
Total	Men	142	197	218	224	274	355	213	150.0
	Women	158	180	208	195	233	301	143	90.5

Table A6. Trends 2008–13: Unemployed labour force by unemployment duration (thousand persons)

Unemployment duration (months)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Age (years)								
0–6	15–25	46	61	62	52	67	77	31	67.4
	25–35	32	48	53	54	65	70	38	118.8
	35–45	26	47	37	34	45	54	28	107.7
	45–55	19	33	36	32	33	46	27	142.1
	55–65	8	12	13	17	19	25	17	212.5
6–12	15–25	9	17	15	10	19	23	14	155.6
	25–35	8	17	15	17	21	27	19	237.5
	35–45	13	16	27	19	23	28	15	115.4
	45–55	10	13	21	18	25	28	18	180.0
	55–65	5	9	12	11	12	15	10	200.0
12–24	15–25	4	5	10	6	7	15	11	275.0
	25–35	7	6	10	13	13	23	16	228.6
	35–45	8	5	16	17	15	29	21	262.5
	45–55	9	8	15	20	19	29	20	222.2
	55–65	7	5	11	15	16	23	16	228.6
24 or longer	15–25	5	4	3	4	6	7	2	40.0
	25–35	8	8	5	12	14	17	9	112.5
	35–45	15	11	14	14	19	22	7	46.7
	45–55	23	18	19	19	29	37	14	60.9
	55–65	22	21	18	19	24	33	11	50.0
Not specified	15–25	13	12	10	12	10	15	2	15.4
	25–35	2	–	3	3	3	6	4	200.0
	35–45	–	–	–	–	–	3		
	45–55	–	–	–	–	–	2		
	55–65	–	–	–	–	–	2		
Total	15–25	76	99	100	83	108	137	61	80.3
	25–35	56	79	86	99	116	143	87	155.4
	35–45	63	80	95	85	103	135	72	114.3
	45–55	62	71	91	91	107	143	81	130.6
	55–65	42	48	54	61	72	98	56	133.3
	Education								
0–6	Primary + lower secondary	50	70	68	58	73	77	27	54.0
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	52	87	89	83	96	126	74	142.3
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	29	44	43	47	59	67	38	131.0
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–	2		
6–12	Primary + lower secondary	18	28	34	26	36	40	22	122.2
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	16	29	34	31	45	53	37	231.3
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	10	15	22	18	20	26	16	160.0
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–	2		

Table A6. Trends 2008–13: Unemployed labour force by unemployment duration (thousand persons)

Unemployment duration (months)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
12–24	Primary + lower secondary	15	11	26	25	23	40	25	166.7
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	14	13	22	30	28	56	42	300.0
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	6	7	14	17	18	22	16	266.7
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–	2		
24 or longer	Primary + lower secondary	26	25	25	30	32	40	14	53.8
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	29	22	21	24	38	49	20	69.0
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	18	14	13	14	22	25	7	38.9
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–	2		
Not specified	Primary + lower secondary	9	7	7	7	7	11	2	22.2
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	4	5	4	6	4	10	6	150.0
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	3	2	3	3	4	5	2	66.7
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–	2		
Total	Primary + lower secondary	118	140	160	144	171	207	89	75.4
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	116	156	170	175	210	294	178	153.4
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	66	81	95	99	123	144	78	118.2
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	3	11		

Table A7. Trends 2008–13: Vacancies (yearly average/yearly total, thousands) (SIC2008)

Vacancies, all economic activities (SIC2008 A–U)	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
New vacancies	1028	725	743	766	658	622	–406	–39.5
Filled vacancies	1088	794	737	774	679	624	–464	–42.6
Unfilled vacancies	240	143	122	133	112	95	–145.3	–60.4
New vacancies by sector (SIC2008)								
A Agriculture, forestry and fishing	19	12	13	13	10	12	–7	–36.8
B Mining and quarrying	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0.0
C Manufacturing	75	39	52	60	45	42	–33	–44.0
D Electricity and gas supply	3	2	2	2	2	2	–1	–33.3
E Water supply and waste management	6	3	3	3	2	2	–4	–66.7
F Construction	52	26	30	28	22	20	–32	–61.5
G Wholesale and retail trade	226	177	196	193	166	153	–73	–32.3
H Transportation and storage	41	23	25	32	25	25	–16	–39.0
I Accommodation and catering	73	53	54	60	56	56	–17	–23.3
J Information and communication	43	25	34	35	32	28	–15	–34.9
K Financial institutions	43	29	21	25	20	19	–24	–55.8
L Renting, buying, selling real estate	11	7	6	7	5	4	–7	–63.6

Table A7. Trends 2008–13: Vacancies (yearly average/yearly total, thousands) (SIC2008)

Vacancies, all economic activities (SIC2008 A–U)	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
M Other specialized business services	91	58	55	62	54	51	–40	–44.0
N Renting and other business support	87	60	64	57	51	50	–37	–42.5
O Public administration and services	36	30	21	17	17	19	–17	–47.2
P Education	46	36	33	32	29	29	–17	–37.0
Q Health and social work activities	131	108	101	105	91	82	–49	–37.4
R Culture, sports and recreation	19	16	16	16	14	11	–8	–42.1
S Other service activities	27	20	18	19	17	15	–12	–44.4

Table A8. Trends 2008–13: Number of jobseekers according to status one year ago (thousand persons) (SIC2008)

Jobseekers		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
1 Total jobseekers		1 195	1 017	927	951	907		–288	–24.1
2 Had a job < 1 year ago		538	456	372	347	324		–214	–39.8
3 Previously school pupil/student/school-leaver		295	248	236	264	254		–41	–13.9
4 Previously in a job 1–2 years ago		167	151	164	201	189		22	13.2
5 Previously disabled		16	15	12	11	14		–2	–12.5
6 Re-entrant		56	42	38	33	31		–25	–44.6
7 Other jobseekers		123	105	105	96	95		–28	–22.8
	Gender								
1 Total jobseekers	Men	640	528	487	513	481		–159	–24.8
	Women	555	489	440	439	426		–129	–23.2
2 Had a job < 1 year ago	Men	313	256	208	200	187		–126	–40.3
	Women	225	200	165	148	137		–88	–39.1
3 Previously school pupil/ student/school-leaver	Men	155	124	118	133	127		–28	–18.1
	Women	139	125	119	130	127		–12	–8.6
4 Previously in a job 1–2 years ago	Men	89	82	94	113	103		14	15.7
	Women	78	69	71	88	86		8	10.3
5 Previously disabled	Men	6	6	5	6	7		1	16.7
	Women	10	9	7	5	7		–3	–30.0
6 Re-entrant	Men	12	8	8	9	8		–4	–33.3
	Women	44	33	29	24	22		–22	–50.0
7 Other jobseekers	Men	64	52	54	52	48		–16	–25.0
	Women	59	53	50	44	46		–13	–22.0
	Age (years)								
1 Total jobseekers	15–25	369	329	304	322	314		–55	–14.9
	25–35	361	302	279	284	269		–92	–25.5

Table A8. Trends 2008–13: Number of jobseekers according to status one year ago (thousand persons) (SIC2008)

Jobseekers		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
1 Total jobseekers	35–45	264	213	186	186	170		–94	–35.6
	45–55	151	133	121	122	117		–34	–22.5
	55–65	49	39	38	38	38		–11	–22.4
2 Had a job < 1 year ago	15–25	87	77	64	63	62		–25	–28.7
	25–35	194	161	133	123	114		–80	–41.2
	35–45	156	127	98	91	82		–74	–47.4
	45–55	81	75	61	56	53		–28	–34.6
	55–65	20	16	17	14	14		–6	–30.0
3 Previously school pupil/ student/school-leaver	15–25	225	193	184	204	198		–27	–12.0
	25–35	70	55	52	59	56		–14	–20.0
	35–45	–	–	–	–	–			
	45–55	–	–	–	–	–			
	55–65	–	–	–	–	–			
4 Previously in a job 1-2 years ago	15–25	23	25	26	28	28		5	21.7
	25–35	53	49	53	64	61		8	15.1
	35–45	44	41	45	55	47		3	6.8
	45–55	33	26	30	40	37		4	12.1
	55–65	13	10	11	14	16		3	23.1
5 Previously disabled	15–25	–	–	–	–	–			
	25–35	3	3	3	4	5		2	66.7
	35–45	6	5	3	3	4		–2	–33.3
	45–55	5	6	4	2	3		–2	–40.0
	55–65	–	–	2	2	–			
6 Re-entrant	15–25	–	–	–	–	–			
	25–35	4	4	4	3	2		–2	–50.0
	35–45	32	22	20	18	16		–16	–50.0
	45–55	16	13	10	9	11		–5	–31.3
	55–65	4	3	3	2	2		–2	–50.0
7 Other jobseekers	15–25	34	34	29	26	24		–10	–29.4
	25–35	36	31	33	30	31		–5	–13.9
	35–45	26	19	21	19	21		–5	–19.2
	45–55	16	13	15	15	14		–2	–12.5
	55–65	11	9	7	6	5		–6	–54.5
	Education								
1 Total jobseekers	Primary + lower secondary	322	265	238	247	218		–104	–32.3
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	496	418	376	391	375		–121	–24.4
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	358	318	297	299	299		–59	–16.5
	Level unknown	19	17	16	15	15		–4	–21.1

Table A8. Trends 2008–13: Number of jobseekers according to status one year ago (thousand persons) (SIC2008)

Jobseekers		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
2 Had a job < 1 year ago	Primary + lower secondary	107	92	73	70	59		−48	−44.9
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	237	194	157	147	138		−99	−41.8
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	191	168	140	129	125		−66	−34.6
	Level unknown	2	2	–	2	3		1	50.0
3 Previously school pupil/ student/school-leaver	Primary + lower secondary	112	89	79	82	77		−35	−31.3
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	109	96	91	100	97		−12	−11.0
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	73	63	64	73	71		−2	−2.7
	Level unknown	–	–	2	9	9			
4 Previously in a job 1-2 years ago	Primary + lower secondary	43	41	45	54	43		0	0.0
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	74	63	69	90	85		11	14.9
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	49	47	50	55	59		10	20.4
	Level unknown	–	–	–	2	2			
5 Previously disabled	Primary + lower secondary	7	5	4	5	6		−1	−14.3
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	7	6	5	4	5		−2	−28.6
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	2	4	3	2	3		1	50.0
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–			
6 Re-entrant	Primary + lower secondary	22	14	12	10	11		−11	−50.0
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	24	18	16	14	12		−12	−50.0
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	10	9	9	7	6		−4	−40.0
	Level unknown	–	–	–	–	–			
7 Other jobseekers	Primary + lower secondary	30	24	25	26	21		−9	−30.0
	Upper secondary + post-secondary non-tertiary	45	39	38	37	38		−7	−15.6
	Tertiary + doctorate (PhD)	33	28	31	32	34		1	3.0
	Level unknown	16	14	10	–	–			

Table A9. Trends 2008–13: Recipients of UB for registered unemployed by duration (persons)

Unemployment benefits duration (months)		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	Growth (abs.)	Growth (%)
	Total								
Total		170 830	269 860	263 740	269 900	340 170	437 730	266 900	156.2
0–6		71 910	144 780	128 500	135 280	179 460	225 380	153 470	213.4
6–12		27 940	65 750	59 190	58 130	76 690	100 250	72 310	258.8
12 or longer		70 970	59 330	76 050	76 490	84 020	112 100	41 130	58.0
	Age (years)								
Total	15–25	5 510	12 570	9 450	10 440	16 120	20 690	15 180	275.5
	25–35	21 710	49 630	41 090	43 570	59 590	76 930	55 220	254.4
	35–45	39 160	72 690	67 960	64 590	80 150	100 860	61 700	157.6
	45–55	45 590	72 870	79 910	80 310	97 970	126 320	80 730	177.1
	55–65	58 780	62 090	65 260	70 960	86 250	112 500	53 720	91.4
0–6	15–25	5 220	12 230	9 310	10 310	15 920	20 250	15 030	287.9
	25–35	16 900	38 090	32 300	35 140	47 800	60 650	43 750	258.9
	35–45	21 430	41 090	35 480	36 210	45 210	55 060	33 630	156.9
	45–55	18 690	34 760	32 830	34 050	43 860	54 000	35 310	188.9
	55–65	9 660	18 600	18 530	19 560	26 670	35 360	25 700	266.0
6–12	15–25	280	340	140	130	200	440	160	57.1
	25–35	3 910	10 920	8 190	8 030	11 230	15 300	11 390	291.3
	35–45	8 400	21 660	18 130	17 600	22 280	27 830	19 430	231.3
	45–55	9 040	20 210	18 750	18 630	24 480	31 470	22 430	248.1
	55–65	6 310	12 620	13 980	13 730	18 490	25 130	18 820	298.3
12 or longer	15–25	10	0	–	–	–	–		
	25–35	890	620	600	400	560	980	90	10.1
	35–45	9 330	9 930	14 350	10 780	12 670	17 970	8 640	92.6
	45–55	17 850	17 900	28 340	27 620	29 640	40 860	23 010	128.9
	55–65	42 820	30 870	32 760	37 670	41 090	52 010	9 190	21.5
	Gender								
Total	Men	91 320	157 110	151 110	149 410	189 600	238 960	147 640	161.7
	Women	79 500	112 750	112 590	120 470	150 570	198 770	119 270	150.0
0–6	Men	39 090	85 590	73 910	75 380	101 790	123 930	84 840	217.0
	Women	32 810	59 180	54 540	59 880	77 670	101 450	68 640	209.2
6–12	Men	13 800	38 700	33 060	30 220	41 250	53 030	39 230	284.3
	Women	14 150	27 050	26 130	27 910	35 440	47 220	33 070	233.7
12 or longer	Men	38 430	32 810	44 130	43 810	46 570	62 000	23 570	61.3
	Women	32 550	26 520	31 920	32 680	37 460	50 110	17 560	53.9