Payrolling in the Netherlands
Zwemmer, J.P.H.

Published in:
New forms of employment in Europe

Citation for published version (APA):
New Forms of Employment in Europe
Bulletin of Comparative Labour Relations

VOLUME 94

Editor

The series started in 1970 under the dynamic editorship of Professor Roger Blanpain (Belgium), former President of the International Industrial Relations Association. Professor Blanpain, currently Professor Emeritus of Labour Law, Universities of Leuven and Tilburg, is also General Editor of the International Encyclopedia of Laws (with more than 1,600 collaborators worldwide) and President of the Association of Educative and Scientific Authors.

In 2015 Frank Hendrickx, Professor of labour law at the Faculty of Law of the University of Leuven (Belgium) joined as a co-Editor. Frank Hendrickx has published numerous articles and books and regularly advises governments, international institutions and private organisations in the area of labour law as well as in sports law. He is the Editor-in-Chief of the European Labour Law Journal and General Editor of the International Encyclopaedia of Laws together with Professor Roger Blanpain.

Introduction

The Bulletins constitute a unique source of information and thought-provoking discussion, laying the groundwork for studies of employment relations in the 21st century, involving among much else the effects of globalization, new technologies, migration, and the greying of the population.

Contents/Subjects

Amongst other subjects the Bulletins frequently include the proceedings of international or regional conferences; reports from comparative projects devoted to salient issues in industrial relations, human resources management, and/or labour law; and specific issues underlying the multicultural aspects of our industrial societies.

Objective

The Bulletins offer a platform of expression and discussion on labour relations to scholars and practitioners worldwide, often featuring special guest editors.

The titles published in this series are listed at the end of this volume.
New Forms of Employment in Europe

Editors
Roger Blanpain
Frank Hendrickx

Guest Editor
Bernd Waas

Contributors
José João Abrantes
Edoardo Ales
Helga Aune
Barend Barentsen
Catherine Barnard
Kadriye Bakirci
Elin Blöndal
Iván Antonio Rodríguez Cardo
Simon Deakin
Tomas Davulis
Raluca Dimitriu
Kristine Dupate
David Durward
Matleena Engblom
Joaquín García Murcia
Ivana Grgurev
Tamás Gyulavári
Petr Húrka
Senad Jašarević
Todor Kalamatiev
Anthony Kerr
Francis Kessler
György Kiss

Polonca Končar
Jens Kristiansen
Jan Marco Leimeister
Irene Mandl
Lorna Mifsud Cachia
Leszek Mitrus
Costas Papadimitriou
Wolfgang Portmann
Jean-Luc Putz
Wilfried Rauws
Martin Risak
Aleksandar Ristovski
Mia Rönner
Robert Schronk
Rita Canas da Silva
Vesna Simović-Zvicer
Krassimira Sredkova
Gaabriel Tavits
Claire Toumieux
Nicos Trimikliniotis
Bernd Waas
Shkodran Zogaj
Johan Zwemmer
José João Abrantes is Full Professor of Civil Law and Labour Law at the Faculty of Law and Pro-Rector of the NOVA University of Lisbon. He is a member of several legal associations and scientific networks. He is the Portuguese expert at ELLN – The European Labour Law Network, a European network of legal experts in the field of labour law assisting the Directorate-General for Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities of the European Commission (DG-EMPL/F/2).

Edoardo Ales (Rome 1968) is since 2002 Full Professor of European, Comparative and Italian Labour and Social Security Law. From 1996 to 2000 he was Lecturer at the University of Rome Tor Vergata. He teaches in Cassino (University of Cassino and Southern Lazio) in Rome (LUISS – G. Carli) and in Wien (Wirtschaftsuniversität). He has managed several national and international research projects in his field of interest and cooperated several times with the European Institutions (Commission and Parliament) and national labour authorities. He is expert in European Labour and Social Security (coordination) Law, in European Employment and Social Inclusion Policy, in Italian, German and Austrian Labour and Social Security Law. Since 2006, he is member of the Scientific Committee and national expert for Italy of the ELLN. He has published and edited several books on individual and collective labour law as well as Health and Safety Law. He is author of several essays on international and national Labour and Social Security Law journals. He is co-editor of the Rivista del Diritto della Sicurezza Sociale.

Helga Aune is a lawyer and has been the national leader of the Labour Law Department at the PwC Law Firm AS, Norway since 2014. Aune completed her PhD thesis ‘Part-time work. Protection against discrimination on a structural and an individual level’ at the Faculty of Law, University of Norway in 2009. She was a Post-Doctoral Fellow at the same Faculty from 2009 to 2014 to conduct research on legal issues in the education sector as well as on issues relating to employment law. Aune has published numerous articles on gender equality and non-discrimination issues. She has been a member of the European Commission Network of Legal Experts in the field of gender equality since 2003 and a member of the European Commission
Notes on Contributors

Network of Legal Experts of the European Labour Law Network (ELLN) since 2007. Aune was awarded the YS Equality Prize of 2013 for her book on part-time work.

**Barend Barentsen** is Professor of Labour Law and Labour Relations in the Public Sector at Leiden University. He is a substitute justice at the Centrale Raad van Beroep (Administrative Appeals Board) and at the Court of Appeals of the Hague.

**Catherine Barnard**, MA (Cantab), LLM (EUI), PhD (Cantab), is Professor of European Union Law and Employment Law at the University of Cambridge, and Senior Tutor and Fellow of Trinity College. She specialises in EU law and employment law. She is the author of *EU Employment Law* (Oxford, OUP, 2012, 4th ed.), *The Substantive Law of the EU: The Four Freedoms*, (Oxford, OUP, 2016, 5th ed.), and (with Peers eds.), *European Union Law* (Oxford, OUP, 2014). She is also editor of various collections of essays including: *The Fundamentals of EU Law Revisited* (Oxford, 2007), *The Outer Limits of EU Law* (Hart, 2009) (with Odudu). She has advised the government over the Balance of Competence Review. She is a Senior Fellow at the ESRC UK in a Changing Europe project, where she is working with Dr Amy Ludlow on a project entitled: ““Honeypot Britain?” The lived experience of working as an EU migrant in the UK’. She is looking in particular at the question of migrant workers’ access to benefits in the UK.

**Kadriye Bakirci** is the Head of the Employment and Social Security Law Division at Hacettepe Law Faculty, Turkey. She completed her LLB, LLM and PhD degrees at Istanbul Law Faculty. She was a visiting scholar/fellow at the Institute of Advanced Legal Studies; the London School of Economics and Political Science; Cambridge, Stockholm and Columbia Law Faculties. She has extensive experience in the field of labour law.

**Elin Ólafsdóttir Blöndal** has a Cand Jur. Degree from the University of Iceland and a Master’s degree in Public International Law from the University of Leiden. She is now Chief Legal Counsel at the University of Iceland. She was Professor and Chair of the Research Centre of Labour Law at Bifrost University, Head of the Labour Office at the Ministry of Social Affairs and Head of Office at the Parliamentary Ombudsman Office. She has authored several publications, especially in the field of labour law, gender equality and social human rights.

**Iván Antonio Rodríguez Cardo** is Full Professor of Labour Law at the University of Oviedo. PhD in Labour Law. He is member of several legal associations and scientific networks. Former Vice-Dean at the Faculty of Law of the University of Oviedo. Researcher on numerous projects funded by the Government of Spain and the European Union. He has published numerous papers in Journals of Labour Law and Social Security Law.

**Simon Deakin** is Professor of Law at the University of Cambridge, where he teaches Labour Law, Private Law, and Economics of Law. He is the author (with Frank Wilkinson) of ‘The Law of the Labour Market: Industrialisation, Employment, and
Notes on Contributors

Legal Evolution’ (OUP, 2005) and (with Gillian S. Morris) of ‘Labour Law’ (Hart, 6th ed.) He is also editor of the Industrial Law Journal.

**Tomas Davulis** is Professor of Labour Law and Head of the Department of Labour Law (the Institute for Labour Law) at Vilnius University, Faculty of Law. He is involved in various research projects at national and international level on topics related to labour law, the labour market and social security. Davulis is a member of various international networks (e.g., the European Labour Law Network, European Network of Legal Experts on gender equality and non-discrimination) as well as a member of international and national scientific organisations (European Law Association, International Society for Labour Law and Social Security). His expertise in national and international labour law with a strong emphasis on the transposition of European legislation allows him to contribute to networks and organisations as a national expert or general rapporteur. At national level, Davulis has been appointed leader and member of various groups to assess and ameliorate domestic labour legislation (in particular, the Labour Code and transposition of EU legislation). In 2014-2015, he headed the consortium appointed by the Lithuanian government with the preparation of the so-called Lithuanian social model – research-based legislative initiatives in the fields of labour law, employment support and social insurance which aims to modernise labour market regulation and adapt the social security system. As a result, more than forty pieces of draft legislation are currently being debated in Parliament.

**Raluca Dimitriu** is Professor of Labour Law, PhD coordinator and Director of the Law Doctoral School at the Bucharest Academy of Economic Studies, Law Department. She is also principal researcher at the Legal Research Institute of the Romanian Academy and trainer for magistrates specialised in labour law at the National Institute for Magistracy, Bucharest.

**Kristīne Dupate** is Associated Professor at University of Latvia, Faculty of Law Department of International and European Law. She is a member (national expert) of the Network of Legal Experts for the EU Commission in the fields of gender equality, labour law and the free movement of workers. She has participated in various research projects in international and EU institutions as a national expert. Kristīne Dupate has authored numerous publications on gender equality, non-discrimination and labour law.

**David Durward** is a Research Associate at the Department for Information Systems at the University of Kassel and at the Institute of Information Management at the University of St. Gallen. He studied Economics (Master of Arts) at the University of Kassel in Marketing and International Management as well as Private and Public Management. Previously, he studied Business Administration (Bachelor of Arts) at the Baden-Württemberg Cooperative State University in Mannheim (DHBW) with a focus on service marketing and sales. David Durward works in different research projects with a focus on crowdsourcing, crowd work and new forms of digital work.
Notes on Contributors

Matleena Engblom, LL.Lic, Specialist Counsel, is a Finnish labour law expert working for Attorneys JB Eversheds Ltd. She deals with different types of labour disputes and employment offence proceedings. She has worked as a researcher at the University of Turku, as an attorney, a labour court clerk, a lawyer for the Church, a trade union lawyer, and head of administration. She has published a book on employment contract terms and several articles in labour law reviews.

Joaquín García Murcia is Professor of Labour Law and Social Security at the Complutense University of Madrid. He has co-authored reference books such as ‘Labor Law’, ‘Practical Treaty of Labour Law’, ‘Practical Treaty of Social Security Law’ and ‘Glossary of Employment and Labour Relations (Spain)’. Murcia has published numerous papers in labour law and social security law journals, has conducted numerous research projects and has supervised numerous doctoral theses. He was also Legal Adviser at the Spanish Constitutional Court.

Ivana Grgurev is Associate Professor at the Chair of Labour Law and Social Security Law, Faculty of Law, University of Zagreb. She has published several books and articles in the field of labour law (discrimination law, collective agreements, managerial contracts, etc.).

Tamás Gyulavári is Professor of Labour Law and Head of the Labour Law Department at Pázmány Péter Catholic University of Budapest. He is the author and co-author of several books and articles on European and Hungarian labour law in Hungarian and in English. Tamás Gyulavári is also the Labour Law Advisor of the Hungarian Supreme Court.

Petr Hůrka, Doc. JUDr., PhD, is a labour law specialist and Associate Professor at the Labour Law and Social Security Law Department of the Faculty of Law, Charles University in Prague. Hurka presides over the Labour Law and Social Security Law Committee of the Government Legislative Council, represents the Czech Republic in the European Labour Law Network, and is a member of the Czech Community for Labour Law and Social Security Law. He acts as a mediator and arbitrator in collective labour law disputes, as well as a lecturer and consultant.

Senad Jašarević graduated from the Faculty of Law in Novi Sad in 1986 where he currently is Full Professor specialising in Labour Law and Social Security Law. He is Vice-President of the Serbian Association for Labour Law and Social Security. He is author of numerous scientific and professional articles in the fields of labour and social security law.

Todor Kalamatiev, PhD, is Professor at SS Cyril and Methodius University (Department of Labour law, Faculty of Law ‘Justinianus Primus’, Skopje). He teaches Labour Law (B.A. level) and Social Security, European Labour Law, International Labour Law and Flexibility and Security of the Labour Market (M.A. level). He also teaches Labour Law at PhD level.
Anthony Kerr is Associate Professor in the Sutherland School of Law at University College Dublin where he is Programme Director of the Professional Diploma in Employment Law and the Associate Dean for Graduate Studies. He is a member of the European Labour Law Network, an Executive Committee Member of the International Society for Labour and Social Security Law and a national reporter for the International Labour Law Reports.

Francis Kessler is Professor at Sorbonne Law School at University Paris 1 and Sciences Po (Paris), where he teaches Social Security, Comparative and European Social Law. He established and supervises the Master 2 ‘Droit de la protection sociale d’entreprise’, a programme on apprenticeship at Sorbonne University. Francis Kessler is also Senior Counsel at Gide Loyrette Nouel AARPI in Paris. He is an expert in different EU and Council of Europe projects and member of the European Labour Law Network (ELLN).

György Kiss is Professor at the National University of Public Service, Dean of the Faculty of Public Administration; Professor at the University of Pecs, Faculty of Law, Department of Labour Law; Head of the Association of Labour Law in Hungary; Chair of the MTA-PTE Research Group of Comparative and European Employment Policy and Labour Law.

Polonca Končar is Professor of Labour Law, International Labour Law and EC Employment Law at the Faculty of Law at the University of Ljubljana, Slovenia. She is former President of the European Committee of Social Rights. Končar is a member of the Executive Committee of the International Society for Labour and Social Security Law (Vice-President, 2003-2006). She was a national expert in the Free Movement of Workers Network and is a national expert and member of the Scientific Committee in the European Labour Law Network.

Jens Kristiansen is Professor of Labour Law at the University of Copenhagen. He has published several books and articles on labour law and European labour law among others.

Jan Marco Leimeister is Chair of Information Systems and Director of the Institute of Information Management (IWI-HSG), University of St. Gallen, Switzerland. He is also Chair of Information Systems and Director of the Interdisciplinary Research Center for Information System Design (ITeG) at Kassel University, Germany. His teaching and research areas include Digital Business, IT Innovation Management, Service Science, Collaboration Engineering, Ubiquitous Computing and Crowdsourcing. Leimeister serves on the editorial board of various international journals and is regularly a member of programme committees at international conferences in the field of Information Systems. He heads several research groups and his research projects are funded by the European Union, German ministries, DFG, various foundations and industry.

Irene Mandl is research manager at the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions (Eurofound). She is active in policy relevant socio-economic research related to employment and labour market developments as well as
entrepreneurship. Her most recent research topics refer to new forms of employment, job creation, restructuring, internationalisation and specific forms of entrepreneurship (such as born global firms or small- and medium-sized enterprises).

**Lorna Mifsud Cachia** is a practising lawyer for the litigation team of Dingli & Dingli Law Firm, Malta. She also collaborates with the European Union Law Department of the University of Malta, where she acts as Visiting Lecturer, Supervisor of dissertations on European Union law and examiner. She is a member of the Chamber of Advocates and of the European Labour Law Network. She has tried cases before the Industrial Tribunal in Malta and the superior courts.

**Leszek Mitrus** is Professor at the Chair of Labour Law and Social Policy at Jagiellonian University in Kraków, Poland. He is a member of the European Labour Law Network and author of around 100 publications on Polish, European and international labour law and social security law. His publications include books on the free movement of workers, EU directives on the employment contract and the influence of European labour law on the Polish legal system. He also co-authored commentaries on the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union, the Charter of Fundamental Rights of the European Union and the Polish Labour Code.

**Costas Papadimitriou** is Professor and a lawyer specialised in Labour Law and European Labour Law. He teaches and conducts research in these fields at the University of Athens. He was a member of the Department of Studies of the Greek Parliament (1994-2015). He is also a national expert for different institutions (European Labour Law Network, Free Movement of Workers Network, Odysseus Network).

**Wolfgang Portmann** is Professor of Labour and Employment Law and of Private Law (University of Zurich), Director of the Institute of Law (University of Zurich, 2010-2014), Chairman of the publishing board of the Swiss Journal for Labour and Employment Law and Unemployment Insurance (ARV), consultant in a law firm (Switzerland), Member of the Board of the Swiss Institute for Labour and Employment Law, of the Europe Institute in Zurich and of the Centre for Liechtenstein Law, and a member of the European Labour Law Network ELLN (representing Liechtenstein).

**Jean-Luc Putz** is a Judge at the Luxembourg District Court. He teaches Labour Law at the University of Luxembourg and has published several articles and reference books on Luxembourg’s individual and collective labour law.

**Wilfried Rauws** is full professor at the Free University of Brussels and part-time professor at the University of Maastricht for labour law and comparative labour law. Wilfried Rauws is deputy judge in the Court of Appeal of Antwerp and member of the editorial board of the main Flemish legal journals such as the Rechtskundig Weekblad (Weekly Journal of Law) and the Tijdschrift voor Privaatrecht (Journal of Private Law).

**Martin Risak** is Associate Professor at the Department of Labour Law and Law of Social Security at the University of Vienna (Austria) and the chairman of Senate II of the
Austrian Equal Treatment Commission. He was an associate with the international law firm CMS Reich-Rohrwig Hainz, Professor of Labour Law and Civil Law at the University of Passau (Germany) and a Marie Curie-Fellow at the University of Otago (New Zealand). Prof. Risak is a member of the editorial board of the (Austrian) Journal of Labour Law and Social Law and the national expert for Austria of the European Centre of Expertise (‘ECE’) in the field of labour law, employment and labour market policies that advises the European Commission.

Aleksandar Ristovski, LLM, is a Teaching and Research Assistant at SS Cyril and Methodius University (Department of Labour law, Faculty of Law ‘Iustinianus Primus’, Skopje). He teaches Labour Law (at BA and MA level). He is currently a PhD candidate at the Faculty of Law ‘Iustinianus Primus’, Skopje, and an MA candidate at the Faculty of Economics (Department of Economic Development and International Finance).

Mia Rönnmar is Professor of Private Law and Dean at the Faculty of Law at Lund University. Her main research areas include Swedish, comparative and EU labour law and industrial relations. She is the President-Elect of the International Labour and Employment Relations Association (ILERA) and a member of the Norma Research Programme at Lund University, and its Elder Law Research Environment. She has also been a Visiting Researcher at inter alia the London School of Economics, the European University Institute and Sydney University.

Robert Schronk, Prof. JUDr., CSc., is Professor of Labour Law at Comenius University, Faculty of Law, Bratislava, Slovakia. He has more than thirty-five years of professional research experience in labour law. He has been with the Faculty of Law, Comenius University, Bratislava since 1991, holds lectures and seminars on Labour Law, International and European Labour Law. Research on International and European Labour Law, Individual Labour Relations, Dismissal Law, Working Time, Legal Liability in Labour Relations and Collective Labour Law. Schronk is a member of working groups and scientific boards, the President of the Slovak Society for Labour Law and Social Security (2006-2010), Member of the Accreditation Commission, Advisory Body of the Government of the Slovak Republic (2010 – present). He has authored publications on Slovak and European labour law.

Rita Canas da Silva is a PhD Candidate of the Faculty of Law of the Nova University of Lisbon. She is Co-head of the Employment department of Servulo Law Firm; Guest lecturer on several specialised university courses on Employment and Social Security Law. She has several publications on these fields among others.

Vesna Simovic´-Zvicer is Lecturer at the University of Montenegro in Labour Law, European Labour Law and Social Protection. She is a Member of the Social Council of Montenegro. She is President of the Association of Labour Law and Member of the Board of the Association of Lawyers of Montenegro.

Krassimira Sredkova is Professor of Labour Law and Social Security at Sofia University ‘St. Kliment Ohridski’. She is President of the Bulgarian Association of Labour
Law and Social Security and Editor-in-Chief of the Journal Contemporary Law. She is also a Member of the European Committee for Social Rights and of the International Association for Legislation. Sredkova has authored 247 publications in the field of national, international, EU and comparative labour law and social security law.

Gabriel Tavits, Dr.iur, is University Lecturer and Researcher at the University of Tartu, Faculty of Law. His main areas of research include Labour Law and Social Security Law (at European and international level). He has published many articles on issues relating to labour law and flexible labour relations, as well as on European social security law.

Claire Toumieux heads the Paris Department of Labour Law of Allen & Overy. She advises businesses seeking to define, implement and/or improve their human resource management strategies. She was re-elected for a second two-year term as Vice Chair of the European Employment Lawyers Association. She received the Women in Law Awards in 2014 and in Employment Law from Lawyer Monthly and was listed among the leading employment lawyers in 2014 by Best Lawyers in France.

Nicos Trimikliniotis is Associate Professor, School of Social Sciences, University of Nicosia and the national expert for Cyprus for the European Labour Law Network. He heads the Cyprus team of the Fundamental Rights Agency of the EU. He is a sociologist and a practicing Barrister. His research areas include integration, citizenship, education, migration, gender, racism, the free movement of workers, EU law, discrimination and labour law. He has published *Mobile Commons, Migrant Digitalities and the Right to the City*, Pivot, Palgrave Macmillan, 2015.

Bernd Waas is Professor of Labour Law and Civil Law at Goethe University of Frankfurt am Main, Germany. He is the author and co-author of several books on individual as well as collective labour law and has published more than 100 articles on German, European and comparative labour and civil law. Bernd Waas is Coordinator of the European Labour Law Network, which comprises labour law experts from thirty-one jurisdictions in Europe (ranging from Portugal to Russia).

Shkodran Zogaj is a fulltime researcher and a PhD candidate at the Chair for Information Systems at the University of Kassel (Germany). He started as a research assistant in Kassel in 2011 after graduating from the University of Hannover in economic sciences with a focus on Marketing and Management, Corporate Governance and Organization, Money and International Finances. His current research areas include Crowdsourcing, Governance of Digital Work and Crowd Work, (IT) Project Management, IT Innovation as well as Online Community Management. Shkodran Zogaj has published his research in several economic journals, such as the Journal of Business Economics or the International Journal of Knowledge Management, as well as in several conference proceedings, such as the International Conference on Information Systems, the European Conference on Information Systems and the European
Academy of Management. Furthermore, he has co-authored several books contributions on crowd work and digitization.

Johan Zwemmer is Lecturer and Researcher at the Department of Labour Law of the University of Amsterdam and a Lawyer at Stibbe in Amsterdam. He obtained a doctorate in law (PhD) in 2012. His dissertation Pluraliteit van werkgeverschap examined the legal role of the employer in situations in which different parties are simultaneously or successively involved in the execution of the employment contract on the employer’s side. This 'plurality of employers' may stem from contractual agreements with the employee, group membership on the part of the employer, the transfer of business for which the employee works and/or the legal merger or division of the company, which has significant implications for the application of employment legislation.
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Payrolling in the Netherlands

Johan P.H. Zwemmer*

§9.01 INTRODUCTION

Payrolling has become increasingly popular among businesses in the Netherlands in recent years. When a business opts for payrolling, it hands over the legal and administrative aspects of its role as an employer to a payroll company. The business – ‘the entrepreneur’ – first recruits and selects the employee, and then hires a payroll company to operate as the employee’s legal and administrative employer. The payroll company concludes an employment contract with the employee and makes the employee exclusively available to the entrepreneur and – in principle – for the longer term. Some entrepreneurs entrust their entire personnel base to a payroll company, which, in turn, places the same personnel back at their disposal. The payroll company pays the salaries, deducts taxes and insurance premiums, and may offer a severance deal in the event of redundancy.

Entrepreneurs use payrolling in order to absolve themselves of the legal and administrative obligations associated with being an employer, and because they are looking to obtain a more flexible staff complement.¹ Even Dutch government organisations use payrolling. Government organisations are the own-risk bearer for the

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* Lecturer and researcher at the labour law department of the University of Amsterdam and lawyer at Stibbe in Amsterdam.

1. The fact that payrolling is aimed at circumventing employers’ obligations and liability, as well as legal employer status, and at securing the most flexible deployment of employees possible, is also evident from the way in which payroll companies present themselves, particularly on the Internet. This can be illustrated with quotations taken from the website of one of the largest payroll companies in the Netherlands (https://www.payrollselect.nl – accessed April 2015):

With Payroll Services, you delegate the personnel and wage administration to Payroll Select. Your employees are on our wage list, with all of the benefits this brings. →
Fewer employer risks: With payrolling, your workers are employed by Payroll Select.

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purposes of the Unemployment Act, which in addition to issues of flexibility, provides another important reason for employing people on the basis of an employment contract with a payroll company, rather than in a civil service appointment.

Payrolling affects the employment rights of the employee. In various labour laws and regulations the employment protection regulated there entails responsibilities and obligations for the owner or operator of the business in which the employee works, who is assumed to be the legal employer of the employee. This protection is not as effective as originally intended if – as in the case of payrolling – the role of employer falls to another party as a result of an agreement between contracting parties. Dutch law does not recognise the concept of payrolling. It is therefore open to question whether, under employment law, an entrepreneur and a payroll company may agree that ‘on paper’ the payroll company is the legal employer of an employee who has been recruited and selected by, and works for, the entrepreneur.

§9.02 DEFINING THE EMPLOYER IN TERMS OF CIVIL LAW

The Dutch Civil Code (hereafter DCC) includes a separate arrangement for the employment agreement. In Article 7:610 of the DCC the employment agreement is defined. This article serves as an access point to the arrangement of the employment agreement laid down in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC. The employment agreement is defined as follows in Article 7:610 of the DCC:

An employment agreement is an agreement whereby the one party, the employee, undertakes to perform work in the service of the other party, the employer, on payment of wages during a certain period.

Article 7:610 of the DCC is a mandatory provision. If the relationship between the parties satisfies the elements of the definition contained in Article 7:610 of the DCC – remuneration, work, and an authority relationship – then an employment agreement exists between the parties and the provisions regarding the employment agreement in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC will apply. Even if the parties do not describe their legal relationship as an employment agreement, it will be qualified as an employment agreement if the legal relationship satisfies this definition. Requirements of form, such as a written agreement, are not decisive when defining the existence of the employment agreement. Article 7:610 of the DCC is mandatory law because the autonomy of will and contractual freedom of parties, as embodied in the general provisions on legal acts and agreements in Book 3 and Book 6 of the DCC, are incompatible with the protection of the employee – the weaker counterparty of the employer in socio-economic terms – as envisaged in the arrangement of the employment agreement in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC. If the parties were able to agree that no employment
agreement exists between them, despite the fact that their conduct towards each other effectively provides evidence of this, then the protection of employees contemplated in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC would have little practical impact. When the Act on the employment agreement was passed in the Netherlands at the start of the twentieth century, the Dutch government explained the need for the mandatory nature of the definition of the employment agreement as follows:

You may establish as many protective rules for employees as you can think of; it doesn’t matter; the employer will present them a contract in which they waive their rights: when they have signed – and they will always sign except during strikes – their rights are not worth anything.2

Both the employment agreement as a legal relationship and the identity of the legal employer form part of the mandatory scope of the definition in Article 7:610 of the DCC. In Article 7:610 of the DCC the employer is defined as the party in whose service – under whose authority – the employee performs the work. The principle underlying this, is that the employer is the owner or operator of the business in which the employee works. This accommodates the basic international principle that labour is not a commodity and the entrepreneur must observe certain obligations towards the employees who are working in his service.3 Social and economic developments, specifically during the final quarter of the last century, have however brought radical changes to the role and capacity of both the employer and the employee. Although the employer and the employee are still not on an equal footing in socio-economic terms, the higher educational levels of employees and the expansion of the welfare state after the Second World War have led to the economic dependence of employees diminishing, their work becoming increasingly independent and flexible, and their negotiating position vis-à-vis the employer becoming stronger. The role and capacity of the employer, as the party contracting with the employee in the employment agreement, has also changed. At the start of the twentieth century, the factor of capital was still clear and recognisable, readily identifiable with an individual of flesh and blood. Today, employers house their businesses and assets in legal entities. These legal entities can incorporate a range of management layers responsible for managing departments, divisions or business units into which the enterprise is subdivided.

2. See Bles, A.E., De wet op de arbeidsovereenkomst, Part I, p. 212, (Belinfante, The Hague, 1907). This is a quotation from De Courcy’s ‘Le droit et les ouvriers’, which in Dutch read as follows:

   gij kunt zooveel regels van aanvullend recht ten behoeve der arbeiders verzinnen als gij wilt; het zal u niets baten; de werkgever legt hun een contract voor, waarbij zij van hunne rechten afstand doen; wanneer zij hebben geteekend – en zij zullen altijd tekenen behalve in tijden van werkstaking – dan blijft er van al hunne rechten niets over.

3. ‘Labour is not a commodity’ is included in Art. 1 (a) of the Declaration concerning the aims and purposes of the International Labour Organisation [Declaration of Philadelphia] (10 May 1944), available at http://www.ilo.org/dyn/normlex/en/f?p=1000:62:0::NO:62:PN62_LIST_ENTRY_ID:2453907:NO#declaration (accessed April 2015), (setting out the manifesto for what we now know as the International Labour Organisation (ILO)) as one of the ’fundamental principles’ of the ILO.
Another relevant factor is that, from the late 1970s, the formation of corporate groups increased substantially, meaning the employer as a legal entity was increasingly likely to be part of a group under the central governance of another legal entity, the parent company.

§9.03 REALITY TAKES PRECEDENCE OVER APPEARANCE

The developments described above have contributed to a practise in which the employment agreement embodies less and less of a ‘personal’ involvement on the part of the employer in the work performed by the employee. As a consequence, the contractual arrangements made between the parties have started to play a more important role in the legal qualification of the employment agreement. This increased importance of contractual arrangements is however sometimes in a tense relationship with Article 7:610 of the DCC as a mandatory access point to the arrangement of the employment contract contained in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC. This tension exists not only in situations where the parties agreed that the labour would be performed under an agreement other than an employment agreement – just think of the increase in the numbers of self-employed – but also in situations where the ‘contractual’ employer is a party other than the entrepreneur in whose business the employee actually performs the work.

Under the general provisions on legal acts and agreements contained in Book 3 and Book 6 of the DCC, the parties are free to determine not just the content of the contract but also the identity of the contracting parties. In principle, only the parties to the contract can be obliged to comply with it. Agreements involving a third party always require the third party’s cooperation to enforce the obligations contained in the agreement. Like any other agreement within the meaning of the DCC, the employment agreement goes into effect following an offer and its acceptance by the other party. In principle, the parties can choose to configure an agreement for the performance of work in a form other than an employment agreement. The mandatory nature of Article 7:610 of the DCC may however require the courts to ignore these contractual arrangements made by the parties and deem the contractual relationship an employment agreement. This would be the situation if the arrangements that were made when entering into the contract did not coincide with the actual way in which the contract was subsequently implemented by the parties. Case law from the Dutch Supreme Court indicates that in such cases reality takes precedence over appearance when qualifying these contractual arrangements for the purposes of Article 7:610 of the DCC. The same parameters operate for the qualification of the employer as a party to the employment contract for the purposes of Article 7:610 of the DCC. If the employee is working within the business of a third party by virtue of an employment contract with another ‘contractual’ employer, then, dependent on how the employment contract with the contractual employer came into being and how this contract was subsequently implemented, it must be considered whether an employment agreement with the

contractual employer was actually intended. Such an agreement might be presumed if
the part played by the contractual employer in the completion and implementation of
the employment agreement was sufficiently independent and substantively significant.

In situations where the ‘employer capacity’ of the contractual employer lacks any
such independent and substantive significance, the court may hold that an employ-
ment agreement instead exists with the third party in whose business the employee
performs the work, and not with the contractual employer.

§9.04 THE TEMPORARY EMPLOYMENT AGREEMENT

In Article 7:690 of the DCC the contractual employer who, in the context of his
profession or business, makes his employees available to hirers, in order to perform
work at and under the authority of those hirers, is deemed the legal employer of those
employees. If the temporary employment agreement satisfies the definition in Article
7:690 of the DCC, then the contractual employer’s client, the hirer, can be certain that
he will not be qualified as the employer of the hired employee pursuant to Article 7:610
of the DCC. As a triangular relationship under employment law, the temporary
employment agreement is defined as follows in Article 7:690 of the DCC:

A temporary employment agreement is an employment agreement whereby,
within the framework of the conduct of a profession or business of the employer,
the employee is placed by the employer at the disposal of a third party in order to
perform work under the supervision and direction of the latter by virtue of a
contract for services granted by the latter to the employer.

Article 7:690 of the DCC is a mandatory provision and operates as the access
point to the ‘relaxed’ employment law regime for temporary employment agreements
laid down in a special section of Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC, allowing multiple
fixed-term employment contracts to be entered into with the employee and for the
employment contract to be more easily terminated at an interim stage. This mitigated
dismissal regime is intended to do justice to the flexibility that is characteristic of
temporary employment and is inherent in the allocation function of the temporary
employment agency.5 Article 7:690 of the DCC entered into force in 1999. During the
parliamentary debate on the special arrangement of the temporary employment
agreement in the DCC the Dutch government pointed out that, although the allocation

5. On the other hand the Act on the Allocation of Workers by Intermediaries (Waadi) ensures, inter
alia, that the absence of a contractual link with the hirer does not result for the temporary
employee in a lower salary compared with employees who are employed in the same or similar
positions at the hirer. The Netherlands implemented Directive 2008/104/EC of the European
Parliament and the Council of 19 November 2008 on temporary agency work in the Waadi. The
term ‘agency’, used in this Directive, is defined in Art. 3.1 (b) of the Directive as ‘any natural or
legal person who, in compliance with national law, concludes contracts of employment or
employment relationships with temporary agency workers in order to assign them to user
undertakings to work there temporarily under their supervision and direction’. In my opinion the
use of the expression ‘agency’ in the Directive and the fact that this definition refers to temporary
assignments means that there is the matter of the assignment of employees within the meaning
of the Directive if the employer who assigns employees to clients has an allocation function in the
labour market.
function was not explicitly mentioned in the text of Article 7:690 of the DCC, this arrangement was confined exclusively to those contractual employers who actually fulfil an allocation function within the labour market. This allocation function means, in essence, that the contractual employer links the supply of, and demand for, (temporary) work in the labour market.

Contractual employers with an allocation function, like employment agencies, satisfy the temporary need for specialist personnel in situations of peak demand or illness. They play an increasingly important role in introducing or reintroducing employees to the labour market and, in times of recession, they make an important contribution to economic recovery by fulfilling the increased requirement for flexible labour. In addition, agency work also caters to the need for flexibility among certain categories of workers, such as women and juveniles.6

Although the arrangement of the temporary employment agreement in a special section of Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC was confined exclusively to those contractual employers who actually fulfil an allocation function within the labour market, the definition of the temporary employment agreement in Article 7:690 of the DCC was intended to have a broader scope of application than the traditional assignment of staff to cover for peak demand periods and illnesses by temporary employment agencies. According to the Dutch government, the arrangement could also apply to other organisations such as secondment companies and labour pools provided that they fulfil an allocation function within the labour market. The definition included in Article 7:690 of the DCC was therefore not intended to provide a statutory basis for triangular relationships under employment law, where no allocation function is fulfilled by the contractual employer. The unambiguous governmental explanation of the scope of Article 7:690 of the DCC means the definition must be interpreted accordingly. This would mean, in my view, that the allocation function has to be ‘read into’ the definition in Article 7:690 of the DCC.

The lower courts have ruled diversely on the meaning of the allocation function for the applicability of Article 7:690 of the DCC. Various courts held that the allocation function is a requirement for the applicability of Article 7:690 of the DCC.7 Other courts chose to ignore the legislative history and, referring to the text of this article, ruled that fulfilling an allocation function in the labour market is not required for the applicability of Article 7:690 of the DCC.8 The Dutch Supreme Court is expected to provide definitive

6. For situations in which there is a need for flexible employment offered by employment agencies and the way in which the agency worker is distinguished from a ‘normal’ worker see Moolenaar, D.E.G., The Dutch Market for Agency Work (diss. Amsterdam UvA), (Saarbrücken, Lambert Academic Publishing 2002).
clarity regarding the meaning of the allocation function for the application of Article 7:690 of the DCC in 2016.

§9.05 THE EMPLOYER IN PAYROLLING

There is no statutory definition of payrolling. The sectoral organisation protecting the interests of its affiliated payroll companies, adopts the view that payrolling is a ‘special form’ of the temporary employment agreement provided by Article 7:690 of the DCC. This would mean that the payroll employee has the same legal position as an agency worker. As stated above, the definition of the temporary employment agreement included in Article 7:690 of the DCC is not intended to accommodate businesses in their desire to outsource the obligations connected to being a legal employer of a third party. The allocation function of employment agencies within the labour market was the reason for including the special arrangement for the temporary employment agreement in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC. There is no such allocation function with payrolling. The payroll employee is recruited and selected by the client. The client then goes on to hire a payroll company to operate as the legal and administrative employer of this employee, who is assigned exclusively to this client (the employee’s de facto employer).

If the payroll company would not qualify as the employee’s employer under Article 7:690 of the DCC because of the absence of an allocation function, then the question arises whether the payroll company can still be qualified as the payroll employees’ employer under Article 7:610 DCC. When qualifying the employer in a triangular relationship that does not qualify as a temporary employment agreement within the meaning of Article 7:690 of the DCC – much the same as when qualifying the employment agreement – the contractual arrangements made between the parties only gain significance if they coincide with the actual way in which they are subsequently implemented.

The fact that the payroll employee and the client have no written agreement between them is not an intrinsic impediment to qualifying the client as the legal employer of that payroll employee. In the Stichting Thuiszorg Rotterdam/PGGM judgment, the Dutch Supreme Court confirmed that the absence of a written agreement concluded between the worker and the ‘client’ was not an obstacle to the possible existence between them of an employment agreement under Article 7:610 of the DCC.9 In his opinion for the judgment in Stichting Thuiszorg Rotterdam/PGGM, which was followed by the Supreme Court, the Advocate-General formulated this as follows:

The parties concerned may have set out a structure on paper, with another party involved at an intermediate stage, which - taking everything into account – did not coincide with what they actually intended to agree. In such a case, it is the intention of the parties, rather than the written text reflecting the legal relationships, that is decisive. The fact that the definition of the employment agreement in

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Article 7:610 of the DCC is mandatory law, plays an important role in this. The parties cannot simply circumvent that definition without further ado.

While the employer and employee are free as parties to choose with whom they enter into a contract, the mandatory nature of Article 7:610 of the DCC implies that the role of the contractual employer in concluding and implementing the employment contract must have sufficiently independent and substantive significance, in order to qualify this contractual employer as the legal employer under Article 7:610 of the DCC. This is questionable in the case of payrolling. As stated above, payrolling is designed to outsource the legal and administrative obligations associated with being an employer and to further promote a more flexible labour relationship with the employee. The payroll agreement is set up because the client wants to be the de facto employer of the employees, although not their employer in formal terms, that is to say ‘on paper’. From the outset, the payroll company operates purely as a ‘contractual extension’ of the client, both for the completion and for the implementation of the employment agreement with the payroll employee.

The Dutch Supreme Court has not yet issued a ruling on the employer status of the payroll company. Lower courts have ruled differently on the employer status of the payroll company. In most of the cases so far, the courts looked beyond the contractual agreements made by the parties when qualifying the employer of the payroll employee. Thus deeming the client to be the payroll employee’s employer under Article 7:610 of the DCC despite the employment contract the payroll company concluded with the payroll employee. In other cases, however, the courts found that the payroll company had to be considered the legal employer of the payroll employee based on Article 7:690 of the DCC and/or on the fact that the payroll company concluded an employment contract with the employee.

§9.06 THE VIEWS OF SOCIAL PARTNERS AND THE DUTCH CABINET ON PAYROLLING

The Dutch trade unions have major, fundamental problems with payrolling because it results in unjustifiable unequal treatment – during, and at the end of, the employment agreement – between payrolled employees and employees who would be directly employed by the payroll company’s client. They categorise payrolling as a ‘major disappearing act for good employer practices’. In the view of the trade unions,

payrolling radically undermines employment and dismissal law and enables employers to use this type of legal construct to circumvent their obligations and duties towards employees. The employers’ organisations, for their part, consider payrolling to be a form of service that is important for a properly functioning flexible labour market and consider the delegation of certain risks associated with being an employer to a payroll company in exchange for payment of a fee to be legitimate. In their opinion there are no particular problems with payrolling as long as the arrangements between the payroll company, the client and the payroll employee are clear to all parties.

The Social Agreement dated 11 April 2013 – in which social partners and the Dutch cabinet made arrangements regarding dismissal law reform and improvements to the legal position of the flexible worker – states it is the joint desire of the social partners to encourage clarity concerning mutual rights and obligations, and also to achieve a clear legal qualification of the increasing number of triangular relationships within the existing labour law system. They proposed including an obligation for a written employment contract in the DCC for situations of payrolling, and requiring the contract to contain ‘the essentials of the employment agreement’. Failure to issue such a written agreement would mean the employment agreement would be presumed to be with the client instead of the payroll company.

The Dutch Minister of Social Affairs and Employment, referring to the arrangements in the Social Agreement, announced that the intention was to prevent triangular relationships, including payrolling, from being used improperly and to render relationships transparent in all cases, preventing misunderstandings about the position of the employee. In the meantime the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment adapted the rules of dismissal in order to (partly) compensate the limited dismissal protection of payroll employees.

§9.07 INTEGRATING PAYROLLING INTO THE EXISTING LABOUR LAW SYSTEM; OR IS IT MERELY A SYMPTOM OF A DEEPER PROBLEM?

Social partners have been discussing the possibilities of integrating payrolling into the existing labour law system, in a working group especially formed for this purpose. The likelihood of this resulting in a unanimous opinion to the Minister of Social Affairs and Employment is minute if the payroll sector persists in retaining its current business model. The Minister of Social Affairs and Employment has announced that he will await the opinion from the working group, but will personally look into how to deal with payrolling if this takes too long. If things go that far, the Minister will have to take into account that the current business model for payrolling was able to grow because entrepreneurs have found labour law to be too severe a burden and they no longer want to be saddled by the legal obligations associated with being an employer. In payrolling, entrepreneurs have discovered a way of contracting this out in exchange for a fixed fee.

If increasing numbers of employers delegate their legal employer status, despite the extra costs and the risk of legal proceedings and social unrest, then it may well be
time to reconsider labour law as a whole, and whether the current package of rules and regulations remains tolerable for entrepreneurs, rather than trying to integrate payrolling into the existing labour law system. The obligation for a written employment contract with the payroll company, as proposed by social partners, would signify an acceptance that the present range of obligations that labour law attaches to being an employer can be ‘contracted out’ to a third party without any tangible assets. This would effectively amount to recognising the problem – that being an employer has become too onerous an obligation for entrepreneurs – but then legitimising the symptom of this problem – payrolling – instead of trying to remedy it. This would not only be turning the world on its head, but would also be in conflict with the mandatory legal qualification of the employment agreement under Article 7:610 of the DCC, which is a fundamental principle of Dutch labour law. The employee, as the weaker party to the employment contract on a socio-economic level, could then be compelled, with a single stroke of the pen, to renounce the employer status of the owner or operator of the business where he works. Such a rift between the contractual and the de facto employer status would put the employee into a worse position in terms of labour law.

This is not solved by adjusting the rules on dismissal for payrolling in such a way that the protection of payroll employees against dismissal would be equivalent to that of employees who would be employed directly by the client. The payroll employees’ modest protection against dismissal is not the only issue with payrolling. Since the contractual employer under payrolling is someone other than the owner or operator of the business where the employee works, other provisions in the arrangement of the employment contract in Title 10 Book 7 of the DCC, which are linked to the legal employer status of the owner or operator of the business where the employee performs the work, would also not have their desired effect. Illustrative examples include the employer’s and employee’s reintegration obligations in employment disability cases; the transfer of the employee in cases of transfer of the undertaking in which the employee works; the special prohibitions against termination; and the application of the Labour and Care Act. The same applies to the application of (mandatory) industry-wide collective bargaining agreements.

The tension with collective labour law is that the payroll company is required to apply a collective agreement only if that company itself is bound by that collective agreement or if its business or activities fall within the scope of a mandatory industry-wide collective agreement. Payroll employees would consequently be unable to invoke the industry-wide collective agreement that applies to the client – the de facto employer – and the agreements recorded in it that specifically relate to the work in an undertaking, such as that of the de facto employer, including provisions in the field of pension, childcare and education. The position of the payroll employee under labour law would then be the same as that of temporary agency workers who are working in the business, albeit that they are not contractually employed by an employer whose ‘own’ business is aimed at the allocation of labour.
§9.08 SHOULD THERE BE A FUTURE FOR PAYROLLING?

In order to integrate payrolling into the existing system of labour law, the payroll company needs to be something more than a mere ‘paper’ structure. Currently, payroll companies are primarily satisfying the need of entrepreneurs for delegating or ‘contracting away’ their legal employer status to a ‘paper’ employer, which plays no independent or substantive part in the completion and implementation of the employment agreement. Although working for the client on the basis of an employment agreement, the payroll employee’s status as a ‘paper employee’ of the payroll company puts him in a less favourable position under labour law than if he were, or had remained, directly employed by the client.

Even if the payroll employee is aware of this when entering into the contract with the payroll company, he still generally has no choice, being the weaker counterparty of the employer in socio-economic terms, but to agree to the payroll contract. This type of payrolling cannot be integrated into the existing Dutch system of labour law. Things would be different if the payroll sector would reinvent itself and payrolling become a form of service provision, with the focus not resting purely on entrepreneurs divesting themselves of the obligations that are legally associated with being an employer.

Payrolling does not seem necessary in a government service or a large business, but could provide added value in small- and medium-sized enterprises, for both the entrepreneur and the employee. This would be the situation if payroll companies were to provide, and start to develop, know-how in the fields of – interim – education and training of payroll employees, relocation of payroll employees, e.g., in the form of labour pools, or, in case of disability of the employee, the reintegration of the payroll employee. This might also solve the problem of protecting payroll employees against dismissal. After all, if a client wants to terminate the payroll agreement with such a payroll company, the employees’ chances of relocating to a new client – or actually entering into employment with a new employer – would be significantly greater.
