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**Labour market position of women during the current recession in
the Netherlands.**

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Abstract

Throughout this paper, an attempt is made to outline the difference between men and women on the labour market during the current recession in the Netherlands. At the end of 2008 a strong economic downturn set in in the Netherlands. This economic downturn has not been without consequences for the labour market. The aim of this research is to get insight in the factors that play a role in the possible disadvantages of women on the labour market and how to deal with this possible arrear.

The transitional labour market (TLM) concept, which is based on observed changes in the composition and dynamics of the labour market over the last years, is used to investigate exclusionary transitions of men and women.

Data have been gathered from 2008-2012 on the five important life domains of the TLM-framework: (1) Employment, (2) unemployment, (3) education, (4) private households and (5) labour disability. These data have given insight in the developments on these domains and about exclusionary transitions of men and women.

The most striking findings are as follows: the unemployment rate for men has been rising faster than for women during the current recession, due to the different working areas of men and women. Also it can be seen that the unemployment rate of the youth is much higher in comparison with the elderly.

During the current crisis more people decide to study in all levels of education. Women are less likely to get unemployed after their study than men because of their higher education level.

Concluding women seem to do relatively well during this recession. However, there still is a big gap between men and women on the labour market. An important issue for politicians is the economic dependency of women. To ensure the growth of women and to prevent a decline in the employment rate of women, the politicians in the Netherlands have to ensure that childcare costs are more fairly distributed between the government, employers and parents. Thereby an environment must be created so that women can return to the labour market after their maternity leave without any consequences for their career so that their talent is not lost, or worse that they are making an exclusionary transition out of the labour market.

Preface

During my Master Business Economics at the Erasmus University in Rotterdam, I chose the major Entrepreneurship, Strategy and economics. This allowed me to make a combination of my interest for entrepreneurship and Economic theories and models. One of the topics of my Master program was Labour Market Organization. The main key of this course is to understand the interrelation between the internal and external labour market. During this course I heard about the term transitional labour market (TLM) for the first time and this term immediately caught my attention. Therefore, when I had to choose a topic for my Master thesis, I decided to combine the current recession and the TLM to investigate the position of women in the labour market. The position of women has changed over the years as a consequence of i.a. emancipation and individualization. I found it interesting to know whether women nowadays are actually more equal to men in the labour market or that they are still lagging behind. The answer to my research is also applicable for me what makes it more interesting.

During my writing process I had different ups and downs and I greatly appreciate the help of Mr. Veenman through every difficult situation. Whenever I was frustrated, or stuck on one piece, he always found a way to get me going again. After every meeting I started with refreshed energy. Mr. Veenman went to France for half a year and Mr. Van Stel has taken over the supervision. I also want to thank him for helping me through the final stretch. Furthermore I would like to thank my friends who had to endure my stress periods and my continuous explanations about my subject. And at last, but definitely not least, I am grateful for my mum who supported and encouraged me whenever I needed it. She remained patient and loving whenever I was down. She always kept her faith in my abilities to succeed. Writing this thesis has been a long journey, and with all of your help it has finally come to an end.

Table of contents

Chapter 1: Introduction	5
1.1 <i>Labour market position of women</i>	6
1.2 <i>Systems of labour market regulation</i>	7
1.3 <i>Research question</i>	9
Chapter 2: Transitional Labour Market	11
<i>Introduction</i>	11
2.1 <i>Towards the transitional labour market</i>	12
2.2 <i>The transitional labour market</i>	14
2.2.1 <i>Critical transitions</i>	15
2.2.2 <i>Types of transitions</i>	17
2.3 <i>Conclusion</i>	19
Chapter 3: Labour market situation in the Netherlands	21
<i>Introduction</i>	21
3.1 <i>Dutch population</i>	23
3.2 <i>Potential labour force</i>	23
3.3 <i>Dutch Labour force</i>	24
3.3.1 <i>Gross labour participation</i>	24
3.3.2 <i>Net labour participation (employment rate)</i>	28
3.3.3 <i>Difference between gross and net labour participation</i>	30
3.3.4 <i>Unemployment rate</i>	36
3.4 <i>Exclusionary transitions on four life domains</i>	39
3.5 <i>Conclusion</i>	51
Chapter 4: Policy question	55
4.1 <i>Unemployment of young people</i>	55
4.2 <i>Studying instead of entering the labour market</i>	57
4.3 <i>Young women leaving the labour market voluntarily</i>	58
4.4 <i>Return to labour market after maternity leave</i>	60
4.5 <i>Conclusion</i>	61
Chapter 5: Conclusion	63
Chapter 6: Discussion and limitations	66
6.1 <i>Criticisms on the TLM concept</i>	66
6.2 <i>Limitations of this research</i>	67
References	68
Appendix	73

Chapter 1: Introduction

At the end of 2008, after a long period of expansion within advanced countries, a strong economic downturn set in in the Netherlands (Rose & Spiegel, 2009). During the first part of the recession the Dutch economy was praised for its strong position. However, at this moment the Netherlands is not at all flourishing in an economic sense. The hesitant economic recovery, which followed the sharp economic downturn after the credit crunch, has abruptly ended. The feared double dip is a fact. The economic downturn is not without consequences for the labour market. While the increase in unemployment as a result of the credit crunch was initially not as bad as expected, the unemployment rate at this moment is clearly increasing. The recent growth of the unemployment rate is partly caused by a sharp increase in labour supply in the second half of 2011. This was partly due to the fact that more young people entered the labour market. At the beginning of the economic downturn a lot of young people decided to do an additional study to avoid entering the labour market. These additional studies have now ended, and these young people have entered the labour market. In addition, the number of older men in the labour market has remarkably increased, possibly because of changes in the retirement arrangements. Finally more people per household are searching for a job to maintain their level of household income, which can be defined as the added worker effect (Lundberg, 1985). Also the number of women who aspire to have a job has increased in the second half of 2011.

In 2009, during the credit crisis, the unemployment rate in the Netherlands was 3.7 percent. The projections for 2013 were that the unemployment rate would rise to 6 percent (Donders, 2012). However, in April 2013 the unemployment rate has already risen to 8.2 percent (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013). Concluding, the unemployment rate is increasing to a record number of 650.000 people. Not only the level of unemployment is of interest, also the duration and distribution of unemployment is important. For the latter, the question of interest is which categories are affected the most and which the hardest by the increasing unemployment as a consequence of the current crisis.

Concerning these categories, a distinction can be made between for instance younger and elderly people, between education levels, or between occupational

statuses. My main interest here includes the distinction between men and women. I do share this interest with Rubery, who investigated for the period 1964 – 1982, the labour market position of men and women during economic downturns, in four advanced countries.

1.1 Labour market position of women

According to Rubery (2011) during the long period of steady expansion, employment of women played an important role in the rate of growth. In former crises there was speculation about the influence of economic downturns on the general upward trend in women's employment. There was discussion if recession stopped this trend, whether reversed it, or that women had taken a permanent place in the labour market and the upward trend continued. For both statements arguments can be presented. If the increase in female employment only had taken place because of a deficit of male labour, and at the same time the extension of marketed and non-marketed substitutes for household labour, which released women from domestic tasks, then it seemed logical that the upward trend is halted or even reversed in times of recession. Because in a recession provision was cut back, and a surplus of males became available. On the other hand, if the integration of women into the labour market was based on permanent structural changes, both in the production system and in the social and family system, then the upward trend of higher participation of women could be expected to be persistent or even increasing. Another explanation of continuation of the upward trend in participation of women in the labour market could be the result of the homogenisation process and equalisation of employment roles for males and females.

Rubery (2011) has conducted research in four advanced countries, the US, Britain, Italy and France, to investigate these apparently contradicting pressures on women during earlier recessions. The four countries involved in the research have different forms of social and economic organisation, which create different sets of constraints and opportunities for women who are trying to combine employment with domestic roles. The results of Rubery are ambiguous; there is

no clear result whether women or men are better off in times of recession. The outcome of the research varies per country.

A shared outcome in the research of Rubery is that in all four countries there is a relatively disadvantaged labour market position of women. In recent decades the position of women in the labour market has improved, however the disadvantage is still present in for instance wage differences¹ and promotion opportunities (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, 2013). This market position is based on income dependency, enhanced by inequality of access to social security, and the prime responsibility of women to take care of domestic tasks. To what extent the disadvantage of women is modified in the labour market is related to the labour market regulation system. Rubery (2011) states that only changes in attitudes to women's labour market and family roles are unlikely to be sufficient to guarantee an improvement in the position of women in the labour market.

1.2 Systems of labour market regulation

To ensure that these potential social changes will result in real improvements in access to resources and opportunities for women, priority must be given to defending systems of labour market regulation. Rubery concludes that an effective framework for regulating and improving terms and conditions of employment in the labour market is necessary. The plea of Rubery for an effective framework of labour market regulations is strongly reminiscent of the plea of Gunther Schmid (1995) for institutional arrangements, which are aimed at facilitating labour market transitions. The institutional arrangements of Schmid are part of his more encompassing transitional labour market concept. Full employment is the key element of the transitional labour market: an average working time of 30 hours a week for both men and women, but the concrete working time can vary around this standard according to economic conditions and circumstances of a humans life cycle. Schmid calls the phases in the life cycle in which the working time deviates substantially from this standard 'transitional

¹In 2009, women earned on average 80% of the gross hourly earnings of men (Merens, Hartgers, & Van den Brakel, 2012).

employment' and the 'transitional labour markets' are institutional arrangements that allow such intermediate phases.

If the research of Rubery is taken into account, the question arises to what extent is the rise of women in the labour market, and their improved position in the labour market influenced by the transitional labour market concept, introduced by Gunther Schmid in the beginning of the nineties of the last century as a response to negative consequences of the rise of unemployment in many European countries. By the right support of institutions, the first labour market policy was aimed to reintegrate excluded groups such as women, minorities, low-educated and unemployed people into the labour market (Gautié & Gazier, 2003). Supported by institutions it should be easier for individuals to make transitions on the transitional labour market and between different domains of life (for example the transition from education to work). Consequently this would give individuals the opportunity to make a perfect combination of the several domains of life. Important elements of this theory are the combination of working time reduction with life-long learning, the use of explicit wage subsidies for lower income groups or hard-to-place people, and legally or contractually bargained entitlements to transitional employment.

According to Schmid, the Netherlands provide a good example of a transitional labour market. In his opinion the Dutch employment services are well modernized in 1994, and work and income are well redistributed on a massive scale in 1995. In particular, he favors the regulations for those who are unemployed for a long term, and normally would not find a job again (Schmid, 1998). Another important employment arrangement, which increased flexibility on the Dutch labour market, is part-time work. In the mid 1990s a large part of the newly created jobs were part-time jobs (Schmid, 2002).

Since Schmid sees the Netherlands as an example for other countries, it is interesting to select the Netherlands as the case to investigate whether the Transitional labour market has had influence on the position of women on the labour market in times of recession.

There are two different concepts of the transitional labour market: (1) the empirical TLM concept and (2) the normative TLM concept. Using the empirical concept, Schmid is giving a description of the reality, displayed in a model. According to the TLM concept human's life cycles are changing. People are going through random stages of employment and non-employment. They switch from one stage to another, so called transitions. The empirical concept of his model is about the actual increase in transitions during the working career of a person. Moreover, the empirical part of the theory is about the flows within the labour market and the understanding of the new dynamics of the labour market.

The second perspective of transitional labour market is the normative concept. The normative concept is a set of institutional arrangements, which facilitate integrative and maintenance transitions and which simultaneously should prevent exclusionary transitions. So, the normative concept is directed at giving advice on new institutional arrangements that are intended to support individuals through their critical transactions and prevent them from exclusion from paid work (Veenman & Bijwaard, 2012). An interesting question in this point of view could be if the institutional arrangements in the Netherlands work in such a way that women are not worse off than men during economic crises.

1.3 Research question

The aim of this research is to get insight in the factors that play a role in the possible disadvantages of women on the labour market. Interesting for this research is the empirical concept of the transitional labour market. Are there any differences in transitions during economic crises between men and women? And if there are any differences, where do they occur in the different life domains?

In this research a comparison will be made between men and women on every life domain of the transitional labour market. Hence, the research question is as follows:

Are there any differences in the labour market position of women and men in the Netherlands during the current recession? If so, which factors in the labour market system give an explanation for these differences?

The normative concept of the transitional labour market can be used to answer the policy question of this research: What contribution can the transitional labour market make to support women in the current recession? Policy makers can respond to this and make sure that the improved position of women is maintained. This introduction provides the aim and relevance of this research. It also explains the importance of the implementation of institutions to support the transitional labour market. The rest of this paper will be structured as follows: Chapter 1 is the introduction, chapter 2 clearly defines the transitional labour market; it will provide an overview of the academic literature covering this topic. Chapter 3 describes the current situation of the Dutch economy and the consequences for the labour market. Differences between men and women will be discussed. Chapter 4 provides explanations for differences between men and women. Chapter 5 summarizes the main findings. Chapter 6 discusses limitations of the research and provides recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2: Transitional Labour Market

Introduction

This chapter defines the transitional labour market; it provides an overview of the research literature covering this topic to create complete understanding of the TLM concept.

In the beginning of the nineties of the last century Günther Schmid introduced the concept of the transitional labour market as response to negative consequences of the rise of unemployment in many European countries. In the years after the introduction of the concept, Schmid made a few important additions and in 1998 the theory was formed (Reçi & De Bruijn, 2006).

Transitional labour market means that workers through a complex set of economic and social developments are increasingly experiencing transitions in their working careers. It concerns both transitions within paid work (from one job

Theory or no theory?

Günther Schmid describes the transitional labour market as a theory. But is this a proper way to describe the transitional labour market? Is the transitional labour market a theory or not?

According to Wacker (1998) a theory consists of four components: (1) definitions of terms of variables, (2) a domain where the theory applies, (3) a set of relationships of variables, and (4) specific predictions (factual claims). Theories consist of a set of precise definitions in a specific area, which give an explanation of relationships between variables. Most of the time a theory consists of a set of statements or statement, from which you can derive hypotheses, which can be tested. If the concept of the TLM of Schmid is viewed in this way it is questionable if the TLM is really a theory. Because in the concept of the transitional labour market there are no causality chains, and there is no indication of the dependent and independent variables. And therefore the TLM concept cannot easily be tested. In fact the concept of the TLM can be divided in two parts, the empirical part of the concept and the normative part of the concept. Schmid gives an abstraction of reality (empirical part) and describes how to deal with the risks of the transactions (normative part). Because of the structure of the concept of the transitional labour market it is hard to test for any hypotheses. Therefore this reference framework will be seen as a concept and used as a starting point to structure reality.

to another) and transitions between paid work and other activities (caring tasks at home, education, entertainment, but also sickness and temporary unemployment). A job for life seems to be something for the past. The current employee in the contemporary, post-industrial economy has become more changeable and flexible.

At the same time authorities are taking actions to facilitate these kinds of transactions, because of the benefits for both employer and employee.

The transitional labour market concept will help to explain the current situation of the labour market and the possible differences in labour market position between men and women, which will be examined in Chapter 3.

2.1 Towards the transitional labour market

The concept of Günther Schmid is based on observed changes in the composition and dynamics of the labour market over the last years. It is an overview of the driving forces, which had led to the emergence of the transitional labour market. There is tremendous turbulence in different markets; purchase market, sales market and coherent with these two the labour market. Labour markets are exposed to different impacts, which require adaptability of firms and their employees to market turbulences. The rise of unusual and non-standard contracts is reflecting the need of firms to adapt to the quick changes in the labour market. There are impacts, which have external sources; there may be a change in the effective demand or technological changes in the sales market. Besides external sources, these shocks can be caused by internal sources of the labour market, such as demographical changes or changes in family structure, which require job change. These internal sources can cause changes in the supply of work. According to Giddens (1994) internal risks, which are caused by interference of people in the conditions of social life, are characterizing our times. Giddens states that internal risks are not subject to any cyclical or seasonal pattern. As a consequence unemployment (involuntary and even voluntary) becomes a growing risk for everybody.

The number of labour market transitions has grown and its nature has changed by developments in economic, technological, cultural and demographic factors,

which are partly interrelated. Economic developments are mostly related to the increasing need for flexibility in employment relationships, which is mainly caused by growing uncertainty on the sales market and increasing international competition.

Technological developments may also affect the flexibility of labour relations, however they also have a more direct influence on the increase of transitions. Thereby the particular attention should be on the rapid changes in the information-, communication- and transportation sector, which in turn affect globalization.

The main cultural developments that contribute to the emergence of transitional labour are the interrelated processes of individualization and emancipation, which in turn are associated with secularization. Mainly the strong increase of women in the labour market increased the need for transitions from work to care and vice versa. Traditional social protection programmes have become obsolete. They are based on a male breadwinner model (male is completely responsible for the family income and woman for taking care of the household) and have become increasingly inadequate for a growing group of workers engaged in non-standard forms of employment. For instance, the Netherlands has a high incidence of part-time jobs. Also a lot of temporary agency workers and flextime workers are present in the Netherlands (O'Reilly, 2003). And especially this group is vulnerable and financially difficult to sustain as a result of economic and demographic pressures. This group is vulnerable because they are the first who are laid off by companies in economic downturns.

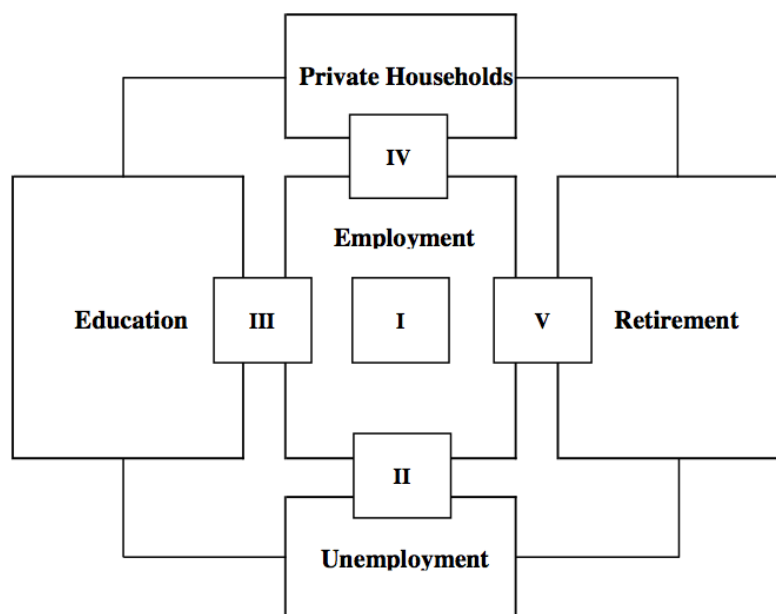
A demographic trend, which has led to more transitions, is the aging population. The consequences for the relationship between the number of employed and the number of inactive people in society, necessitate measures including a longer working life. To realize this, investment in economic and human capital is necessary to obviate a 'run out' of this human capital. Moreover periods of rest are conducive for individuals to motivate individuals for making a connection with the labour market until a later age. This leads to transitions from labour to school and vice versa and between work and sabbaticals.

The current labour market is changing and the ideal-type of ‘transitional labour market’ might gain importance. A lot of individuals might experience changes in the labour market. They move, voluntary or involuntary, from one job into another, this can be at the firm level, but also on the external labour market. For large groups in society the working life is changing. They might have to switch between short employment and unemployment events. A lifetime job for one employer will be unprocurable for most of the new employees on the labour market. And even if it is possible to stay with one employer for a lifetime, it is not wanted because of preference changes in allocation of spare time and labour (Muffels, 2008).

2.2 The transitional labour market

The empirical concept of the transitional labour market can be seen in figure 1. It shows the critical transitions where individuals are supposed to be most vulnerable. These are the following transitions: (1) transitions between various working time regimes, (2) the transition between employment and unemployment and vice versa, (3) the transition from education to work and vice versa, (4) the transition between family work and labour market work and vice versa, and (5) the transition to retirement.

Figure 1: Labour Market Policy as a Strategy of Transitional Labour Markets



Source: Transitional labour markets: a new European employment strategy by Schmid (1998)

The transitional labour market brings opportunities to reduce unemployment. First, the transitional labour market empowers individuals to deal with critical moments in life; by enhancing the capacity of individuals they can cope with the risks of their social life. Second, good transitional labour markets will support transitions back to the labour market, by providing incentives to convert passive expenditure into effective employment promotion. So every transition should contribute to an increasing employability. Third, transitional labour markets create a balance between centralized regulations and self-organization by delegating more decision-making power to individuals or local authorities. They can more easily adapt to individual needs and local conditions, which give them the opportunity to save money when the time is right (Schmid, 1998).

Except that the transitional labour market creates opportunities to structurally reduce unemployment, it creates at the same time risks for individuals who are making the transitions. In order to overcome this problem TLM arrangements are necessary to support individuals during their transitions and prevent unemployment. The normative component of the TLM concept is about the arrangements and policies, which are needed to reduce the risks of transitions.

2.2.1 Critical transitions

In the following part the critical transitions where individuals are supposed to be most vulnerable will be briefly explained.

(1) The first transition is the one between various working time regimes. Schmid does not pay much attention to the transitions between different employment statuses (for instance, individuals who move from one job to another). The important issue of the first transition is about substantial temporary working time reduction. This working time reduction should respond to particular conditions, such as cyclical demand fluctuations or bad weather conditions.

(2) The second kind of transition is the one between employment and unemployment. Nowadays, markets are more dynamic than before, and therefore it is not possible to eliminate unemployment completely. Furthermore, when more dynamism in a market is desirable, the higher the level of transitions, and therefore the risks of transitional unemployment will be. Because of the higher

level of transitions, more securities and arrangements are needed to lead individuals back into the regular labour market after transitional employment. If the government and employers can give the employee more certainty by such arrangements for transitional employment, the more they will accept uncertainty. Without the security given by such arrangement employees will not accept transitional employment and they will resist to necessary changes, which will decline their securities.

(3) The third transition is the one from education to work and the other way around. Educational transitions always generate a critical situation for each individual. However, with the rapid technological changes in these times, extra education, training and even retraining are necessary. With transitional employment there can be defined an advantage for both the employer and the employee. By education the advantage for the employee is an improvement in knowledge. The employees make an investment in themselves and therefore generate higher chances on the labour market when they return. For the employer on the other hand, education of the employee can be regarded as an investment in know-how, which is profitable for the company. If the employee leaves the company for a certain time for education there is a small risk for the company that the employee will not return. However, it may be assumed that individuals only make an investment in education if they eventually return to the labour market to benefit from their additional education. Thus for employers, educational transitions provide a certain form of security that the employee will return to the company with an increased level of know-how. The greatest risk of educational transitions is mostly for the employee, because of the lack of income for the period of education and the level of certainty to get a job when they want to return to the labour market.

(4) The fourth kind of transition is the transition between private work activities and labour market work. According to Schmid in a transitional society a lot more arrangements should be provided for transitions between unpaid and paid work. These arrangements should help individuals who are dealing with various critical events in their life cycle. Examples of these situations are divorces, parents who

are becoming dependent, parental leave, family formation etc.

(5) The last transition is the one from employment to retirement. In the last few years a lot of changes have occurred regarding retirement. At this moment the pension regulation in the Netherlands is very structured. The Dutch government has made it unattractive to leave the labour market and take early retirement. Because of the regulations the age of retiring is rising very fast at this moment. The consequence of the new policy of the Dutch government is that there are few opportunities to make transitions around retirement.

A few notes have to be made by the framework of transitions. At first because of the high regulation of retirement in the Netherlands it is not interesting to examine the transition to retirement. Therefore this transition will be left out in the rest of this research. Second, labour disability is an important issue in the Netherlands. In the Netherlands there is a high degree of social security; there is a public system that is intended to guarantee income and / or care for individuals at time of retirement, sickness, disability or unemployment. Labour disability plays an important role in the Netherlands. There is a relatively high disability rate. In 2011, nearly 825,000 people in the Netherlands received an allowance for labour disability (Rijksinstituut voor Volksgezondheid en Milieu). Because of the importance of this topic, it will be added as transition to the framework from work to occupational disability and vice versa.

Chapter three focuses on the comparison of men and women on the five different fields of transitions, which are discussed above.

2.2.2 Types of transitions

Below the focus will be on the effect of the transitions made in working life. There are three types of transitions, which can be described: (1) maintenance transitions, (2) integrative transitions and (3) exclusionary transitions.

(1) Maintenance transitions are transitions between different employment statuses. Employees move from one job to another; also called within employment. So employment continuity is allowed by maintenance transactions

by changing between different working time regimes (Cebrián, Gash, Moreno, O'Connell, & Toharia, 2000). With maintenance transitions the individual will stay on the same level of employment. There is no gain or loss with this type of transition for the individual.

(2) Integrative transitions are transitions where people, who are not in paid employment (for example the unemployed, students or carers) are moving into full-time employment via part-time work. So basically integrative transitions move people from unemployment to employment. Integrative transitions therefore can be described as crucial movements into employment. With integrative transitions individuals take a step forward. The transition has a positive effect on their employment status.

(3) The third type of transitions, exclusionary transitions, can be presented in several ways. According to Muffels (2008) these transitions are characterized by longer periods of unemployment or non-employment, interspersed with short periods of part-time or temporary work. Another interpretation is that exclusionary transitions are transitions from employment to unemployment, so movements out of employment (Muffels, Wilthagen, & Van den Heuvel, 2002).

According to Schmid exclusionary transitions also involve other transitions than only the one of employment to unemployment. Exclusionary transitions can also include transitions between the different life domains, which result in unemployment. For instance the transition from education to work; when a graduate is looking for a job, but can not find this also is an exclusionary transition. Another example of an exclusionary transition is when a mother wants to return to the labour market after taking care of the children and she cannot find a job.

In this research exclusionary transitions will be seen as transitions from any of the life domains to unemployment. Exclusionary transitions have therefore a negative impact on the employment status of the individual.

It can be concluded that every type of transition has a different impact on the employment status of the individual. The transitional labour market gives new opportunities for some people, but also creates risks of exclusion for others. For this research, the focus will especially be on exclusionary transitions. To answer

the research question if there are any differences in the labour market position of men and women in the Netherlands during the current recession, the question are there any differences between men and women on exclusionary transitions in the several domains of life will be answered in the next chapter.

In the earlier research of Rubery there was no clear outcome if the position of women in times of recession has changed. There were different outcomes for the four involved countries. To continue with this research, and investigate what happens with the position of women in the labour market in the Netherlands during the current recession two hypotheses can be formulated:

H0: In times of recession there is no change in the position of women on the labour market.

Ha: In times of recession there is a change in the position of women on the labour market.

Ha (1): In times of recession the position of women on the labour market deteriorates.

Ha (2): In times of recession the position of women on the labour market improves.

Which hypothesis is false, depends on the factors of influence. Are the factors of influence structural, temporal or both?

To see which hypothesis is false, the next chapter gives insight in the changes of the position of women on the labour market in the Netherlands in the different domains of life.

2.3 Conclusion

The concept of the transitional labour market is based on observed changes in the composition and dynamics of the labour market over the last years. The number of labour market transitions has grown and its nature has changed by developments in economic, technological, cultural and demographic factors, which are partly interrelated.

Full employment is the key element of the transitional labour market: an average working time of 30 hours a week for both men and women, but the concrete

working time can vary around this standard according to economic conditions and circumstances of a humans life cycle.

The current labour market is changing and the ideal-type of 'transitional labour market' might gain importance. Transitional labour markets can be divided in an empirical and normative concept. The empirical concept is about the actual increase in transitions during the working career of a person and about the flows within the labour market and the understanding of new dynamics of the labour market. The normative component of the TLM concept is about the arrangements and policies, which are needed to reduce the risks of transitions.

In this research mainly the empirical concept will be used to analyze the difference in labour market position of men and women in times of recession. The empirical concept includes five critical transitions where individuals are supposed to be most vulnerable. Transitions between various working time regimes, transitions between employment and unemployment and vice versa, transitions from education to work and vice versa, transitions between family work and labour market work and vice versa, and at last the transition to retirement.

Because of the high regulation of retirement in the Netherlands the transition to retirement will be omitted in this research. However, labour disability plays an important role in the Netherlands and will therefore be discussed in this research.

Except that the transitional labour market creates opportunities to structurally reduce unemployment, it creates at the same time risks for individuals who are making the transitions. In order to overcome this problem TLM arrangements are necessary to support individuals during their transitions and prevent unemployment.

The greatest risk for individuals by making a transition is to get unemployed. These transitions are called exclusionary transitions. Exclusionary transitions can be presented in several ways. In this research exclusionary transitions will be seen as transitions from any of the life domains to unemployment. Exclusionary transitions have therefore a negative impact on the employment status of the individual.

The next Chapter focuses on the differences between men and women on exclusionary transitions in the several domains of life.

Chapter 3: Labour market situation in the Netherlands

Introduction

This chapter provides insight into the current situation of the labour market in the Netherlands. The main economic developments, which have affected the labour market in the recent years, will be discussed. To find out if there are any differences in the labour market position of men and women the exclusionary transitions in the several domains of life for both men and women will be examined.

Economic development is the most important determinant of the labour market. And at this time both the economy and the labour market are suffering from hard times. At this moment, the Dutch economy can be judged as bad. In the fourth quarter of 2012, the economy contracted. Technically, the Dutch economy is in a recession² for the third time in four years.

Consumer spending in the fourth quarter of 2012 was again less than the third quarter and also the investments decreased. Government spending and exports have increased slightly.

Concluding, the economic conditions are unfavourable. Those unfavourable conditions translate to the following developments on the labour market:

(1) The number of temporary work hours has been shrinking for more than a year. (2) There are few new job offers created. (3) The number of UWV granted dismissal permits increased sharply. (4) The number of bankruptcies is high (Donders, 2012). (5) The number of self-employed has increased with more than 200.000 people in the past 10 years (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2012).

Supply and demand in the labour market are responding to recent economic conditions:

- Labour demand by employers: The number of jobs in the fourth quarter of 2012, compared to the previous quarter, has declined again. Compared with last year a decrease of 1.2 percent has occurred. Also the number of vacancies has declined

² Recession is when there are two consecutive quarters of economic contraction.

in the past two years. This was mainly due to a lower demand from enterprises (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013).

- Labour supply by workers: The size of the labour force has grown. In December 2012, the size of the labour force, compared to a year ago, has gone up with 0.7 percent.

The number of job seekers is determined by developments in the demand for labour (employment) and labour supply (labour force). Less labour demand and more supply of labour, increases the number of job seekers. At the end of 2012, the number of jobseekers consists of 569,000 people: over 96,000 more than a year ago (+20%).

Looking at the unemployment payments, then a similar trend can be seen. At the end of 2012, the number of unemployment payments was 340,000: compared with a year ago a growth of 70,000 (+26%) (Donders, 2012).

This chapter discusses the most important developments in the labour market in the Netherlands. At first Section 3.1 describes the Dutch population to get insight in the distribution of different age groups of men and women in the Netherlands. Then Section 3.2 describes the potential labour force. Section 3.3 describes the Dutch labour force, gross and net labour participation, and associated with these two the unemployment rate. By describing the data step by step, a layer of the Dutch population will be peeled off with every step. The group becomes smaller and smaller, until only the people with a job are left.

Within every step the most striking differences between men and women will be discussed. By channeling the information an overview of the size of unemployed and employed people becomes visible. However, for the complete understanding of unemployment it is not only the size of unemployment that matters, but also of importance is the in- and outflow from unemployment and its composition. This can be linked with the exclusionary transitions of Schmid. Section 3.4 gives insight into which transitions people make, and which transitions lead to in- and exclusion from the labour market. The most important developments in the transitions between the different life domains will be investigated.

3.1 Dutch population

The ratio between men and women in the total population is practically in balance. However, there are differences between age groups. At a young age, there are more men than women, because slightly more boys than girls are born (51%). This percentage will gradually lower, as in all age categories more men than women die. From the age of 65, there are more women than men. After this age, the proportion of men in the total population will fall rapidly (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek).

Looking at the development of the distribution of men and women in the Dutch population there is no significant change over the last 5 years (see Appendix A for graphics). From 2008-2012 the ratio of men and women stayed 49.5 percent men and 50.5 percent women. In absolute terms the number of men increased from 8,112,073 in 2008 to 8,282,871 in 2012. For women the number increased from 8,293,326 in 2008 to 8,447,477 in 2012 (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013).

3.2 Potential labour force

According to Statistics Netherlands the potential labour force is that part of the Dutch population that given his age (15-65 years old) is eligible to participate in the labour market.

In the last five years the Dutch population increased. The potential labour force however diminished. This is due to the aging of the Dutch population.

In 2008, 68.2 percent of the men in the Dutch population belonged to the potential labour force. In 2012 only 66.6 percent of the men in the Dutch population belonged to the potential labour force. Also in absolute terms the number of men in the potential labour force has diminished. In 2008, 5,533,000 men were part of the potential labour force. And in 2012 this number has declined to 5,519,000 men.

Just as for men, in relative sense the percentage of women who belonged to the potential labour force also diminished every year. In 2008, 65.9 percent of the women in the Dutch population belonged to the potential labour force. In 2012 this

was only 64.8 percent. In absolute terms the number of women in the potential labour force increased for three years. In 2011 and 2012 the number of women who were part of the potential labour force diminished. In 2008, 5,464,000 women were part of the potential labour force. And in 2012 this number has increased to 5,473,000 (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013).

As can be seen in Appendix A more men than women belong to the potential labour force. The ratio between men and women is for the potential labour force somewhat different than for the Dutch population. In 2008, 50.3 percent was men and 49.7 percent was women. In 2012 the ratio changed slightly to 50.2 percent men and 49.8 percent women.

3.3 Dutch Labour force

According to Statistics Netherlands the Dutch labour force consists of all people who:

- Work twelve hours a week at least, or
- Have accepted work, what gives them the obligation to work twelve hours a week at least, or
- Declare they want to work at least twelve hours, and are available for at least twelve hours, and are willing to make effort to find work.

Of the labour force, persons who work at least twelve hours a week are counted to the employed labour force and those who work less than twelve hours a week to the unemployed labour force.

A distinction in the labour force can be made between gross and net labour force participation.

3.3.1 Gross labour participation

The gross labour participation indicates the percentage of the potential labour force (population 15 to 65 years) that has a paid job or ambition for a job of at least twelve hours a week (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek). Figure 2 shows the Dutch gross labour participation for 2008-2012.

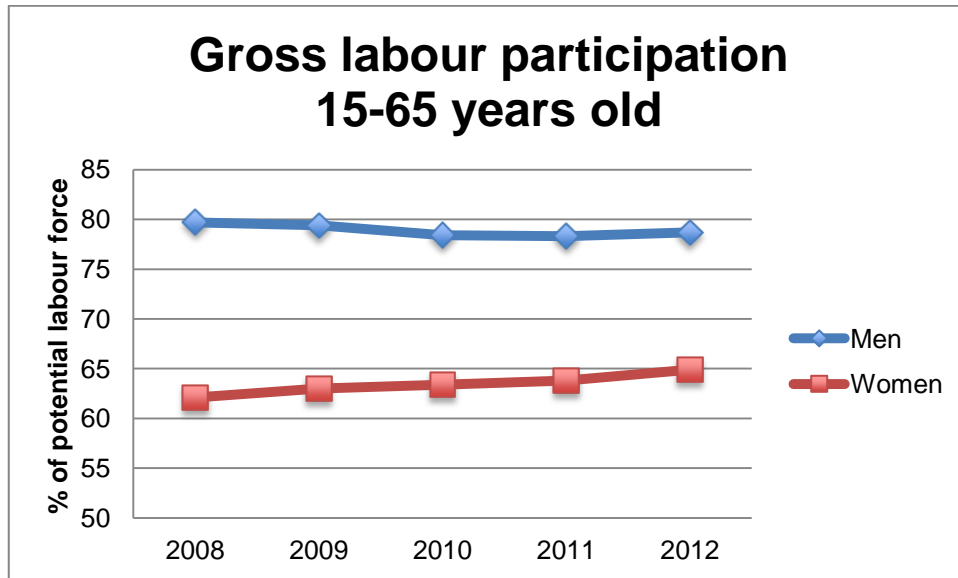


Figure 2: The gross labour participation of the potential labour force in the Netherlands.

In 2008 the gross labour participation for men was 79.7 percent. This means that 79.7 percent of the potential men labour force has a paid job, or the ambition to have a job for at least twelve hours a week. In 2012, this number declined to 78.7 percent. The number of men that belonged to the gross labour participation declined for every year from 2008-2011. In 2012 the number of men increased. In absolute terms, the number of men that belonged to the gross labour participation was 4,410,000 in 2008, and 4,343,000 in 2012.

For women, on the other hand, the percentage has increased from 62.1 percent in 2008 to 64.9 percent in 2012. The number of women who belonged to the gross labour participation increased every year from 2008-2012. In absolute terms, the number of women in 2008 was 3,393,000 and in 2012 the number was 3,552,000. Here a difference between men and women can be seen. Of the decreasing potential labour force, more women than men (want to) join the labour market. This can be seen in the ratio between men and women in the gross labour participation. This ratio has changed from 56.5% men – 43.5% women in 2008, to 55% men – 45% women in 2012.

To get insight in where this difference comes from, a distinction between different age groups will be made (see Appendix B for graphics).

15-25 years old

What is noticeable in the different age groups is the low participation rate of the group of 15-25 years old. In 2008 48.5 percent of the men belonged to the gross labour participation. In the following years the percentage of men that belonged to the gross labour participation in this group diminished every year. In 2012 only 43.2 percent of men belonged to the gross labour participation.

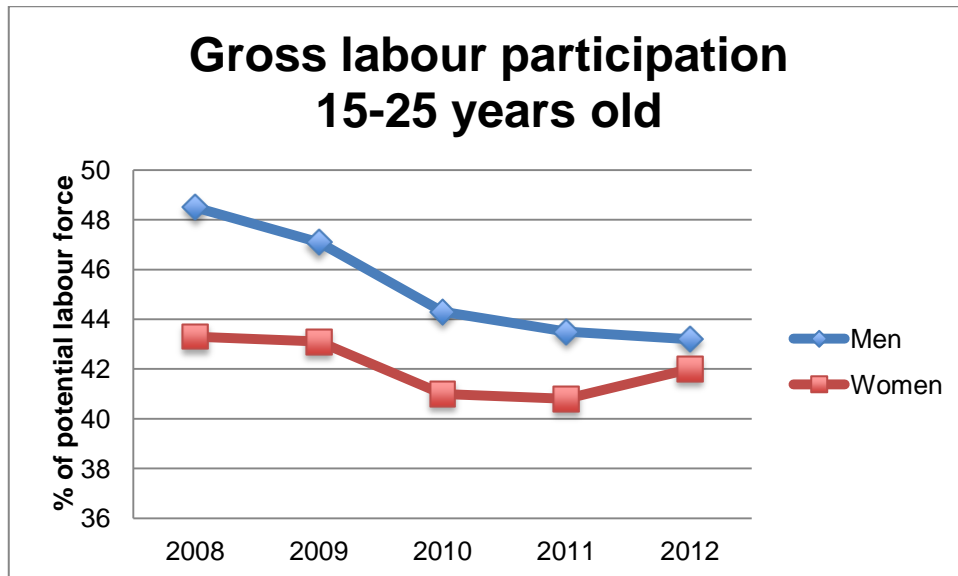


Figure 3: The gross labour participation of the age group 15-25 years old in the Netherlands

For women, this development is somewhat different. The diminishing trend is the same as for men, except for the year 2012. In this year the percentage of women who belonged to the gross labour participation increased from 40.8 in 2011, to 42 percent in 2012. The starting point of women was 43.3 percent in 2008. So, overall the gross labour participation rate of women in the age group of 15-25 years old diminished.

The most logical explanation that can be given for the low participation rate for as both men and women is that people in this age category often study. This does not imply that people who participate in education do not work, but often less than 12 hours per week. During the last recession the participation rate for men and women diminished. Possibly, in times of recession young people decide to follow education instead of entering the labour market.

25-45 years old

Another striking point is the difference in participation rates between men and women in the groups 25-35 years and 35-45 years old. The labour participation rate for men is higher than for women.

In the age category of 25-35 years old the gross labour participation of men diminished in the years 2008-2012 compared to the previous year. The participation of men diminished from 94.2 percent in 2008 to 91.9 percent in 2012. The same trend cannot be observed for women. The developments during the years are more volatile for women. In 2008-2010 the participation of women in the age category of 25-35 years old increased from 82.1 in 2008 to 83.2 in 2010. In 2011, the gross labour participation diminished to 82.2 percent. And in 2012 it increased again to 82.6 percent. Here a difference in the development of gross labour participation between men and women can be seen. Thus, not only the gross labour participation rate of men is higher than of women, also the developments over the years are different.

Exactly the same developments can be seen in the age category of 35-45 years old. The gross labour participation of men contracted from 95.3 percent in 2008 to 93.7 percent in 2012. And for women it increased from 76.6 percent in 2008 to 78.6 in 2010. In 2011 it contracted to 77.7 percent and in 2012 it increased again to 78 percent.

The most logical explanation that can be given for the difference in labour participation of men and women in these age categories is that women more often take care of the household and children than men.

45-55 years old

For the age group of 45-55 years old there are some differences in the developments between men and women over the years. For men the development of the gross labour is relative stable. Overall the labour participation rate of men contracted from 91.9 percent in 2008, to 91.7 percent in 2012. For women it was the other way around. The gross labour participation rate for women increased over the years 2008-2012. The women labour participation rate increased from 70 percent in 2008, to 74.4 percent in 2012. Despite the growth of

women in this age group, the difference between men and women is still present. The male participation rate is higher than for women. However, this gap is decreasing.

55-65 years old

In the age category 55-65 years old as well for men and women an increase in gross labour participation can be seen in the years 2008-2012. For men the gross labour participation was 62.8 percent in 2008 and 69 percent in 2012. For women this was 33.9 percent in 2008 and this number increased to 44.4 percent in 2012. Although the labour participation rate for both men and women increased, the growth for women is stronger. Therefore the difference between men and women becomes smaller in this age category.

The increasing gross labour participation in this age group is probably due to the changes in the pension regulation in the Netherlands. The Dutch government has made it unattractive to leave the labour market and take early retirement. People have to work till the age of 67. Consequently the age of retiring is rising very fast. Because of the crisis and the new regulations of the Dutch government people who were already retired had to come back to the labour market. So, it is logical that the gross labour participation has grown in the last years. This 'trend' applies for both men and women. Because of the new policy of the Dutch government there are few opportunities to make transitions around retirement. Therefore this trend will not be discussed any further.

3.3.2 Net labour participation (employment rate)

The employment rate indicates according to Statistics Netherlands the percentage of the working age population that has a job for more than twelve hours a week. Because of unemployment this rate is always slightly below the gross labour participation rate. Figure 4 shows the Dutch net labour participation for 2008-2012.

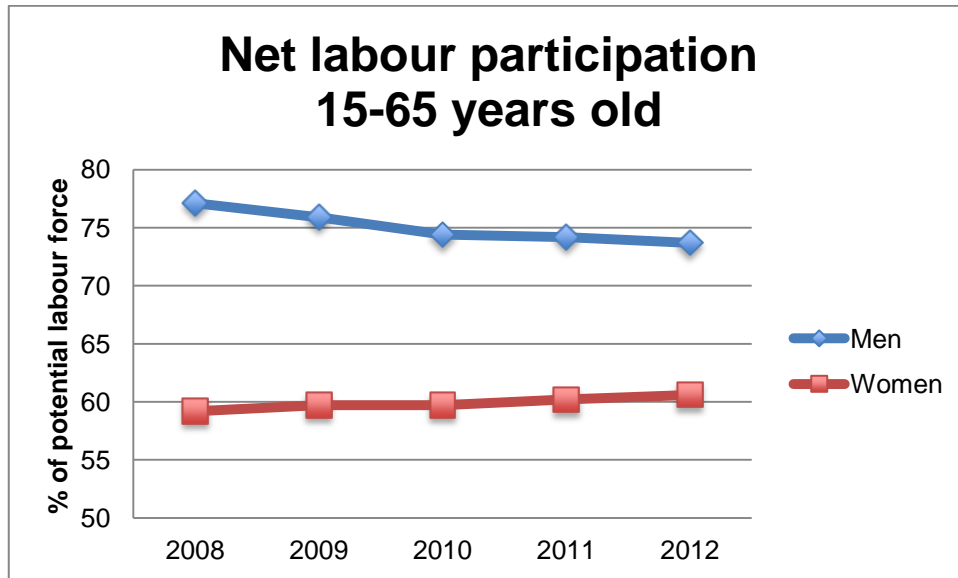


Figure 4: The net labour participation of the potential labour force in the Netherlands

The development of the net labour participation is different for men and women for the years 2008-2012. For men the net employment rate contracted all the years, compared with the previous year. The net employment rate diminished from 77.1 percent in 2008 to 73.7 percent in 2012. For women the contrary is visible; the net labour participation rate increased from 59.2 percent in 2008 to 60.6 percent in 2012. Overall the gap between men and women on net labour participation is shrinking.

Also here a distinction has been made between the five age groups to see where the difference between men and women comes from (see Appendix C for graphics).

15-25 years old

The net labour participation in the age group of 15-25 years old is slightly different for men as for women. For both men and women the net participation rate is declining. However, the participation rate of men is especially in the first and last year decreasing faster than the participation rate of women. Thus in the age group of 15-35 years old, in 2012 there are still more men with a job than women. However, the gap between men and women has shrunk considerably.

25-35 years old

In the age group of 25-35 year old people a difference between men and women can be seen. The net labour participation of men is declining in every year. For women on the other hand the net labour participation is stable in 2008-2010 and after those years it is declining. The decline in the last two years for women is less severe as for men.

35-45 years old

In the age group 35-45 years old a difference in the net labour participation for men and women can be seen in the first year of the period 2008-2012. For women the net labour participation has increased and for men this was the other way around. For the other years the net labour participation is both for men and women diminishing. However, the decline is for women less severe as for men.

45-55 years old

For the age group 45-55 years old the development of the net participation rate for men and women is completely the opposite. Over the years the net labour participation for men is has declined from 89.6 percent in 2008 to 87.2 in 2012, while at the same time the net labour participation for women is has increased from 67.1 percent in 2008 to 70.2 percent in 2012. Thus, also in this age group, the gap between men and women is diminishing.

55-65 years old

In the age group 55-65 year old people there is hardly no difference between men and women. The net labour participation is going up for both men and women. The net labour participation of women is growing somewhat faster than the net labour participation of men.

3.3.3 Difference between gross and net labour participation

The net labour participation rate by itself only gives information about how many people are actually having jobs of more than 12 hours per week. More interesting is to investigate the difference between the gross and net labour participation rate i.e. the unemployment rate.

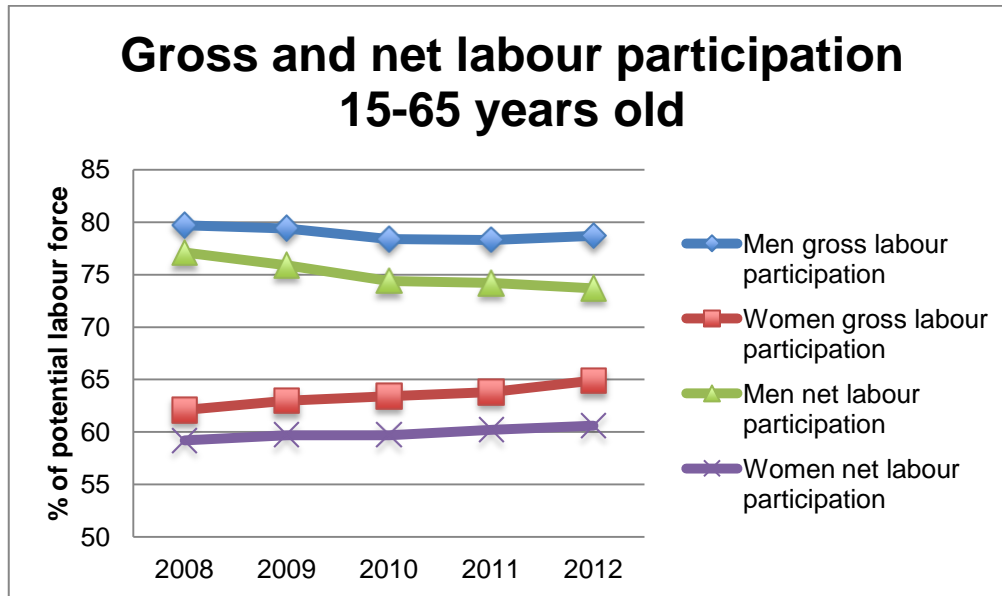


Figure 5: Gross and net labour participation of the potential labour force in the Netherlands

As can be seen in the figure above the difference between gross and net labour participation in 2008 was larger for women than for men. For females the difference was 2.9 percentage points and for men this was 2.8 percentage points in 2008. Over the years this has changed; the net employment rate of men had fallen faster than the one of women. The difference between the gross and net labour participation has grown to 5.0 percentage points in 2012 for men. For women the difference was 4.3 percentage points in 2012.

This information shows that the position of women has changed in the labour market. More women are participating on the labour market and they are less vulnerable for exclusionary transitions.

H0: In times of recession there is no change in the position of women on the labour market.

So H0 can be rejected and it can be assumed that Ha is true; there is a change in the position of women on the labour market.

Ha: In times of recession there is a change in the position of women on the labour market.

The larger gap between gross and net labour participation for men than women might indicate that men have more difficulty finding or keeping a job during the crisis than women. In all probability the unemployment rate of men has grown faster than the unemployment rate of women.

So it can be concluded that the change in the position of women is positive. So $H_a(1)$ can be rejected and it can be assumed that $H_a(2)$ is true.

$H_a(1)$: In times of recession the position of women on the labour market deteriorates.

$H_a(2)$: In times of recession the position of women on the labour market improves.

The unemployment rate of men and women will be discussed in the next paragraph. To see if the cause of the difference between gross and net labour participation for men and women can be found in age, the data has been divided by age.

15-25 years old

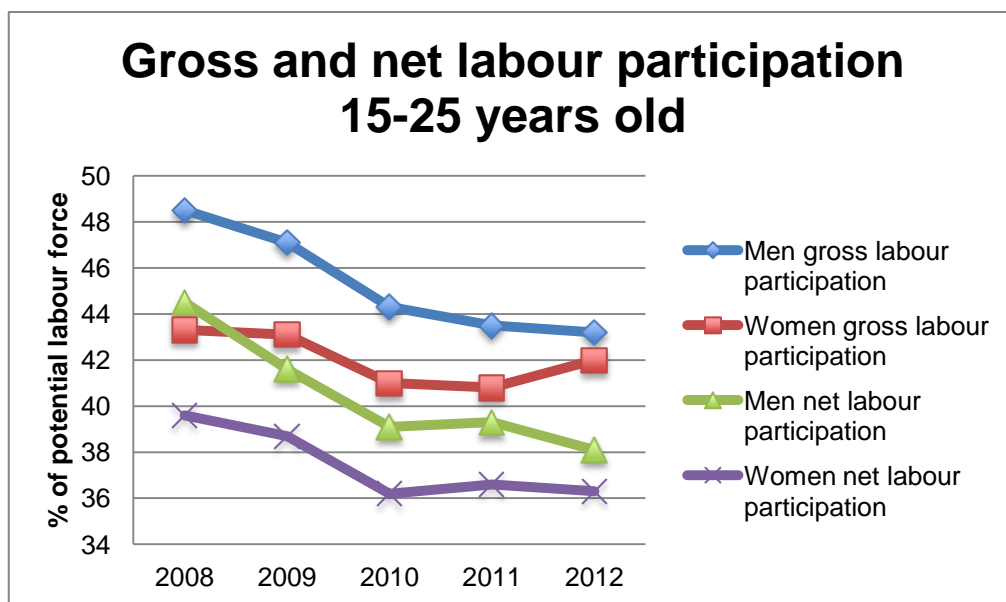


Figure 6: Gross and net labour participation of the age group 15-25 years old in the Netherlands

In the age category 15-25 years old there is a great difference between the development of the gross and net labour participation of men and women.

For men both the gross and net labour participation are declining. However, the gap between the gross and net labour participation is growing from 4.0 percentage points in 2008 to 5.1 percentage points in 2012.

For women there is a difference in the development of gross and net labour participation. At first both the gross and net labour participation are declining. Then in the third year the gross labour participation is falling, and the net labour participation is rising. And in the fourth year this is the other way around. It seemed that in the last year, a lot of women in this age category have entered the labour market, but they could not find a job. Hence, women suffer from exclusionary transitions in this age group.

25-35 years old

What stands out in the age category of 25-35 years old is the widening gap between the gross and net labour participation for both men and women. For men this gap is larger than for women. In 2008 the gap for men was 2.7 percentage points and in 2012 this was 6.7 percentage points. For women this gap was larger in 2008. The gap was at that time 2.9 percentage points and in 2012 it was increased to 4.7 percentage points. Concluding, the unemployment and therefore the exclusionary transitions of men is increasing faster in this age category than that of women.

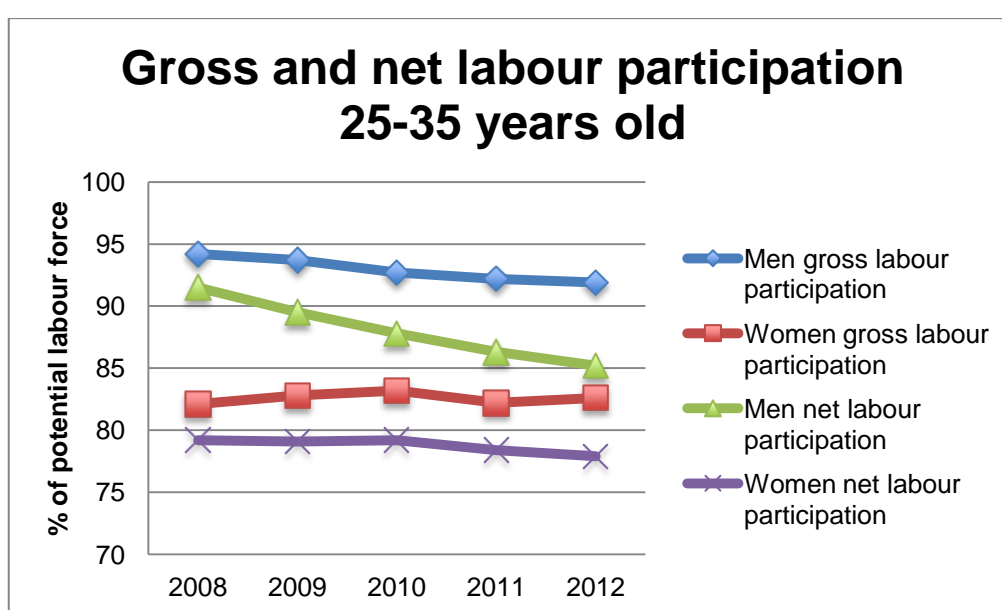


Figure 7: Gross and net labour participation of the age group 25-35 years old in the Netherlands

35-45 years old

For the age group 35-45 years old the same can be seen as in the age group 25-35 years old. As well for men and women the gap between gross and net labour participation is growing. However the gap between gross and net labour participation is growing faster for men than for women. In 2008, the difference between the two for men was 1.8 percentage points and this has grown to 4.8 percentage points in 2012. For women the difference in 2008 was 3.4 percentage points and this has grown to 4.4 percentage points in 2012.

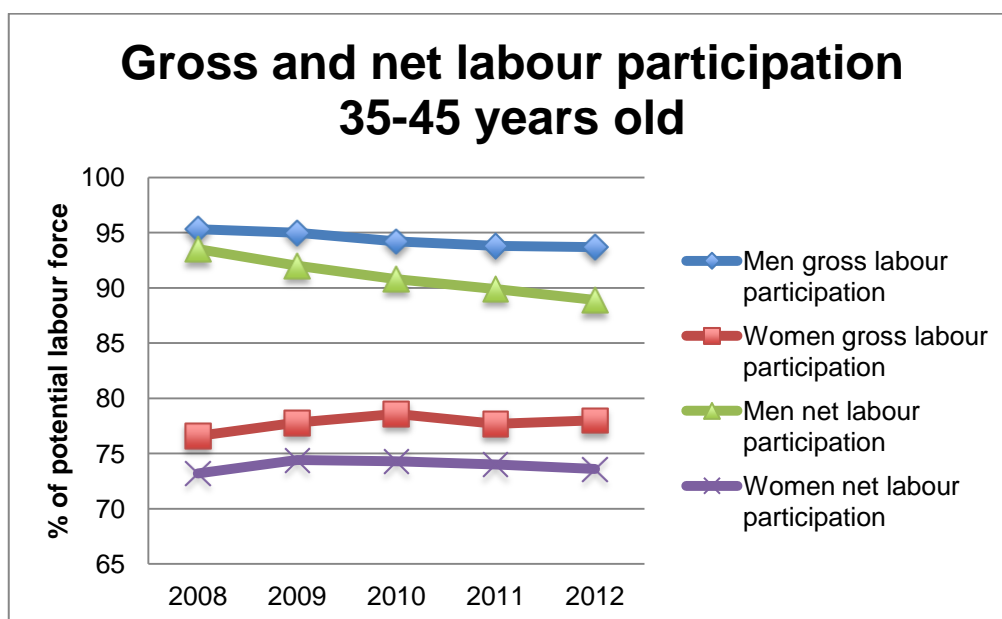


Figure 8: Gross and net labour participation of the age group 35-45 years old in the Netherlands

45-55 years old

The developments of the net and gross labour participation in this age group are essentially the same for men and women. In 2008 the difference between gross and net labour participation for men was 2.3 percentage points. Over the years this has risen to a difference of 4.5 percentage points. For women this growth was smaller; in 2008 the difference was 2.9 percentage points and this has grown to 4.2 percentage points in 2012.

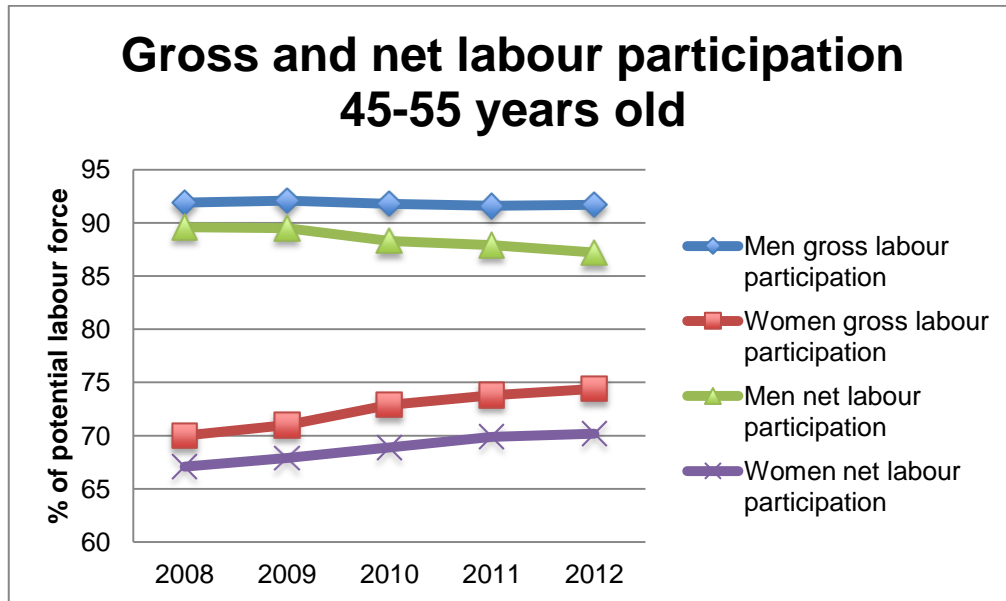


Figure 9: Gross and net labour participation of the age group 45-55 years old in the Netherlands.

55-65 years old

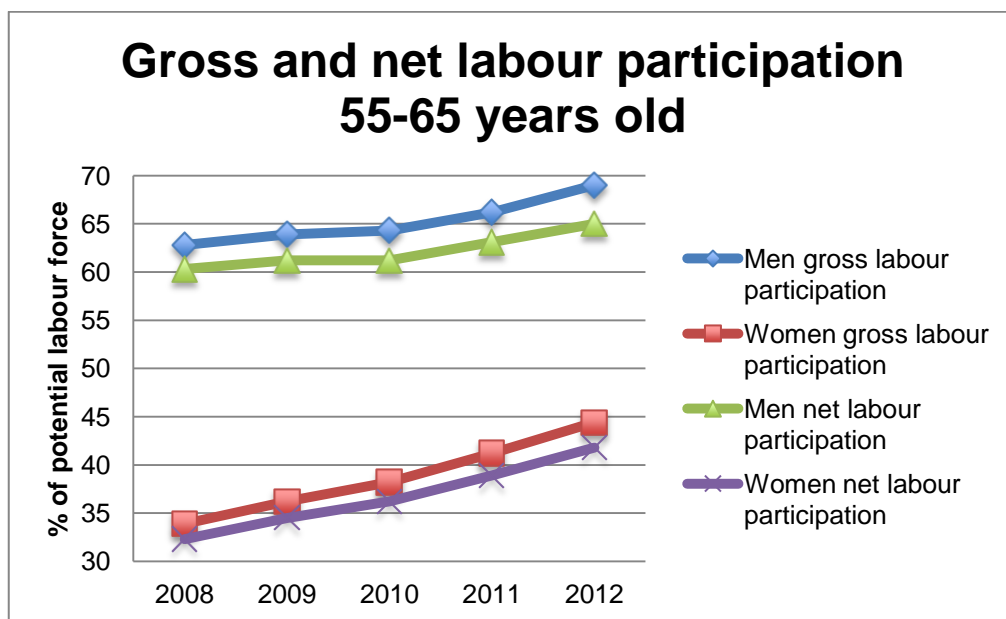


Figure 10: Gross and net labour participation of the age group 55-65 years old in the Netherlands.

The differences between the gross and net labour participation between men and women are not so large in this age group. For men the difference between gross and net labour participation is growing over the years. The difference in 2008 was 2.5 percentage points and in 2012 the difference was 4 percentage points. For

women this difference is smaller, in 2008 the difference was 1.6 percentage points and this has grown to 2.6 percentage points in 2012.

3.3.4 Unemployment rate

As well for men and women the unemployment rate is growing. In times of this recession both are suffering from exclusionary transitions. However, the unemployment rate for men is growing faster than for women. The unemployment rate for men increased from 3.2 percent in 2008 to 6.3 percent in 2012. For women this was 4.7 percent in 2008 and 6.6 percent in 2012. So the gap between the unemployment rate of men and women has almost disappeared.

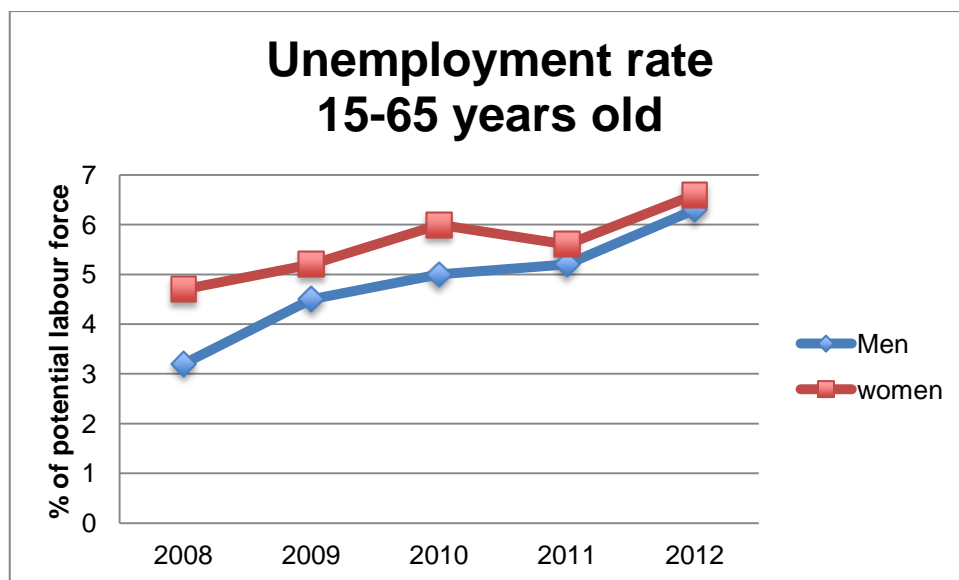


Figure 11: The unemployment rate of the potential labour force in the Netherlands for 2008-2012.

Again a distinction has been made between the five different age groups to see where the differences between men and women come from (see Appendix D for graphics).

15-25 years old

The unemployment rate in the age group of 15-25 years old fluctuated over the years 2008-2012. The difference in the unemployment rate between men and women are very small in this age group. However, in the last year the difference between men and women became larger in favour of men. Hence, it seems that in

this age category men have become more vulnerable for exclusionary transitions than women.

25-35 years old

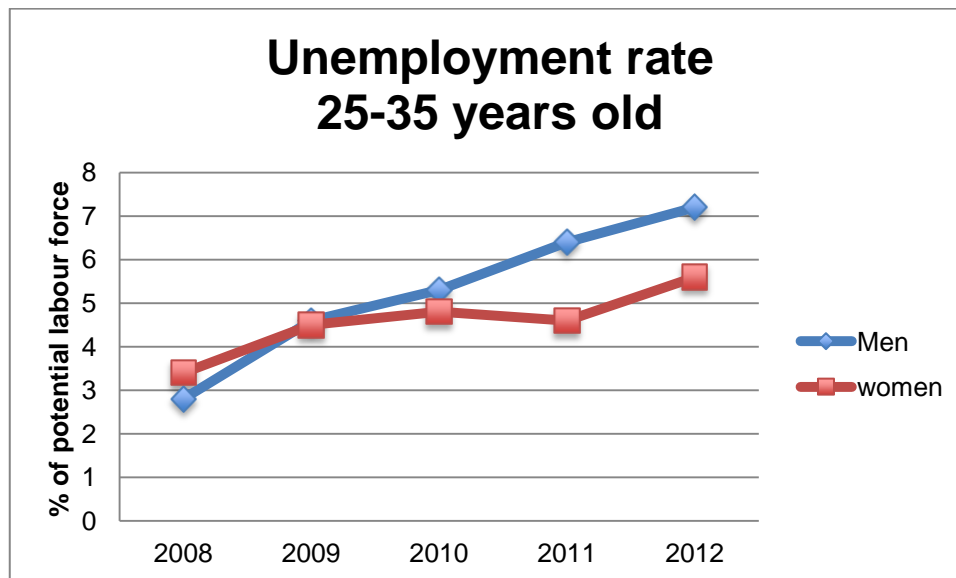


Figure 12: The unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 25-35 years old in 2008-2012.

In the age group of 25-35 years old the difference between men and women is clearly visible. The unemployment rate of both men and women is rising in this age category. However, the unemployment rate of men is rising faster than the one of women.

In 2008 the unemployment rate of women was slightly higher than the one of men. Since 2009, the unemployment rate of men is higher than the one of women and the difference between the two is growing.

The unemployment rate of men in this age category increased from 2.8 in 2008 to 7.2 percent in 2012. For women this was 3.4 percent in 2008 and 5.6 percent in 2012.

A possible explanation for this could be that women of this age earlier choose to take care of the children and the household if they can not get a job than men.

35-45 years old

In the age group 35-45 year old people the unemployment rate for men and women is rising. However, the unemployment rate of men is rising faster than the one of women. In 2008 there was a gap of 2.6 percentage points between men and women. In 2012 this gap was only 0.4 percentage points.

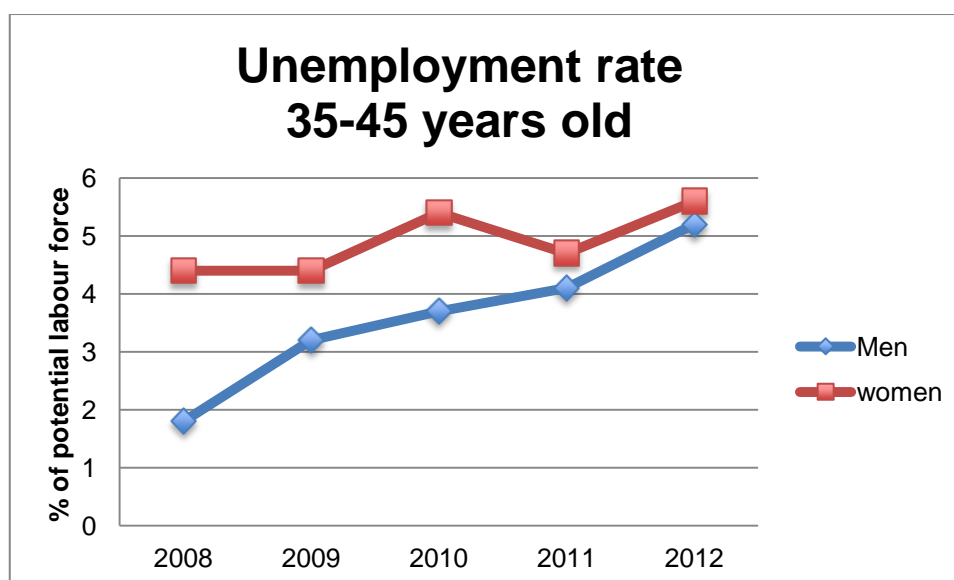


Figure 13: The unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 35-45 years old in 2008-2012.

45-55 years old

In this age group the unemployment rate both for men as for women has increased. The unemployment rate for men has increased from 2.4 in 2008 to 4.9 percent in 2012. For women this increase is smaller. In 2008 the unemployment rate was 4.1 percent and this has increased to 5.6 in 2012. So the unemployment rate for women in this age group is still higher, however the gap between men and women is shrinking.

55-65 years old

Over the years 2008-2012 the unemployment rate of men and women are almost equal in this age group. From 2008 to 2011 the unemployment rate of men was lower than the one of women. However, the differences between men and women

are very small in comparison with the other age groups. In 2012, the unemployment rate of men and women became equal.

Overall can be seen, that the unemployment rate for men is rising harder than the one of women. An explanation for the overall difference between the development of unemployment of men and women might be found in different working areas of men and women. In the period of 2008-2012 the unemployment ratio differed over the years. In 2008 more women than men were unemployed. From 2009 – 2012 more men than women were unemployed. In periods of rising unemployment, men are being hit harder by unemployment than women. In periods of falling unemployment, the unemployment of men is taking harder off, than that of women. Unemployment is less cyclical for women than for men. This is due to the fact that women relatively work a lot in sectors, which are less sensitive to developments in the economy, such as health and education. This while men more often work in the cyclical sectors such as ICT, construction and industries (Beckers, Mol, Van der Mooren & De Vries, 2007). The sector, which is hit the hardest by unemployment, is construction. Numbers of Statistics Netherlands show that the number of unemployment benefits has increased in April 2013 with 62 percent compared to a year ago. For the health sector, this percentage was 39 percent (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013).

3.4 Exclusionary transitions on four life domains

For complete understanding of unemployment it is not only the size of unemployment that matters, but also of importance is the in- and outflow from unemployment and its composition. This affiliates with the exclusionary transitions of Schmid. The most important question is which transitions people make, and which transitions lead to in- and exclusion from the labour market. And is it possible to discover any differences between men and women?

Decline in unemployment can arise because more unemployed people found a job, but also because unemployed people flow out of unemployment and are no longer available on the labour market. In this case the unemployed have moved to

the non-working population³. The transition from the non-labour force to unemployment for instance can include women who want a job again after a period of childcare.

The next section investigates the most important developments in the transitions between the different life domains. Consecutive the following life domains and their transitions will be discussed: (1) employment (2) education, (3) labour disability, and (4) private households.

(1) Employment

Within the domain of employment the working mobility is of interest. Is there a difference between men and women in to what extent they change jobs in times of recession? The number of workers who change jobs each year is closely related to the state of the economy. During a boom, more people will change of employer than during a recession. Labour mobility in the Netherlands is low: it is difficult to get a steady job and who has a steady job, will not give it up easily (CBS, 2012). People experience significant barriers in the transition from one job to the other and from a permanent job to flexible work. The average job duration in the Netherlands is increasing (Sociaal Economische raad en de Stichting van de arbeid, 2010). According to the Hay Group (PW de gids, 2013) employee movements are low in the Netherlands compared to the rest of Europe. The employee turnover in the Netherlands is 6.1 percent in 2013. Which is much lower than for instance Germany (14%) or France (13.4%). Unfortunately recent figures of labour mobility in the Netherlands during this crisis are not available at Statistics Netherlands, because they are dependent on external sources. Therefore it is difficult to draw conclusions about the differences of men and women and there labour mobility. What can be said is that over a period of 1988-2008, the external labour mobility⁴ of women is higher than men. Hereby age effects play a role. Additional descriptive analyzes show that especially for the

³ The non-labor force consists of persons aged 15 to 65 years without a job, or who work less than twelve hours a week, and who are not actively seeking paid work for twelve hours or more per week or who are not directly available.

⁴ External labour mobility: This is a change of employer, a distinction can be made between:
(1) Intra-sectoral mobility: a different job with another employer, but within the same sector.
(2) Intersectoral (or sectoral) mobility: a new job with another employer, but in a different sector.
(SERmagazine)

older age groups, the external labour mobility is comparatively higher than that of men (Van Ojen & Zwinkels, 2011). Most recent figures, which are available, are from 2008 and 2009. At the end of 2008, the economy deteriorated and fewer employees exchanged jobs. Between 2008 and 2009, 590 thousand employees changed jobs, 10 percent of all employees who were in paid employment in 2008 and in 2009. Labour mobility is not equal for all workers and is clearly decreasing with age. Of employees from 45 to 65 years, only 4.4 percent exchanged jobs between 2008 and 2009. Among women labour mobility was that year slightly higher (10.4 percent) than among men (9.8 percent) (Van Gaalen & Smits, 2011). The main reason is that the labour mobility of women is much less affected by the economic crisis than men (Cörvers, Smits, De Vries & Montizaan, 2009). In 2008, men were more mobile on the labour market. Because of the lack of information only the assumption can be made that the results of the beginning of the crisis continue; that women are less affected by the current crisis, and that their labour mobility is higher than that of men.

(2) Education

Education is linked in various ways with the transitional labor market. It may affect the transitional labour market direct or indirect. In this section education will be discussed in several ways.

First, the developments in the different education levels will be elaborated. This is done to look at the number of people who follow education over the years. A distinction will be made between the different education levels.

After the developments in education the education level of the unemployed people will be discussed to see if there is any relation between getting unemployed and education level.

At last the transition from education to work will be discussed. Are there any differences between men and women and their job opportunities on the labour market?

Different levels of education over the years 2007/'08 – 2011/'12

The most striking developments in the different levels of education will be discussed in this paragraph. In this Section five levels of education are taken into account:

- Secondary education
- Secondary vocational education
- Higher professional education
- Academic education
- Adult continuing education

What is most obvious in the data on educational attainment is that men are more represented in the lower levels of education (secondary education and secondary vocational education) where women are more represented in the higher levels of education (higher professional education and academic education). The difference between men and women in adult continuing education is very small.

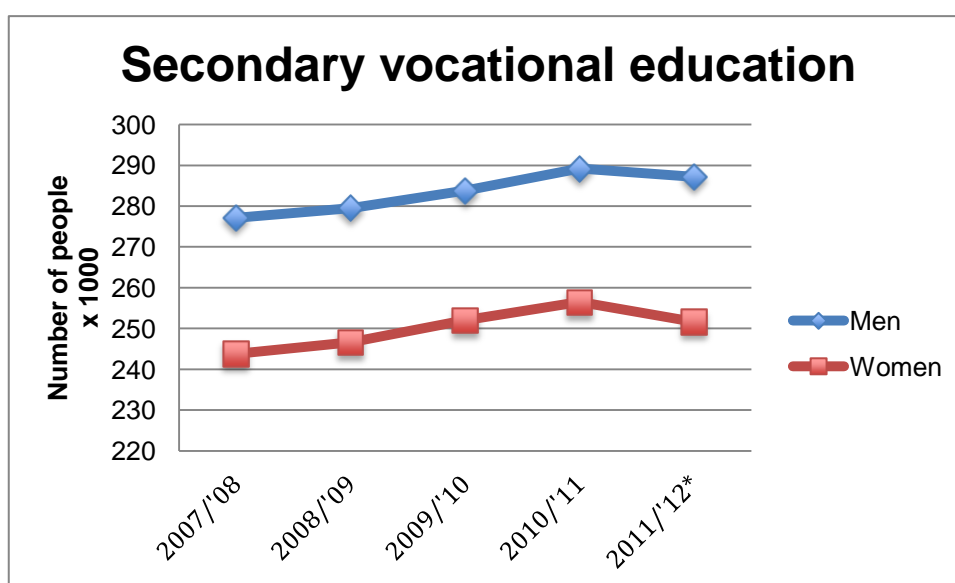


Figure 14: Number of students in the Netherlands who participate in secondary vocational education.

For secondary vocational education an increase in the number of students can be seen for both men and women for the first three years. In the last year a decrease in the number of students is present. However for women this decrease was

larger than for men. Therefore, the difference in number of male and female students has increased over the last years. In 2007/2008 the difference between men and women was 33,300 students and in 2011/2012 it was 35,600 students.

For higher professional education the proportion of men and women almost stayed the same. For both men and women an incline in the number of students is present.

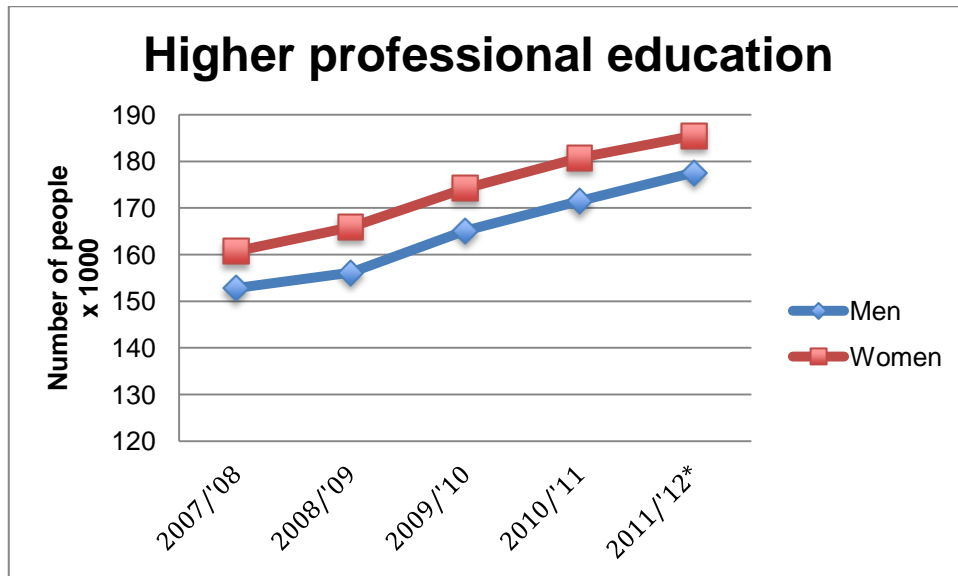


Figure 15: Number of students in the Netherlands who participate in higher professional education

For academic education there is an increase of the number of students for both men and women. However the increase of women is larger than the one of men. Therefore the gap between men and women has become larger. There are more women than men who follow academic education. With the uneven growth the difference between men and women has grown from 3,500 students in 2007/2008 to 7,700 students in 2011/2012.

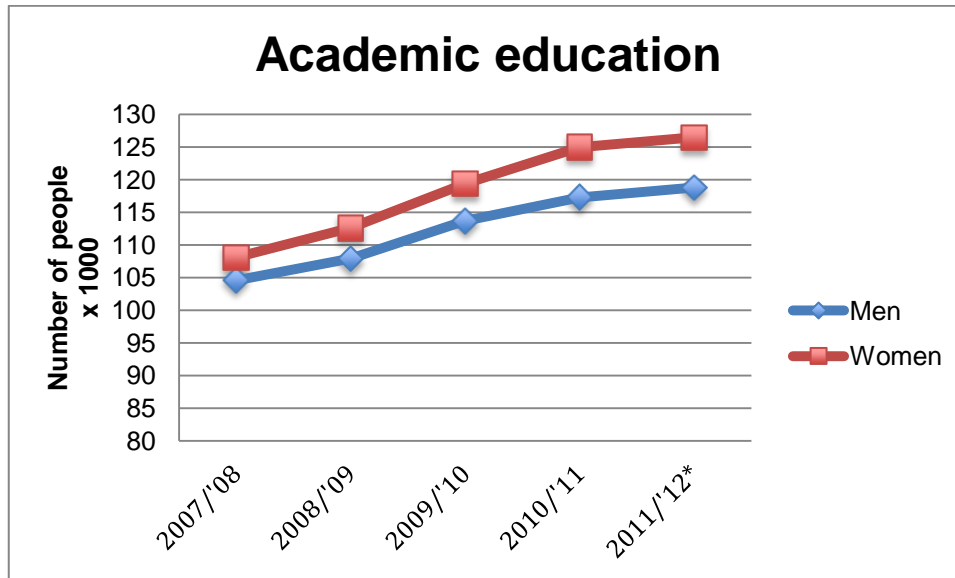


Figure 16: Number of students in the Netherlands who participate in academic education.

Education level of the unemployed

In Appendix E the unemployment rate has been split in education level. Notable is, the higher the education level, the lower the unemployment rate. The only exception is the unemployment rate of people who have a master degree in academic education or who have a doctoral degree. This unemployment rate is higher than the one of the people who have a bachelor degree in higher professional education or academic education. However, in general it seems that the unemployment rate among low-skilled is considerably higher than among highly educated. What can be said about the difference between men and women? Overall can be said that unemployment is higher for women than for men, irrespective of the level of education. However, it also seems that when the unemployment rate is rising, it is rising faster for men than for women. And if the unemployment rate is decreasing, the unemployment rate for women is decreasing faster than the one for men. Therefore, the difference in unemployment rate between men and women has reached to a minimum, or even a higher unemployment rate for men as for women.

Transition from education to work

Currently there is a lot of discussion about the career opportunities of graduates. It is said that the career opportunities of graduates are worse than before the

crisis. It would take longer for graduates to get a job, and their salary would be lower. It is true, the employment prospects are worse than a few years ago. However, that the influence of the crisis so far is better than expected, appears from figures from Statistics Netherlands.

Figures on young people between 25 and 35 years old show that 4.1 percent of academics and 3.3 percent of higher professional education graduates were unemployed in 2011. This means they were actively looking for a job, but they could not find anything. Figures of the last decade show that it has been worse in earlier years. In 2002 and 2003, the Netherlands has gone through a small recession; less severe than the economic crisis we are in today. At the time, especially the unemployment rate of the low skilled has risen. However also the well-educated students could feel adversity at the time. In 2003, only 88,2 percent of the higher professional graduates had a job and 3,6 percent of them was unemployed. For young academic graduates the lowest point was in 2005, only 86 percent of young academics had a job and 4,4 percent was officially unemployed. Statistics Netherlands has predicted that in the next years of the crisis mainly the low-skilled workers will be affected. Highly educated people can find a job more easily, and if necessary, they will get a job below their education level (Wageningen Universiteit, 2012).

According to the University of Wageningen the influences of the crisis on graduates are not as bad as expected. Evidenced by survey results among graduates at Wageningen University. Of those who graduated in 2008, 57 percent had a job when she left university. Four years later, in 2012, still 55 percent of the graduates had a job. This is a decrease of only 2 percent points. Compared with the crisis of the early nineties, the current crisis seems even hardly noticeable. Back then the percentage of graduates that immediately found a job was less than 40 percent. Only around the turn of the century the percentage of graduates that immediately found a job had gone up to 50 percent. In short: 55 percent in times of crisis is not bad at all.

The Technical University Delft shares the opinion of the impact of the current crisis. Before the crisis, it also took a while for highly educated people to find a job. Taking into account the results of the WO-monitor it may take a little longer to find a job, but the difference is not so big (Technische Universiteit Delft, 2012).

Also SEO Economical Research has analyzed the current situation of graduates and the relevance of their training based on data for the years 1999-2011. Their conclusion is that the labour market position of new graduates has deteriorated, especially for graduates of higher professional education. During the crisis they are looking longer for a job and they earn less. Their situation at the current crisis is better than during the previous dip, and also the confidence of alumni remains up. However, the likelihood of getting a permanent contract is historically low.

The differences between the education programs themselves have become more important than ever, because for some specializations there is more demand than for others. Graduates with traditionally low labour market relevance education are hit the hardest, where other graduates can easily find a job (Berkhout, Van der Werff & Smid, 2011). Furthermore, the education level has an impact on the level of unemployment. For both men and women the unemployment rate decreases, as the level of education is higher. This applies to a greater extent for women than for men (Merens, Hartgers, & Van den Brakel, 2012).

Interesting for this study is whether there is a difference between men and women and their labour market opportunities. To investigate the differences between men and women figures of Statistics Netherlands are used. Assumed is that most graduates are located in the age group 25-35 years old.

As can be seen in Figure 16 and 17 the unemployment rate of men has been rising faster than the one of women. For academic education in 2008 the unemployment rate of women is higher than the one of men. Since 2009, this is the other way around. For higher professional education it can be seen that the gap between men and women has become larger over the years. From these data it seems that among the higher educated graduates women are doing better in times of crisis than men.

This is confirmed by figures from Statistics Netherlands. They show since 2009 a growing divergence between highly educated men and women. This trend has started simultaneously about the time that unemployment among recent graduates began to increase in the Netherlands (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013).

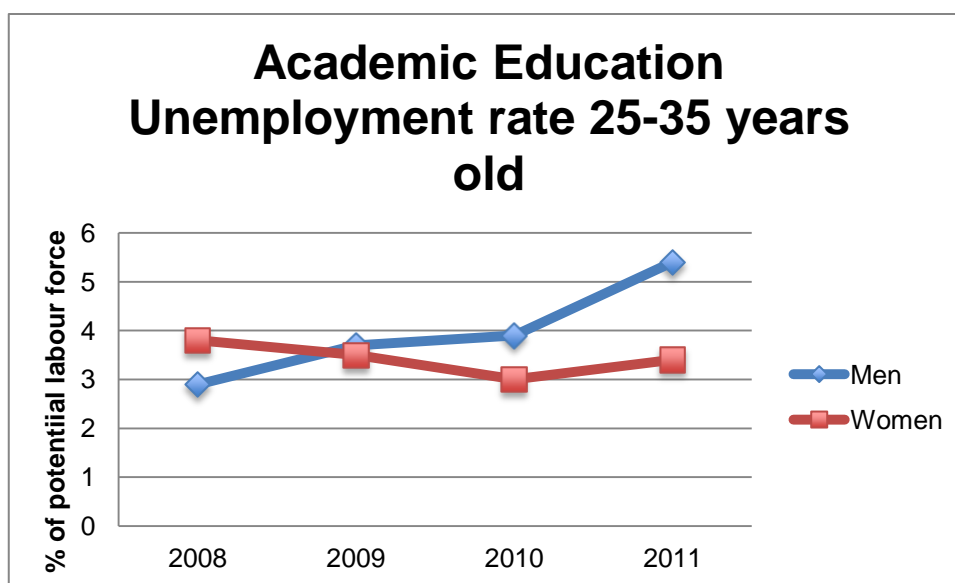


Figure 16: Unemployment rate of graduates in academic education in the age category 25-35 years old.

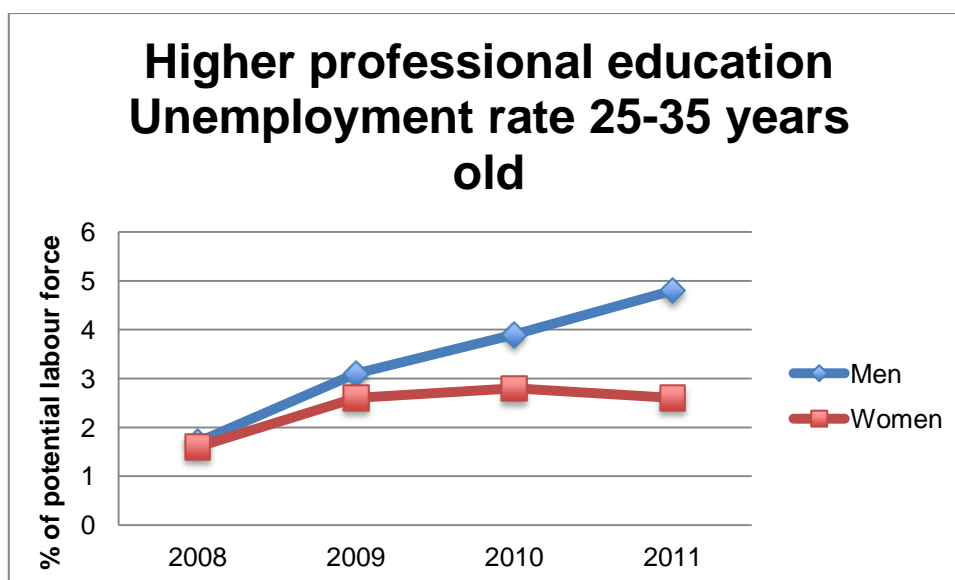


Figure 17: Unemployment rate of graduates of higher professional education in the age category 25-35 years old.

(3) Labour disability

The labour disability of both men and women has contracted in the years 2008-2012. This is probably due to stricter regulations of the Dutch government.

As shown in Table D in Appendix F are the disability benefits of men decreased from 297,010 in 2008 to 201,680 in 2012. For women the decrease of disability

benefits is smaller. For women the disability benefits decreased from 264,100 in 2008 to 204,390 in 2012. Also important is the in- and outflow of labour disability benefits. Table E in Appendix F shows that the outflow of labour disability fluctuates over the years. However, the fluctuations are the same for men and women. If we look at the total development for men over the years there can be seen a decrease in the outflow of men. The outflow in 2008 was 25,850 men and in 2012 the outflow of men was 23,590. For women this is the other way around; in 2008 the outflow of women was 14,490 and in 2012 the outflow was 16,300 women.

The inflow of the disability benefits is decreasing over the years 2008-2012 compared with the previous year. This applies as well to men as to women. However there is a greater decrease for women. The inflow for men decreased from 2,690 in 2008 to 1,320 in 2012. For women the inflow was 2,970 in 2008 and 830 in 2012.

(4) Private households

Unfortunately the exact numbers about how many people are making the transition from work to private households and the other way around are not present. Which data are available is the data about the non-working population.

In this study the assumption will be made that the development of the transition from work to private households and vice versa is largely similar to the developments in the non-working population. Since many people in this non-working population are involved in private households.

In the last few years the proportion of men and women in the non-working population has changed. In 2008, 1,125,000 men were part of the non-working population. For women this number was almost twice as much; 2,071,000 women belonged to the non-working population. In the years of crisis the difference between men and women has contracted. More men have entered the non-working population and more women have left the non-working population. And the difference between men and women has contracted with 159,000 people in three years.

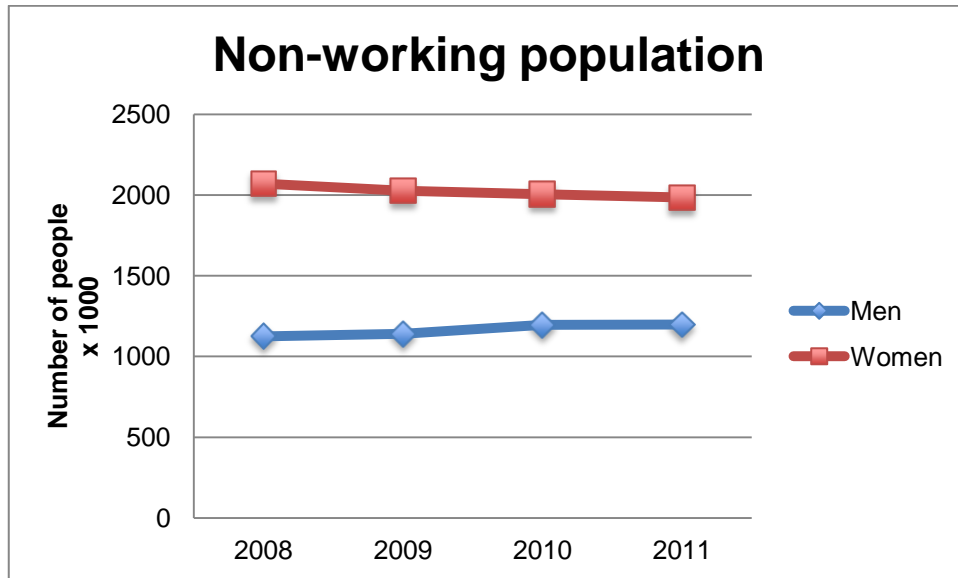


Figure 18: Development of the non-working population over the years 2008-2011

In Appendix F the development of the non-working population is divided by age. The most important findings are that generally there are more women than men located in the non-working population. However, the gap between men and women has become smaller over the years 2008-2011.

What stands out for the age group 15-25 years old is that for both men and women the number of people who are located in the non-working population has grown in the last years.

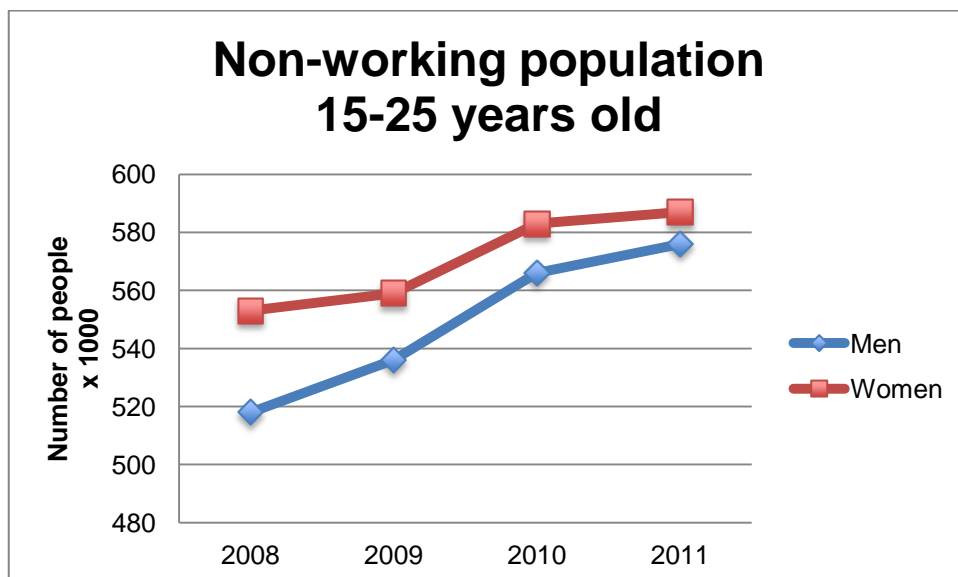


Figure 19: Development of the non-working population over the years 2008-2011 of the age group 15-25 years old.

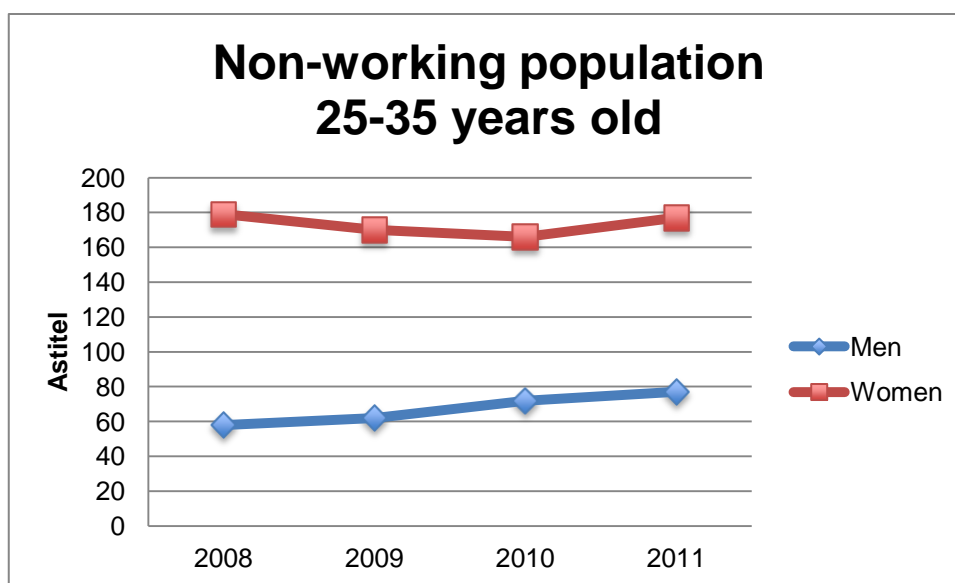


Figure 20: Development of the non-working population over the years 2008-2011 of the age group 25-35 years old.

Except for the age group 15-25 years old the number of women in the non-working population has followed a diminishing line the last years. However for the age groups 25-35 years old and 35-45 years old something distinctive can be seen. From the year 2010, in contrast with the earlier years, the number of women who are located in the non-working population has grown.

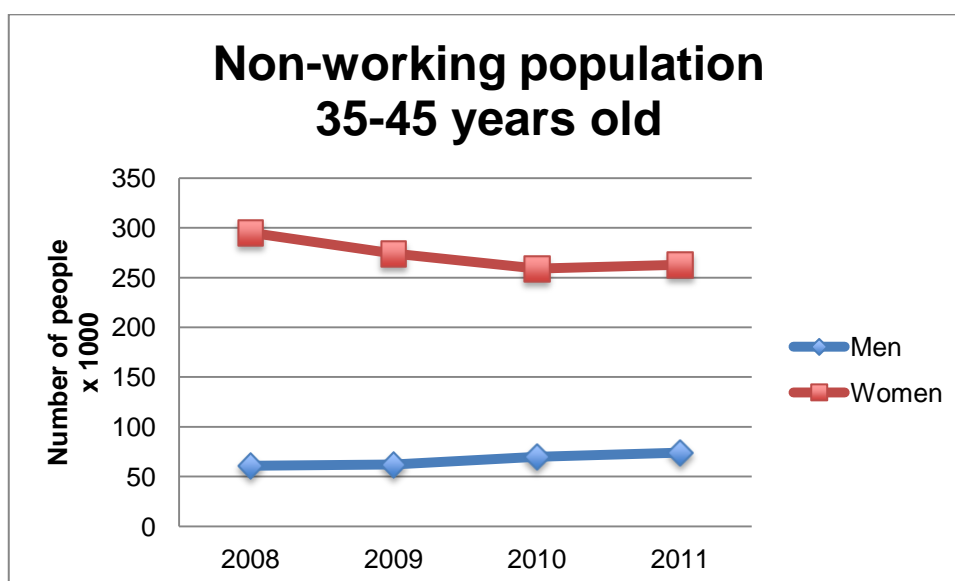


Figure 21: Development of the non-working population over the years 2008-2011 of the age group 35-45 years old.

In Appendix F the development of the non-working population is divided by education level. The most important finding is that the lower the education level, the higher the participation of both men and women in the non-working population. There are not so many differences between men and women on education level. In every education level, there are more women than men, who belong to the non-working population. However it can be said that in the lower educational levels the gap between men and women has become smaller over the years. For the higher education levels it is striking that in the last year the number of women in the non-working population has stayed the same with the previous year (higher professional education), or has increased (academic education), while all previous years, this number decreased.

3.5 Conclusion

In this chapter the most important developments in the labour market in the Netherlands are discussed. Consecutively the Dutch population, the potential labour force and the actual Dutch labour force, and the gross and net labour participation have been discussed.

The ratio between men and women in the total population is practically in balance during the last five years. However, the number of people who belong to the Dutch population has increased. Due to the longer life expectancy of women the potential labour force is not completely in balance; there are slightly more men than women. Because of aging of society the potential labour force is decreasing. Of the decreasing potential labour force, more women than men (want to) join the labour market.

What is noticeable in the gross labour participation is that in the age group 15-25 years the number of both men and women is declining. It seems that in times of recession men and women choose to follow education instead of entering the labour market. For women this effect seems to be less severe than for men. For the age group 25-45 years old the participation rate for men is higher than for women. However, the gap between men and women is diminishing. In the age group 45-55 the gap between men and women is also decreasing. However, in this group the participation of women is growing and the participation of men is relatively stable. In the group of 55-65 years old the gross labour participation of

men is higher than women. However in contrast with the other groups the trend of men and women is the same; the labour participation is increasing, probably due to the changes in the pension regulation in the Netherlands.

Looking at the difference between the gross and net labour participation, i.e. unemployment, overall it can be said that at the beginning of the crisis the gap for women was larger than for men. During the crisis this has evolved the other way around. This indicated that during this crisis more men became unemployed than women. Only in the age group 15-25 years old this was different; there was a stronger decrease in the net labour participation for women than for men. Also a lot of young women entered the labour market who could not find a job. So in 2012 the gap between gross and net labour participation has greatly increased for women. What is seen in the difference between the gross and net labour participation is evident in the unemployment rate.

What is associated with the growth of unemployment are the exclusionary risks of the transitional labour market. Exclusionary transitions involve transitions between the different life domains, which result in unemployment. Therefore unemployment is one of the fields in the framework of Gunther Schmid.

Overall the unemployment rate for men has been rising faster than for women during the current recent recession. This is due to the working area of men and women. Women work in sectors where unemployment is less cyclical such as healthcare and education.

Another domain of interest is labour mobility. The number of workers who change jobs each year is closely related to the state of the economy. During a boom, more people will change of employer than during a recession. Labour mobility in the Netherlands is low and the average job duration in the Netherlands is increasing.

Because of absence of recent figures of labour mobility in the Netherlands during this crisis it is difficult to draw conclusions about the differences of men and women and their labour mobility. What can be said is that over a period of 1988-2008, the external labour mobility of women is higher than that of men. In 2009, among women labour mobility was slightly higher than among men. Main reason is that the labour mobility of women is much less affected by the economic crisis

than men. The only assumption that can be made is that the results of the beginning of the crisis continue; women are less affected by the current crisis, and that their labour mobility is higher than men.

Another field in the framework of Schmid is education. In times of recession more people decide to study. During the current crisis the number of students has increased in all levels of education. However there is a difference within the levels of education between men and women. Men are more represented in lower education and women more in higher education. And during the current recession the gap between the two is only growing.

Another striking feature is that men are more likely to experience exclusionary risks on the transition from education to work during the current recession. This can be seen in the unemployment rate of the age group 25-35 years old who have followed higher professional education or academic education. The unemployment rate has increased faster for men than for women. So higher educated women, seem to find a job more easily than men in times of recession.

The next domain of the TLM framework is labour disability. During the current recession the number of people who received disability benefits has contracted. There were some fluctuations over the years the same for men as for women. Looking at the total development for men over the years a decrease in the outflow of men can be seen. For women this was the other way around. The inflow of the disability benefits is decreasing over the years 2008-2012 compared with the previous year. This applies as well to men as to women. However there is a greater decrease for women.

The last domain of the TLM framework is private households. In this study the assumption has been made that the development of the transition from work to private households and vice versa is largely similar to the developments in the non-working population. There are still more women who belong to the non-working population than men. However, overall the number of women in the non-working population is declining while the number of men is increasing. Looking deeper into the age categories it is striking that the number of people who belong

to the non-working population in the age group 15-25 is increasing. This can be explained by the growth in education. This is also the only group where the number of women in the non-working population has increased. In all the other age groups the number of women has declined. A striking feature is that the lower the education level, the higher the proportion of non-working population. This applies for both men and women.

Chapter 4: Policy question

In the previous Chapter the empirical part of the TLM has been discussed. Over the years, the employment rate for women has increased. As can be seen in the previous Chapter, this increase in times of crisis continues, except for the age group 15-25 years old. This development fits in the principle of full employment of the TLM concept. Everyone needs to have an average working time of 30 hours a week, where the concrete working time can vary around this standard according to economic conditions and circumstances of a human's life cycle. This accounts for both men and women. The increasing labour participation suits the image of TLM, women become more independent and support the Dutch economy. What can be done to actually keep the growth of women? What is necessary for women so that they can combine their working life with education, having children and taking care for the growing group elderly? Chapter 3 has shown several important developments in the position of women in the labour market in times of crisis. In this chapter, some of these points will be elaborated. In this chapter the normative concept of the transitional labour market will be used to answer the policy question of this research: What contribution can the transitional labour market make to support women in the current recession? Policy makers can respond to this and make sure that the improved position of women is maintained. How should the changing labour be tackled? The modernization of social security is high on the political agenda. The main question is how liberty and security can be insured in a transitional labour market.

Because of the developments on the demand side as well as on the supply side of the labour market people have more flexibility to adapt their lives to their own needs. Simultaneously often involuntary uncertainty is growing for everyone. How to give people more freedom and sufficient certainty in an increasingly uncertain economic situation, next to aging of society is one of the key questions for social policy in the 21st century.

4.1 Unemployment of young people

One of the first things that emerged in this study was that during this crisis the unemployment rate of young people was rising faster than that of elderly people. This can also be seen in the United States and in the rest of Europe (Verick, 2009). His

research is based on data of the current crisis in the United States, but also on earlier times of recession. In his paper he reveals that young people are hit hardest as reflected by rising unemployment rates, and that the difference will persist long after recovery of the economy. The youth are vulnerable for exclusion of the labour market, because of a lack of skills, work experience and job search abilities. Also they have less financial resources to find employment (United Nations, 2003; ILO, 2006). Consequently, younger men and women are more likely to be unemployed, and if they are employed they have more precarious contracts than elder people. This is the case during favorable economic times, but even more in times of severe recession. Thus it is for younger people more difficult to find a job, and if they are employed to stay employed since they are more likely to be laid off than older people. According to the OECD (2008) youth employment rates are more sensitive to the business cycle than the employment rates for the adult population. Younger people are hit the hardest in times of recession in terms of losing jobs and finding a job after schooling. The increased gap between the unemployment rate of younger and older people remains, even after the economy has started to recover.

Overall, this indicates that there is a heterogeneous impact of the crisis on the labour market in terms of age and gender dimensions. It is of importance to consider these differences. Especially, there is an important gender dimension to the vulnerability of youth in the current crisis. The research of Verick (2009) showed that during the present downturn, young men generally have been more affected, and this is due to different factors, but most of all because of the high proportion of young men in sectors, which are heavily affected by the crisis such as construction and manufacturing. Also young women experience increasing unemployment rates often the same as young men, and in some countries, they are in fact the group that suffers the most. Moreover, young women continually face longer-term barriers in the labour market (Verick, 2009).

In response to this situation, policymakers should use targeted crisis interventions aimed at young people to keep them employed, and also assisting newcomers on the labour market and those who have lost their jobs to find employment. This is particularly important when the economy recovers, to keep the gap between the younger and adult population as small as possible. Examples of policy interventions are subsidies, training schemes and job search assistance programs. These kinds of programs are essential to ensure that younger people will not become long-term

unemployed. Because long-term unemployment could lead to reduced future career and earnings opportunities, and could increase their exclusion from society. Implementing policies that will effectively assist the youth which are threatened by dismissal, those who have already lost their jobs in the vulnerable sectors like manufacturing and construction, and young people who enter the labour market is the biggest challenge for policy makers. For this to work careful consideration is needed of how to develop skills and other measures, which could improve the chance of finding employment in a new occupation in a growing sector when the economy recovers and therefore improve the position of young people in the labour market.

4.2 Studying instead of entering the labour market

Another point of interest is that the labour participation of young people in the Netherlands declined during the current recession. This is due to the fact that younger people decide to follow education in times of recession instead of entering the labour market. Partially continuing with the previous paragraph for policy makers it is important to implement targeted crisis interventions to assist new entrants on the labour market. During the current recession the percentage of higher professional education graduates who believe that their education was a sufficient basis for entering the labour market is declining. In 2009 this percentage was 58 percent and in 2011 it was only 46 percent. For secondary vocational education this percentage is even lower. In 2011 only 42 percent of the graduates think that their education provides a good foundation for entering the labour market (ROA, 2012). These percentages are very low, only half of the graduates are satisfied about the connection between their education and the labour market. Since the beginning of the current crisis in 2008, the satisfaction of graduates has declined (Appendix G). To support the increasing amount new entrants this percentage should increase to reduce the level of unemployment of young people.

At this moment the connection between education and the labour market is an important political issue. Left wing Minister of Education, Culture and Science Bussemaker is of the opinion that the connection between education and the labour market should be better. She comes up with plans to realize a better connection. In these plans schools may only offer courses in the region with sufficient labour market

perspective. To realize this there must be made arrangements with industries and local authorities (Zandstra, 2013).

Policy makers should ensure that cooperation is created between educational institutions, businesses and local authorities. Cooperation between educational institutions, businesses and local authorities can be succeeded in many ways, such as ensuring good contact between companies, municipalities and educational institutions. Or by appointment of teachers who are partly work in education and partly work in business, or by local authorities anticipating to the demand of companies for labour (demand-oriented reintegration) etc. This tripartite interaction between education institutions, businesses and municipalities remains of great importance for a good connection between education and the labour market and respectively a good match between supply and demand on the (regional) labour market.

4.3 Young women leaving the labour market voluntarily

There are still more women who belong to the non-working population than men. However, overall the number of women in the non-working population is declining while the number of men is increasing. Looking deeper into the age categories it is striking that the number of people who belong to the non-working population in the age group 15-25 is increasing. This can be explained by the growth in education. This is also the only group where the number of women in the non-working population has increased. In all the other groups the number of women has declined over the years. Nevertheless Minister Bussemaker is concerned about the arrears of women in the Netherlands. Not enough women have paid jobs, and too many are dependent on their husbands. In addition women also get paid another twenty percent less than men for the same work, and they have much less chance of promotion (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, 2013).

Seventy percent of women work but only half is economically independent. According to Bussemaker this is not only due to a lack of facilities in the Netherlands, such as very expensive childcare and unpractical school hours and informal care that must be fulfilled. Bussemaker finds that women should get rid of their eternal guilt and make better use of their talents, otherwise women will get in trouble because of their dependency (Ministerie van Onderwijs, Cultuur en Wetenschap, 2013).

In order to fight the financial crisis, the European Union introduced in 2010 a strategic plan for more growth: Europe 2020. To continue participation in the world economy, people in European countries should work harder and more people have to work. Rapid aging increases this need. The low female employment (measured in hours worked) in the Netherlands as compared to the rest of Europe poses a risk to the desired economic growth, conclude the EU experts (European Commission, 2010).

In the Netherlands there is a lot of discussion about the labour participation of women and the cost of childcare. Politicians in the Netherlands want that there occurs a balanced cost sharing in which employers, government and parents bare all three around a third of the cost for childcare. With the current retrenchments of politics, the State will indeed reach 33 percent, but between parents and employers there remains an imbalance. In Appendix H the cost allocation of child care in the Netherlands can be seen. This figure shows that in 2014 parents are going to pay 47 percent of the childcare costs and the employers only 20 percent.

To increase the employment rate for women a better distribution of the costs of childcare is needed, because the employment rate for women has been paralleled by lower parental contribution. If the affordability of childcare is compared to the proportion of women 30-45 that have a job of 12 hours or more per week a striking development can be seen. From the beginning of this century to 2005 the employment rate of women increased marginally. This changed when the government invested heavily in 2006 and 2007, and the affordability of childcare increased and parental contribution decreased from 37% in 2005 to 30% in 2006 and 16% in 2007. From 2008, there were cutbacks on the childcare and the contribution of parents increased. From 2008 is a flattening of growth in employment of women can be seen (Buitenhek management & consult, 2011).

The fact that women will go work less when the costs for parents are increasing can be expected. This is partly due to the fact that they often earn less than men for the same work. This gap between men and women is getting smaller, but cuts to the childcare allowance will deteriorate the employment rate of women. They are forced to make the exclusionary transition from employment to private households. To ensure the growth of women and to prevent a decline in the employment rate of women, the politicians in the Netherlands have to ensure that childcare costs are more fairly distributed between employers and parents.

4.4 Return to labour market after maternity leave

Women who return to the labour market after their maternity leave, often find that their careers have been slowed down. The older they were when they had their first child, the more they felt that the peak of their career had already passed. This was the outcome of the research by the Spanish bank Santander among more than 2000 mothers.

Two-thirds of women believe that their professional career has slowed down by having a child. Santander gives a warning about losing an important group of talented employers. Having a child does have an effect on the position of women in the labour market. A quarter of working mothers have switched to a less interesting job, which is easier to combine with family life. Moreover, 6 percent of the women have made an exclusionary transition from work to childcare; they permanently left the labour market.

In the Netherlands the number of women who stopped working after getting a child is strongly correlated to which extent childcare is funded (Appendix H). Also, it can be seen that this makes little or no difference for men. About 90 percent of men remain working after having a child. In the case women, this varies between 38 and 48 percent over the years. Whether a mother works, depends in part on her education level and her partner. Of the mothers with a higher professional degree or university degree 87 percent was working at the beginning of 2012. For low educated women about half of them participated in the labour market (Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, 2013).

In the research of Santander 56 percent of the women wanted that their employer would guarantee that they can return to their former position after taking their warranty leave, but with a greater flexibility. In addition, a third wants a guarantee of the possibility to work at home, while 30 percent of the women wanted a customized plan in the field of career development for young mothers (HR Magazine, 2013).

The challenge for politicians is to create an environment where women can return to the labour market after their maternity leave without any consequences for their career so that their talent is not lost, or worse that they are making an exclusionary transitions out of the labour market. This can be done by a guarantee to return to their former position with more flexibility, or the option to work at home. A customized plan for career development for young mothers can only be offered by the private sector.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter the normative concept of the transitional labour market is used to answer the policy question of this research: What contribution can the transitional labour market make to support women in the current recession in order to make sure that the improved position of women is maintained? How should the changing labour be tackled? How to give people more freedom and sufficient certainty in an increasingly uncertain economic situation, next to aging of society is one of the key questions for social policy in the 21st century.

One of the first things that emerged in this study was that during this crisis the unemployment rate of young people was rising faster than that of elderly people. The youth are extra vulnerable for exclusion of the labour market, because of the absence of skills, work experience and job search abilities. Also they have less financial resources to find employment. In response to this situation, policymakers should use targeted crisis interventions, such as subsidies, training schemes and job search assistance programs, aimed at young people to keep them employed, and also assisting newcomers on the labour market and those who have lost their jobs to find employment. This in order to keep the gap between young and old people on the labour market as small as possible.

Another point of interest is the declining labour participation of young people during the current recession. This is due to the fact that younger people decide to follow education in times of recession instead of entering the labour market. During the current recession the percentage of higher professional education graduates who believe that their education was a sufficient basis for entering the labour market is declining. At this moment the connection between education and the labour market is an important political issue. Policy makers should ensure that cooperation is created between educational institutions, businesses and local authorities. This can be succeeded in many ways, such as ensuring good contact between companies, municipalities and educational institutions. Or by appointment of teachers who are partly work in education and partly work in business, or by local authorities anticipating to the demand of companies for labour.

Another issue for politicians is the economic dependency of women. The number of women who belong to the non-working population is decreasing. However, there are still more women who belong to the non-working population than men. Thereby comes that not enough women have paid jobs, and too many are dependent on their

husbands. In addition women also get paid less than men for the same work, and they have less chance of promotion.

In order to fight the financial crisis people in European countries should work harder and more people have to work. Rapid aging increases this need. The low female employment (measured in hours worked) in the Netherlands as compared to the rest of Europe poses a risk to the desired economic growth. In the Netherlands there is a lot of discussion about increasing the labour participation of women and the cost of childcare. To increase the employment rate for women a better distribution of the costs of childcare is needed. Because the employment rate for women has been paralleled by lower parental contribution. This is partly due to the fact that they often earn less than men for the same work. This gap between men and women is getting smaller, but cuts to the childcare allowance will deteriorate the employment rate of women. They are forced to make the exclusionary transition from employment to private households. To ensure the growth of women and to prevent a decline in the employment rate of women, the politicians in the Netherlands have to ensure that childcare costs are more fairly distributed between the government, employers and parents. Another challenge for politicians is to create an environment where women can return to the labour market after their maternity leave without any consequences for their career so that their talent is not lost, or worse that they are making an exclusionary transitions out of the labour market. This can be done by a guarantee to return to their former position with more flexibility, or the option to work at home. A customized plan for career development for young mothers can only be offered by the private sector.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

At the end of 2008, after a long period of expansion within advanced countries, a strong economic downturn was set in in the Netherlands. This economic downturn has not been without consequences for the labour market. The unemployment rate is rising very fast. The question of interest is who are affected the most and the hardest by the increasing unemployment rate as a consequence of the current crisis, men or women? In former crises there was speculation about the influence of economic downturns on the general upward trend in women's employment.

The aim of this research is to get insight in the factors that play a role in the possible disadvantages of women on the labour market. This is researched through the empirical concept of the transitional labour market, which is based on observed changes in the composition and dynamics of the labour market over the last years. The number of labour market transitions has grown and its nature has changed by developments in economic, technological, cultural and demographic factors, which are partly interrelated. Full employment is the key element of the transitional labour market: an average working time of 30 hours a week for both men and women, but the concrete working time can vary around this standard according to economic conditions and circumstances of a human's life cycle.

In this research a comparison has been made between men and women on exclusionary transitions in every life domain of the transitional labour market to answer the research question: Are there any differences in the labour market position of women and men in the Netherlands during the current recession? The normative concept of the transitional labour market is used to answer the policy question: What contribution can the transitional labour market make to support women in the current recession?

The first discussed field of TLM is unemployment. Unemployment is defined as the difference between gross and net labour participation. Overall it can be said that the unemployment rate for men has been rising faster than for women during the current recent recession. This is due to the different working areas of men and women. Women more often than men work in sectors where unemployment is less cyclical. Also it can be seen that the unemployment rate of the youth is much higher than of the elderly. Exclusionary risks of the transitional labour market are associated with the growth of unemployment. Exclusionary transitions involve transitions between the

different life domains, which result in unemployment. Only the most obvious results will be discussed here.

The transition of education to employment and vice versa has changed. During the current crisis more people decide to study in all levels of education. However there is a difference within the levels of education. Men are more represented in lower education and women more in higher education. And during the current recession the gap between the two is only growing. Another striking feature is that men are more likely to experience exclusionary risks on the transition from education to work during the current recession. Higher educated women, seem to find a job easier than men in times of recession.

Because of the growth in education, the labour participation of young people during the current recession is declining. Young people decide to follow education instead of entering the labour market. The connection between education and the labour market is an important political issue. Policy makers should ensure that cooperation is created between educational institutions, businesses and local authorities.

This research also found that during this crisis the unemployment rate of young people was growing faster than that of elderly people. The youth is extra vulnerable for exclusion of the labour market, because of the absence of skills, work experience and job search abilities. In response to the situation with a lot new entrants, resulting from the increase of education during the crisis, policymakers should use targeted crisis interventions, such as subsidies, training schemes and job search assistance programs, aimed at young people to keep them employed, and also assisting newcomers on the labour market and those who have lost their jobs to find employment.

Women are less likely to get unemployed after their study than men. However, still there is a big gap between men and women on the labour market. This can be seen in for instance wages and opportunity chances. An important issue for politicians is the economic dependency of women. The number of women who belong to the non-working population is decreasing. However, there are still more women who belong to the non-working population than men. Furthermore not enough women have paid jobs, and too many are dependent on their husbands. In addition women also get paid less than men for the same work, and they have much less chance of promotion.

In order to fight the financial crisis people in European countries should work harder and more people have to work. Rapid aging increases this need. The solution must be found in the increase of female employment. To ensure the growth of women and to prevent a decline in the employment rate of women, the politicians in the Netherlands have to ensure that childcare costs are more fairly distributed between the government, employers and parents. Thereby an environment must be created so that women can return to the labour market after their maternity leave without any consequences for their career so that their talent is not lost, or worse that they are making an exclusionary transition out of the labour market.

Conclusively, women are still gaining ground in the labour market. Their labour participation is still increasing. And they even seem less prone to layoffs because of the sectors in which they work. However, there are still risks that could lead to exclusionary transitions. The government will have to reduce these risks as much as possible to achieve the required increase in labour participation of women.

Chapter 6: Discussion and limitations

6.1 Criticisms on the TLM concept

The TLM concept has been discussed in many papers. There are a lot of praises, but also criticisms on this concept, which can lead to discussion if the TLM concept is the best way to describe the labour market. According to Reçi and De Bruijn (2006) there are currently three main criticisms on the TLM theory:

(1) The application of the assumption about the redistribution of work volume is questioned. One might doubt whether redistribution of work volume creates the right stimuli for individuals from the economic point of view. Individuals might choose for a combination of work and social activities instead of working full time (Muffels, 2008). Another problem might be that reallocation of the work volume of individuals with lower education could be less effective and practically impossible. A solution for low educated individuals can be training and courses to enlarge their competencies (De Koning & Gelderblom, 2001).

(2) By using TLM theory a second class labour market is created. Working time reduction can be seen as luxury that is only affordable for individuals who are higher located in the labour market. Individuals who are at lower regions cannot afford working time reduction. Even the opposite is true for individuals in the lower regions; they have to work harder for job retention (Reçi & De Bruijn, 2006).

(3) The third criticism according to Reçi and De Bruijn is about the costs of TLM arrangements. These costs might be too high and may lead to a loss of productivity. Consequently, in order to maintain the TLM concept as the best way to describe the labour market, the revenues of TLM should outweigh the costs of the necessary arrangements.

Although the TLM theory has been an inspiration for research as well as for politics, it still needs to be improved and to take the criticisms in consideration. Besides these three criticisms, the application of the normative concept in practice is something that must be done carefully. Research showed that there is no 'best practice' for governments to successfully deal with the problem of unemployment. The 'best practice' (often Sweden is used as a successful country that adopted flexicurity) does not provide a guarantee for success in other countries. It is therefore important to notice that each government has to take the role of facilitator, evaluator and if

necessary creator of new arrangements that support the simulation of 'positive' transitions in co-operation with the institutional context within a country.

6.2 Limitations of this research

Because of the recency of the research a lot of information is not yet available. So conclusions are based on the most recently available data. As a result the most recent developments in this study will not be visible. But we assume enough data have been collected so that a good impression can be made of the current situation.

Another limitation is the lack of data about transitions from employment to private households and vice versa and the transitions from employment to employment (i.e. job changes). In this research the assumption has been made that the transition from employment to private households and vice versa are largely similar to movements into the non-working population and vice versa. The shortcoming of this assumption is that people who have been working less because of care for children or parents (< 12 hours) are not involved in this research.

Because of the lack of information about the transition from employment to employment it is impossible to see whether men or women are moving from one job to another and if the transition can be described as maintenance or integrative transition.

At this time it was only possible to examine the transitions of the individual domains. For further research it is interesting to follow people for several years. This generates precise data on transitions that one person makes in time and gives a more complete and realistic view on transitions during a lifecycle.

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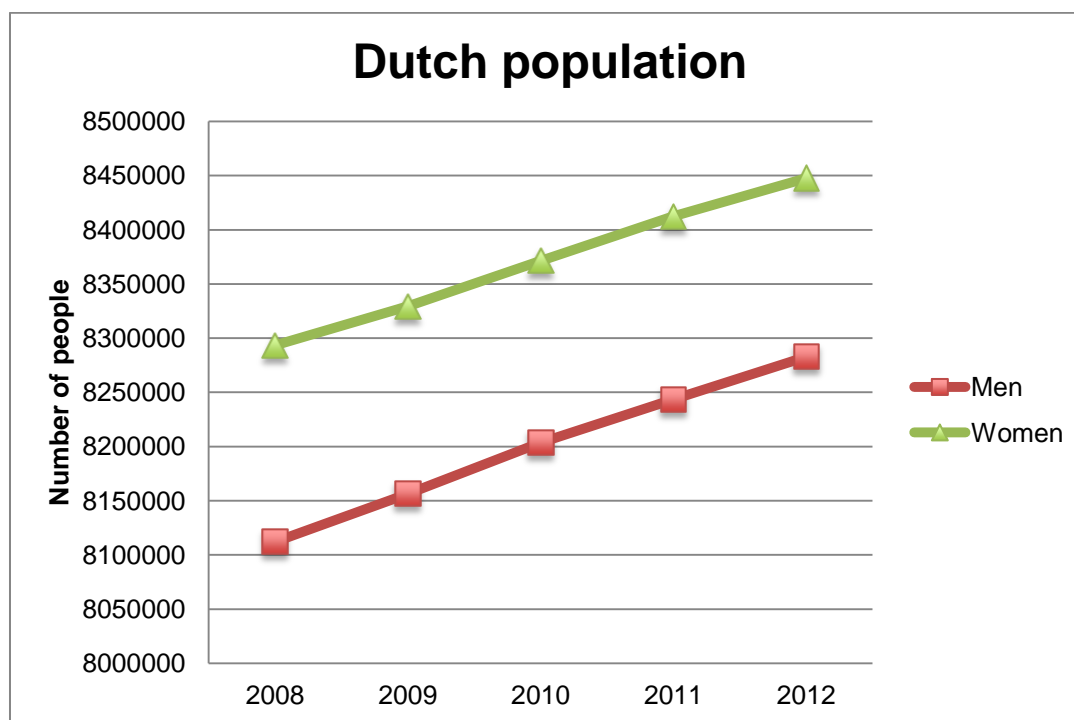
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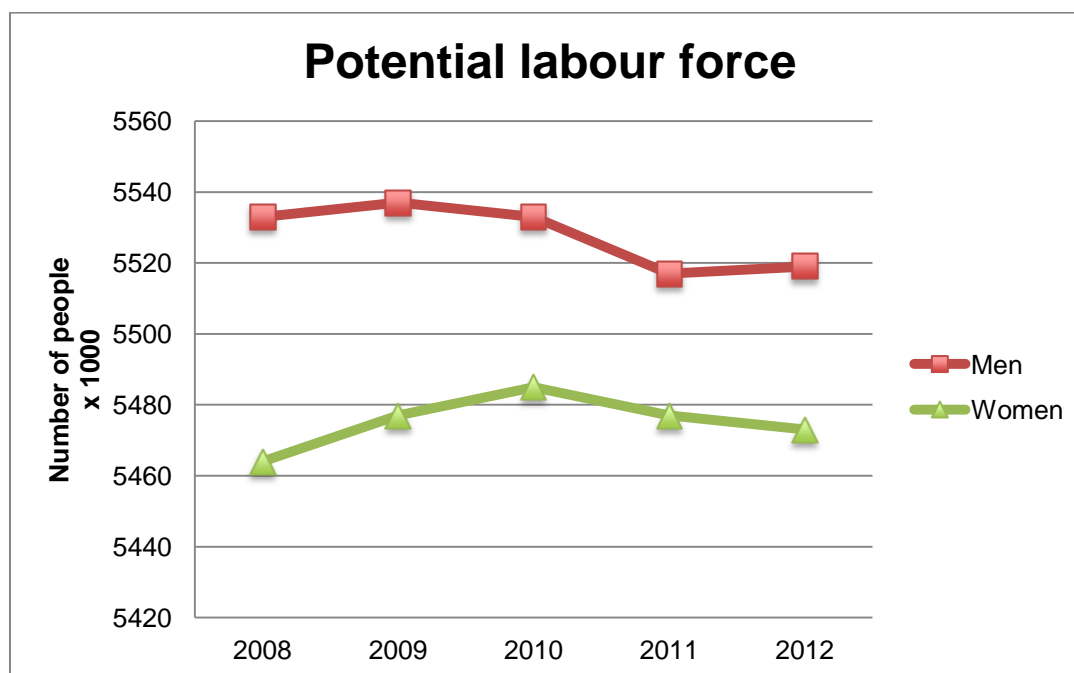
Appendix

Appendix A: Dutch population and potential labour force



Development of the Dutch population in 2008-2012

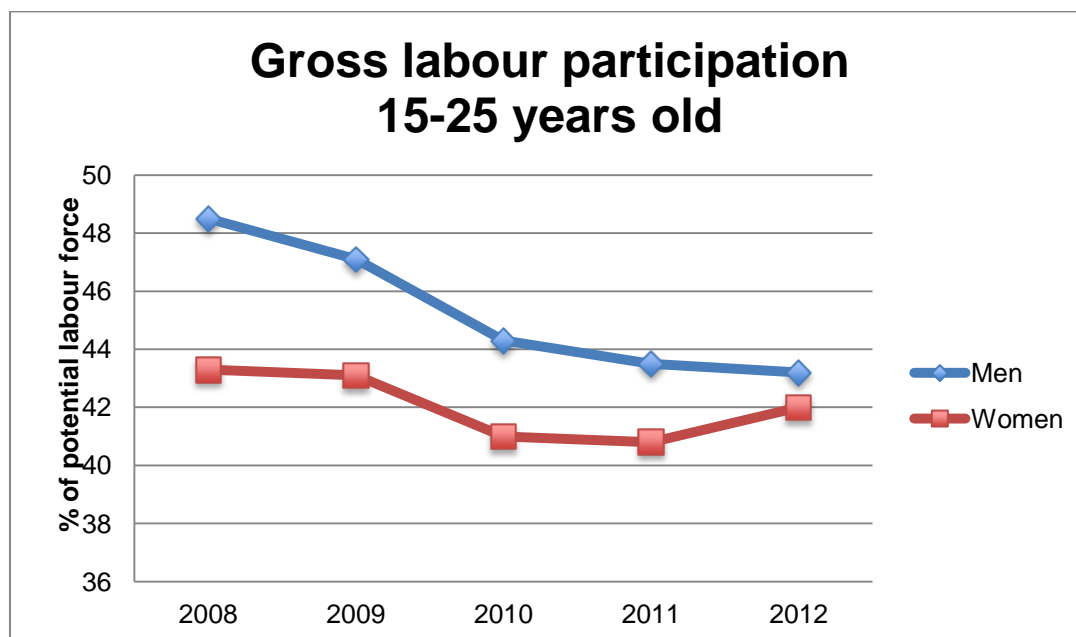
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Development of the potential labour force in the Netherlands in 2008-2012

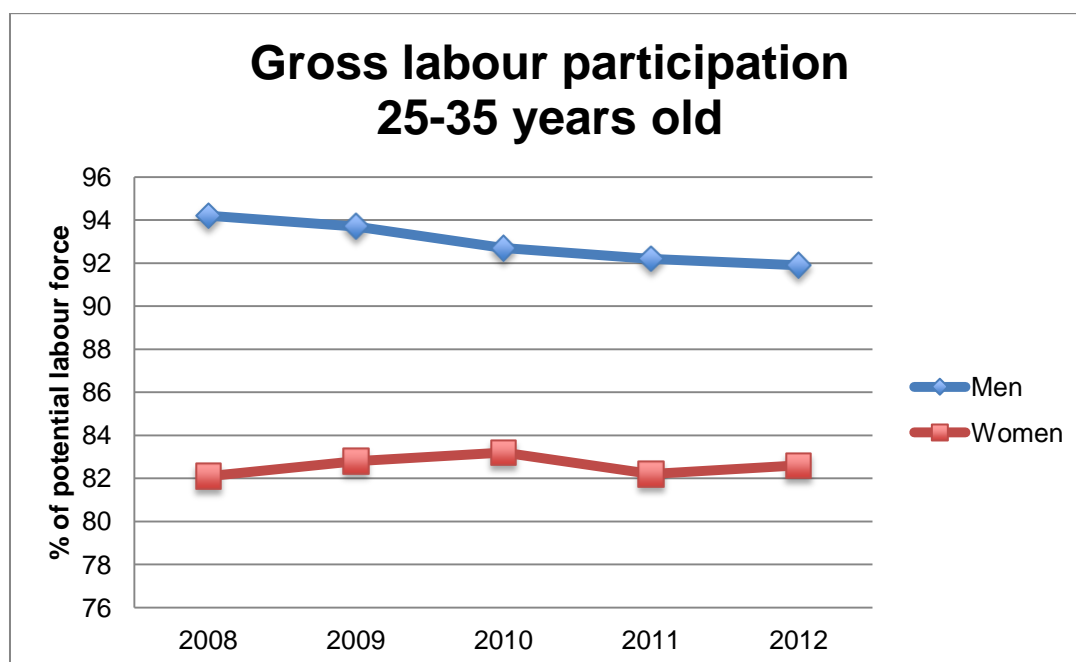
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Appendix B: Gross labour participation of different age groups



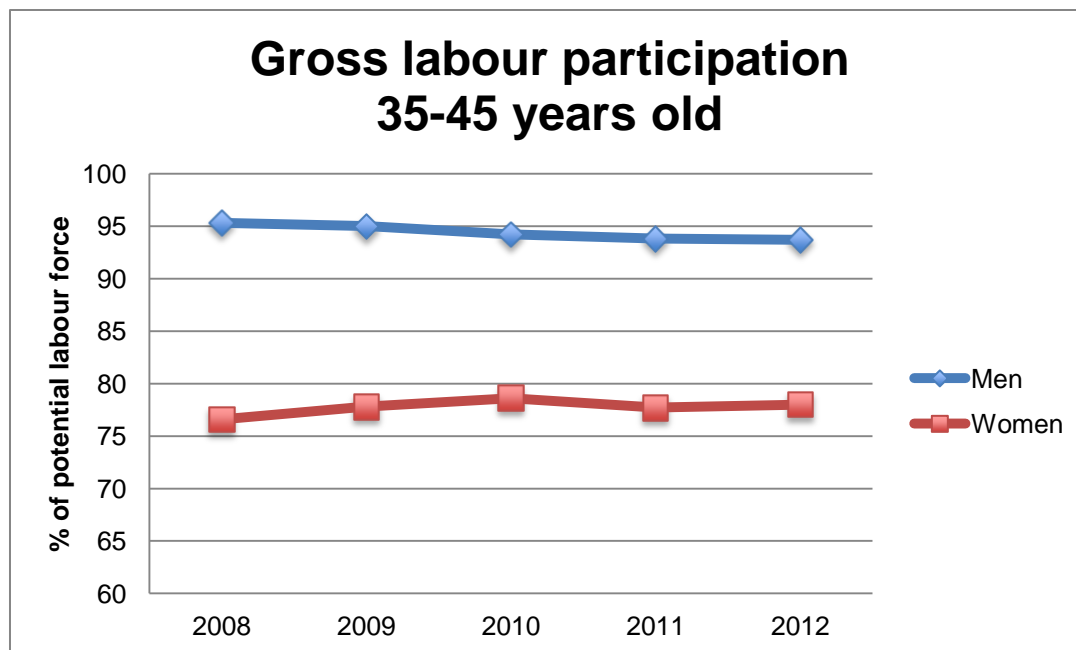
The gross labour participation of the age group 15-25 years old in the Netherlands

Source: www.cbs.nl



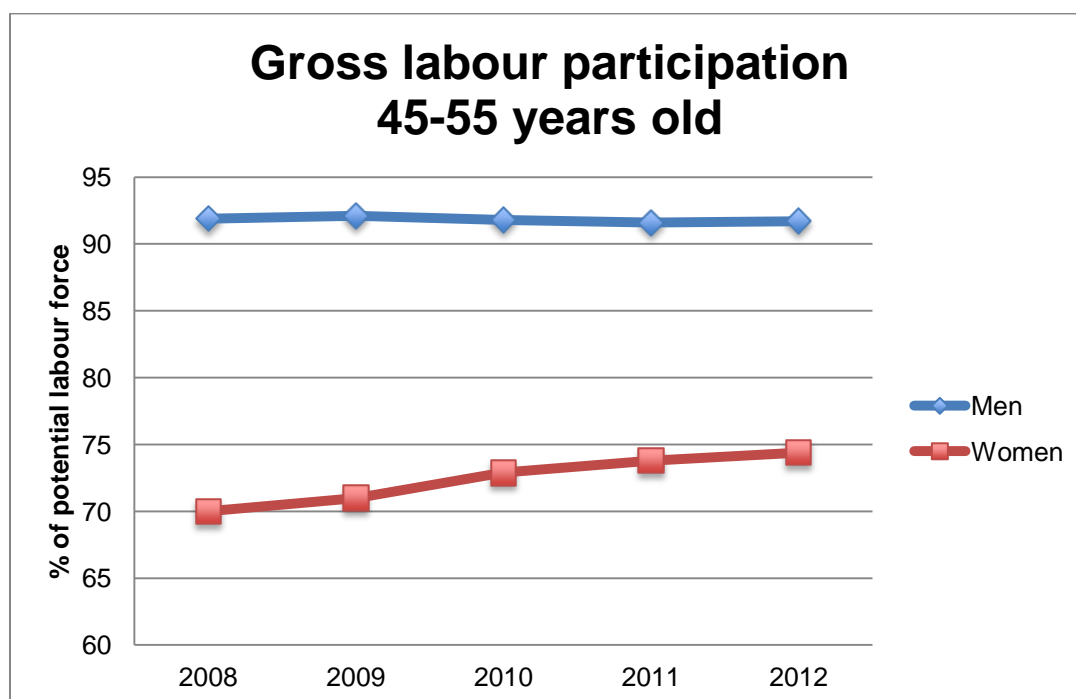
The gross labour participation of the age group 25-35 years old in the Netherlands

Source: www.cbs.nl



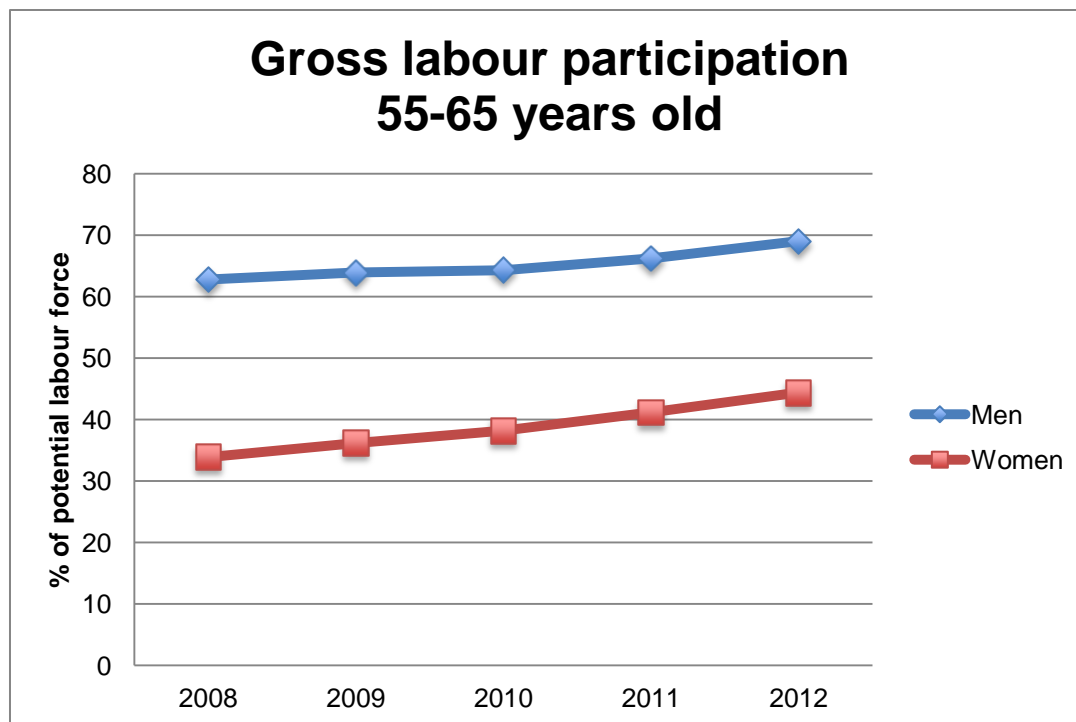
The gross labour participation of the age group 35-45 years old in the Netherlands

Source: www.cbs.nl



The gross labour participation of the age group 45-55 years old in the Netherlands

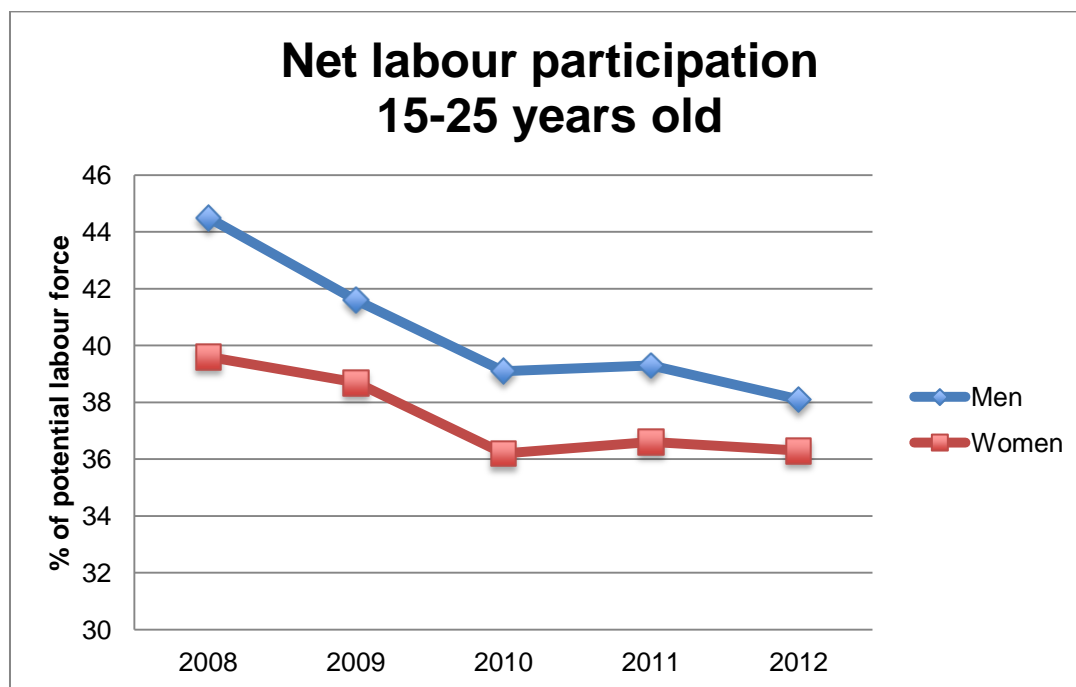
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The gross labour participation of the age group 45-55 years old in the Netherlands

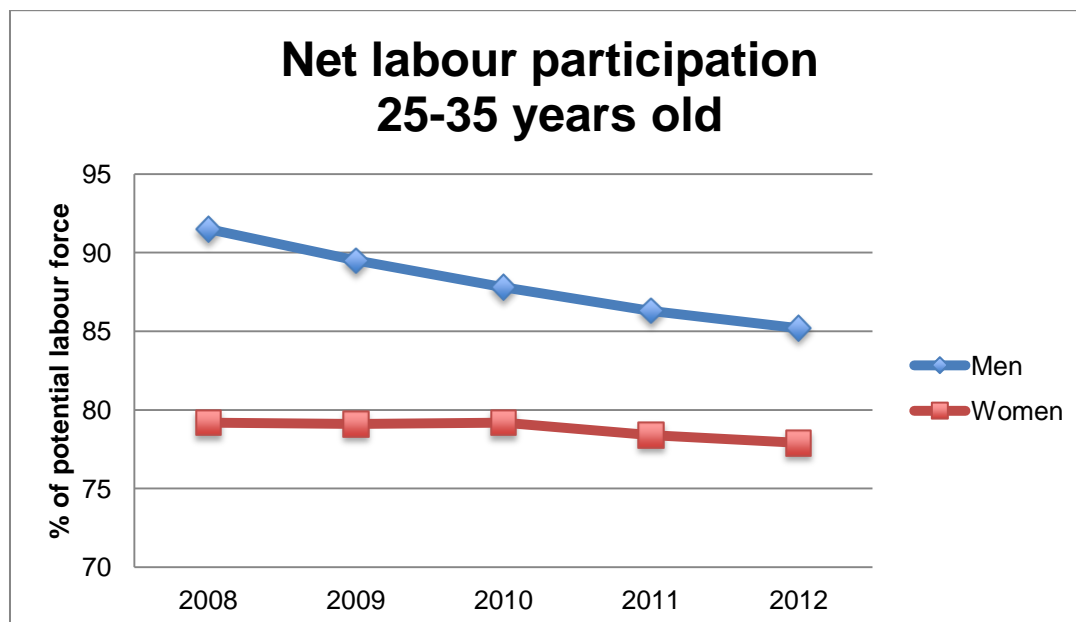
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Appendix C: Net labour participation of different age groups



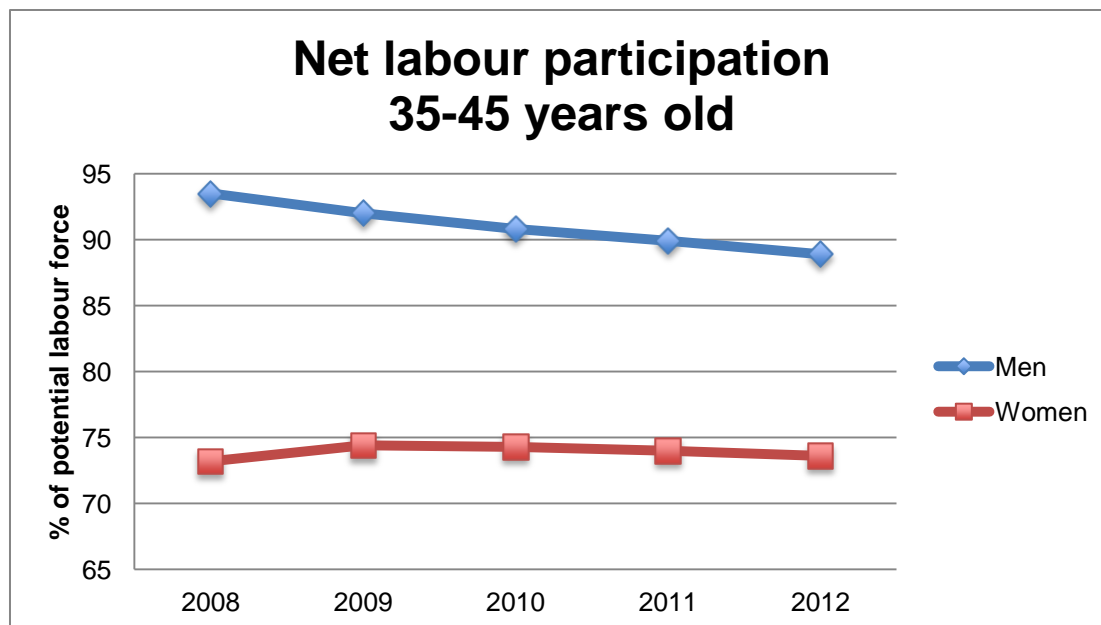
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Source: www.cbs.nl



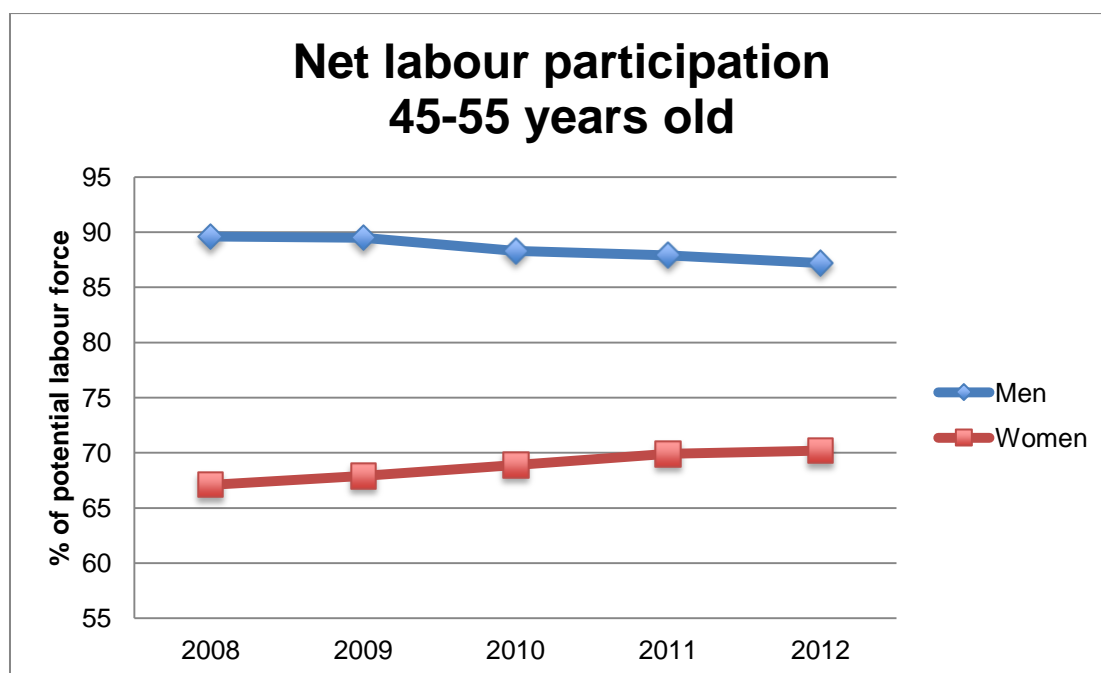
The net labour participation of the age group 25-35 years old in the Netherlands

Source: www.cbs.nl



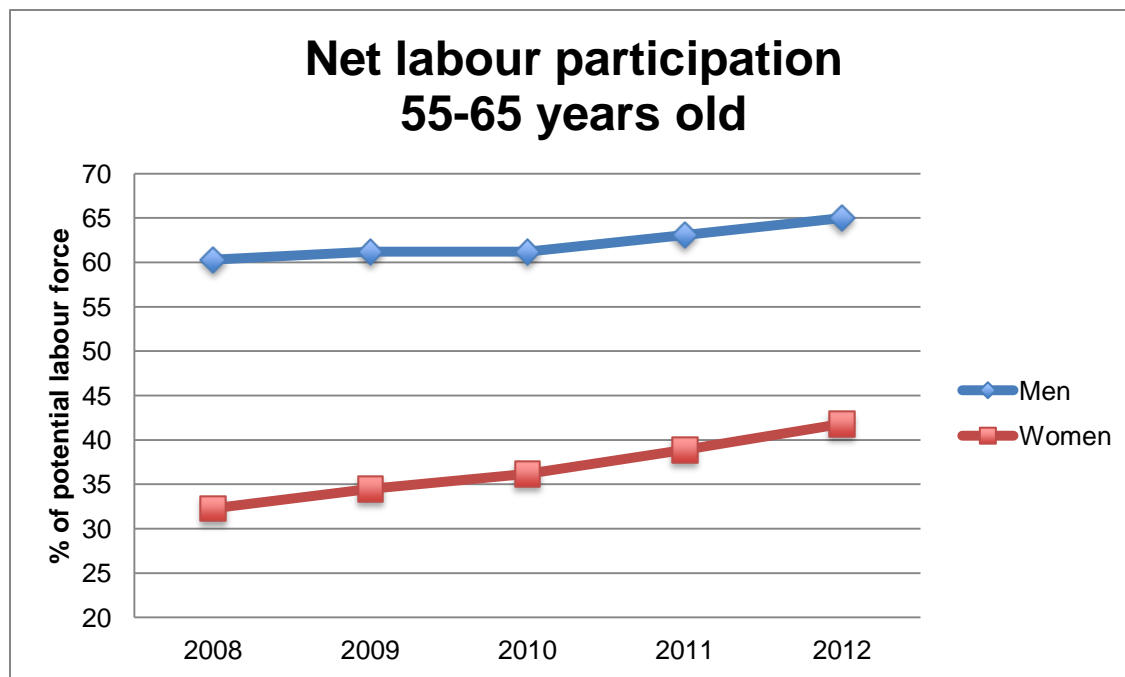
The net labour participation of the age group 35-45 years old in the Netherlands

Source: www.cbs.nl



The net labour participation of the age group 45-55 years old in the Netherlands

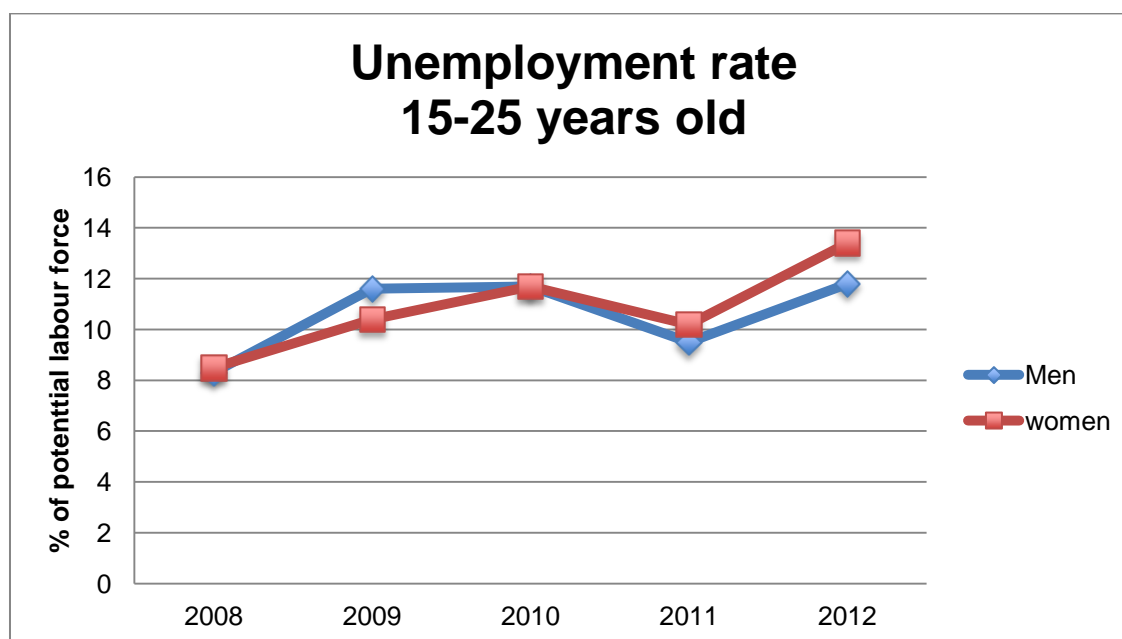
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The net labour participation of the age group 55-65 years old in the Netherlands

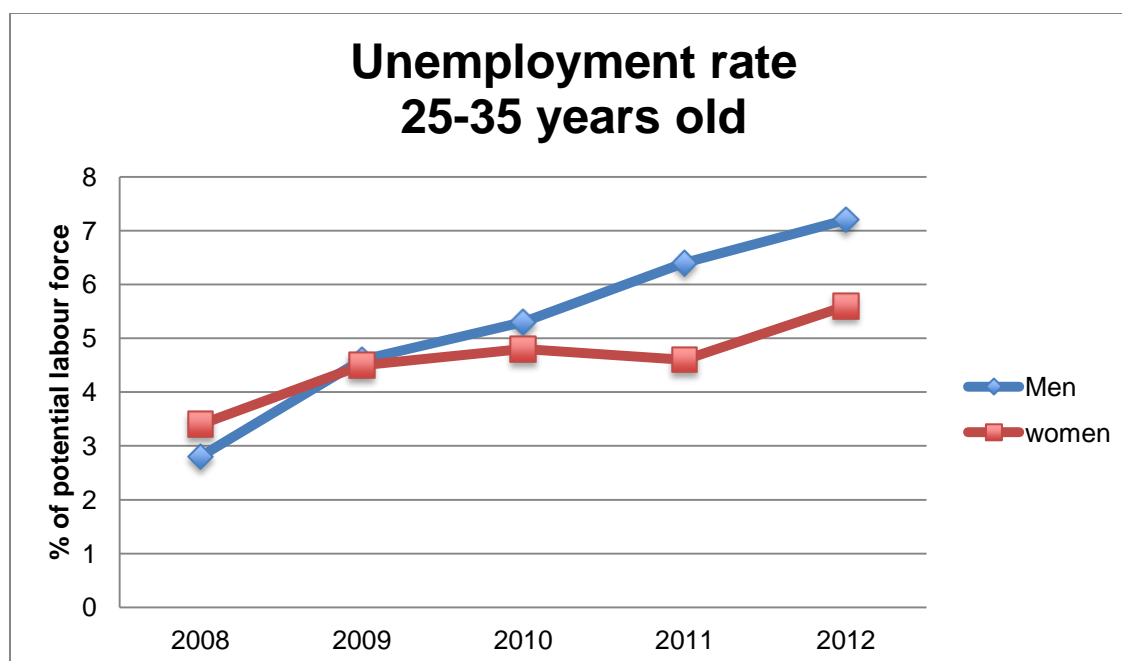
Source: www.cbs.nl

Appendix D: Unemployment rate of different age groups



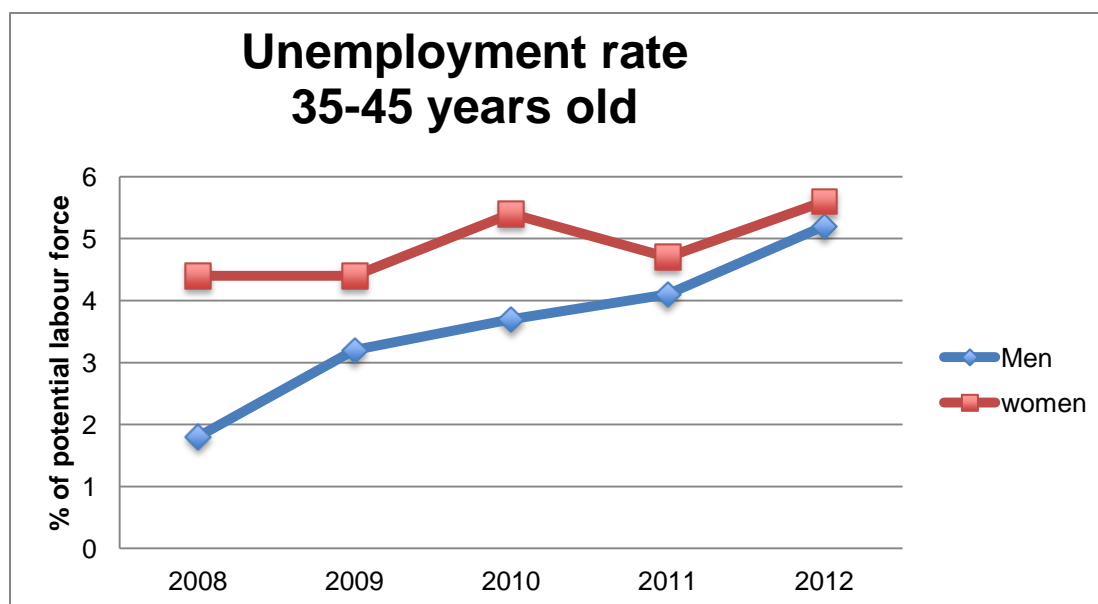
Unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 15-25 years old in 2008-2012.

Source: www.cbs.nl



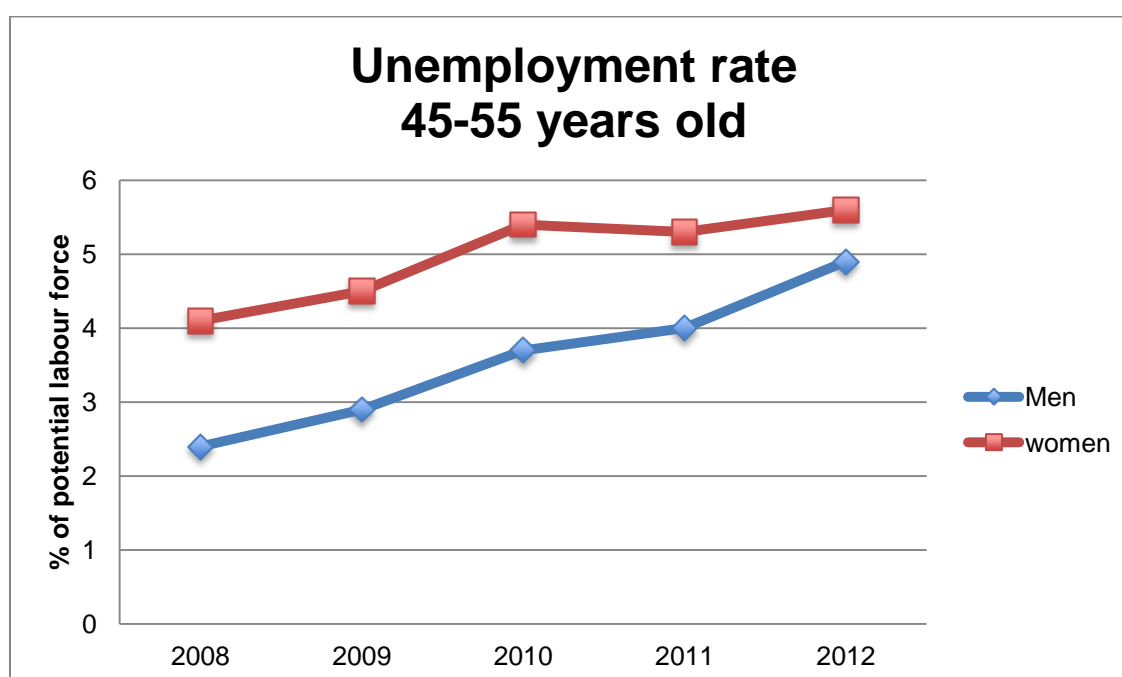
Unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 25-35 years old in 2008-2012.

Source: www.cbs.nl



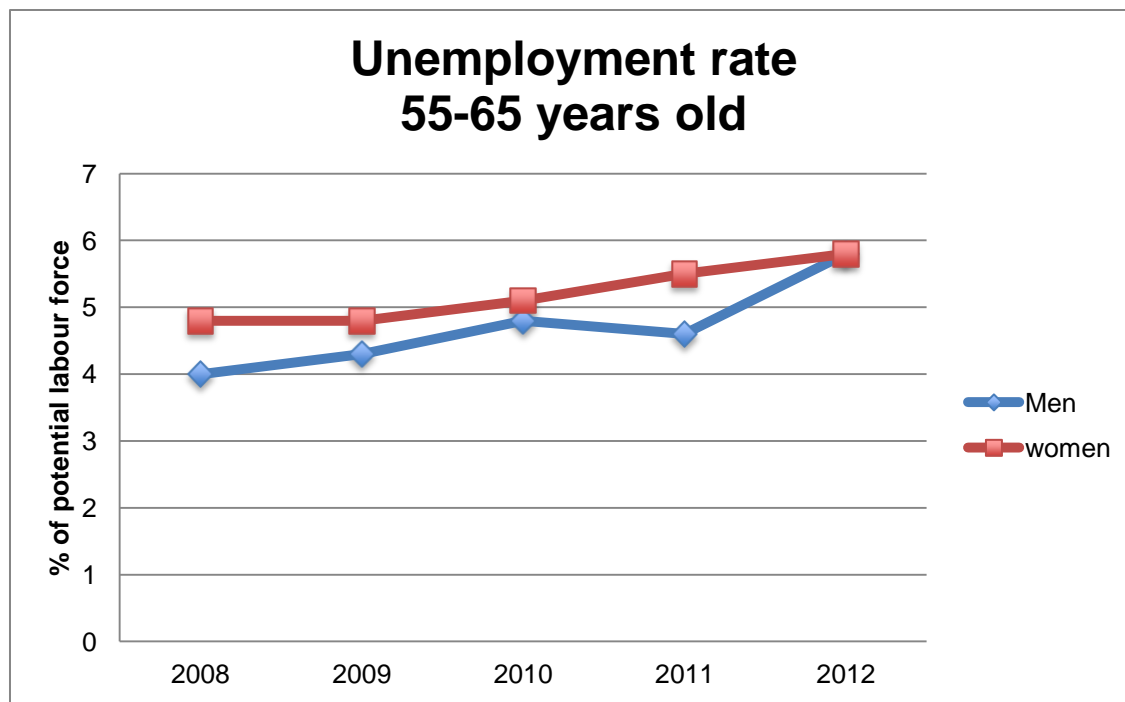
The unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 35-45 years old in 2008-2012.

Source: www.cbs.nl



The unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 45-55 years old in 2008-2012.

Source: www.cbs.nl



The unemployment rate in the Netherlands for men and women in the age group 55-65 years old in 2008-2012.

Source: www.cbs.nl

Appendix E: Figures Dutch population, potential labour force, gross- and net labour participation (in Dutch)

Table A: Dutch population

Bevolking; kerncijfers

Onderwerpen_1	Onderwerpen_3	Perioden	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013*
Bevolking naar geslacht	Totale bevolking	aantal	16405399	16485787	16574989	16655799	16730348	16778025
	Mannen	aantal	8112073	8156396	8203476	8243482	8282871	8306326
	Vrouwen	aantal	8293326	8329391	8371513	8412317	8447477	8471699
	Totale bevolking	aantal	16405399	16485787	16574989	16655799	16730348	16778025
	Jonger dan 20 jaar	aantal	3940450	3933585	3928334	3913819	3894754	3870423
	20 tot 40 jaar	aantal	4267063	4233861	4192772	4162599	4141893	4119832
	40 tot 65 jaar	aantal	5783060	5846526	5915555	5984435	5977333	5963523
	65 tot 80 jaar	aantal	1799337	1840607	1890334	1927399	2030353	2121391
	80 jaar of ouder	aantal	615489	631208	647994	667547	686015	702856

Source: www.cbs.nl

Table B: Potential labour force, gross and net labour participation

Beroepsbevolking; geslacht en leeftijd

Perioden	Geslacht	Leeftijd	Totaal bevolking (15 tot 65 jaar) x 1 000	Beroepsbevolking Bruto- arbeidsparticipatie %	Beroepsbevolking Netto- arbeidsparticipatie %	Beroepsbevolking Werkloosheidspercentage %
2008	Mannen en vrouwen	Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	10997	(7.797) 70,9	(7.499) 68,2	3,8
		15 tot 25 jaar	1978	(908) 45,9	(833) 42,1	8,4
		25 tot 35 jaar	1995	(1.758) 88,1	(1.704) 85,4	3,1
		35 tot 45 jaar	2539	(2.184) 86	(2.118) 83,4	3
		45 tot 55 jaar	2395	(1.939) 81	(1.806) 78,4	3,1
		55 tot 65 jaar	2089	(1.011) 48,4	(967) 46,3	4,3
	Mannen	Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5533	(4.410)(56,5%) 79,7	(4.266)(56,9%) 77,1	3,2

2009	Vrouwen	15 tot 25 jaar	1005	(487)(53,6%) 48,5	(447)(53,7%) 44,5	8,3
		25 tot 35 jaar	998	(940)(53,4%) 94,2	(913)(53,6%) 91,5	2,8
		35 tot 45 jaar	1279	(1.219)(55,8%) 95,3	(1.196)(56,5%) 93,5	1,8
		45 tot 55 jaar	1203	(1.106)(57%) 91,9	(1.078)(57,4%) 89,6	2,4
		55 tot 65 jaar	1049	(659)(65,1%) 62,8	(633)(65,3%) 60,3	4
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5464	(3.393)(43,5%) 62,1	(3.235)(43,1%) 59,2	4,7
	Mannen en vrouwen	15 tot 25 jaar	974	(422)(46,4%) 43,3	(386)(46,3%) 39,6	8,5
		25 tot 35 jaar	998	(819)(46,6%) 82,1	(790)(46,4%) 79,2	3,4
		35 tot 45 jaar	1260	(965)(44,2%) 76,6	(922)(43,5%) 73,2	4,4
		45 tot 55 jaar	1192	(834)(43%) 70	(800)(42,6%) 67,1	4,1
		55 tot 65 jaar	1040	(353)(34,9%) 33,9	(336)(34,7%) 32,3	4,8
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	11014	(7.842) 71,2	(7.467) 67,8	4,8
	Mannen	15 tot 25 jaar	1997	(903) 45,2	(803) 40,2	11
		25 tot 35 jaar	1982	(1.750) 88,3	(1.671) 84,3	4,5
		35 tot 45 jaar	2485	(2.150) 86,5	(2.070) 83,3	3,7
		45 tot 55 jaar	2429	(1.982) 81,6	(1.912) 78,7	3,6
		55 tot 65 jaar	2121	(1.063) 50,1	(1.016) 47,9	4,5
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5537	(4.396)(56%) 79,4	(4.203)(56,2%) 75,9	4,5
	Vrouwen	15 tot 25 jaar	1013	(477)(52,9%) 47,1	(421)(52,5%) 41,6	11,6
		25 tot 35 jaar	990	(928)(53,1%) 93,7	(886)(53,1%) 89,5	4,6
		35 tot 45 jaar	1249	(1.187)(55,2%) 95	(1.149)(55,5%) 92	3,2
		45 tot 55 jaar	1220	(1.124)(56,7%) 92,1	(1.092)(57,1%) 89,5	2,9
		55 tot 65 jaar	1064	(680)(64%) 63,9	(651)(64,1%) 61,2	4,3
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5477	(3.451)(44%) 63	(3.270)(43,8%) 59,7	5,2
2010	Mannen en vrouwen	15 tot 25 jaar	984	(424)(47,1%) 43,1	(381)(47,5%) 38,7	10,4
		25 tot 35 jaar	991	(821)(46,9%) 82,8	(784)(46,9%) 79,1	4,5
		35 tot 45 jaar	1236	(962)(44,8%) 77,8	(920)(44,5%) 74,4	4,4
		45 tot 55 jaar	1209	(858)(43,3%) 71	(821)(42,9%) 67,9	4,5
		55 tot 65 jaar	1057	(383)(36%) 36,2	(365)(35,9) 34,5	4,8
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	11017	(7.822) 71	(7.392) 67,1	5,4
2010	Mannen en vrouwen	15 tot 25 jaar	2006	(857) 42,7	(756) 37,7	11,7
		25 tot 35 jaar	1976	(1.737) 87,9	(1.650) 83,5	5

2011	Mannen	35 tot 45 jaar	2423	(2.093) 86,4	(2.001) 82,6	4,5
		45 tot 55 jaar	2458	(2.025) 82,4	(1.934) 78,7	4,5
		55 tot 65 jaar	2154	(1.105) 51,3	(1.049) 48,7	4,9
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5533	(4.338)(55,5%) 78,4	(4.117)(55,7%) 74,4	5
		15 tot 25 jaar	1017	(449)(52,6%) 44,3	(398)(52,6%) 39,1	11,7
		25 tot 35 jaar	986	(914)(52,6%) 92,7	(866)(52,5%) 87,8	5,3
	Vrouwen	35 tot 45 jaar	1215	(1.145)(54,7%) 94,2	(1.103)(55,1%) 90,8	3,7
		45 tot 55 jaar	1235	(1.134)(56%) 91,8	(1.091)(56,4%) 88,3	3,7
		55 tot 65 jaar	1080	(694)(62,8%) 64,3	(661)(62,9%) 61,2	4,8
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5485	(3.477)(44,5%) 63,4	(3.275)(42,3%) 59,7	6
		15 tot 25 jaar	989	(405)(47,4%) 41	(358)(47,4%) 36,2	11,7
		25 tot 35 jaar	990	(824)(47,4%) 83,2	(784)(47,5%) 79,2	4,8
	Mannen en vrouwen	35 tot 45 jaar	1208	(949)(45,3%) 78,6	(898)(44,9%) 74,3	5,4
		45 tot 55 jaar	1223	(892)(44%) 72,9	(843)(43,6%) 68,9	5,4
		55 tot 65 jaar	1075	(411)(47,2%) 38,2	(389)(37,1%) 36,2	5,1
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	10994	(7.817) 71,1	(7.388) 67,2	5,4
		15 tot 25 jaar	2010	(846) 42,1	(764) 38	9,8
		25 tot 35 jaar	1980	(1.727) 87,2	(1.632) 82,4	5,5
	Mannen	35 tot 45 jaar	2361	(2.023) 85,7	(1.936) 82	4,4
		45 tot 55 jaar	2479	(2.053) 82,8	(1.958) 79	4,6
		55 tot 65 jaar	2164	(1.162) 53,7	(1.104) 51	5
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5517	(4.320)(55,3%) 78,3	(4.094)(55,4%) 74,2	5,2
		15 tot 25 jaar	1020	(444)(52,4%) 43,5	(401)(52,5%) 39,3	9,5
		25 tot 35 jaar	987	(910)(52,7%) 92,2	(852)(52,3%) 86,3	6,4
	Vrouwen	35 tot 45 jaar	1182	(1.109)(54,8%) 93,8	(1.063)(54,9%) 89,9	4,1
		45 tot 55 jaar	1245	(1.140)(55,6%) 91,6	(1.094)(55,9%) 87,9	4
		55 tot 65 jaar	1083	(717)(61,7%) 66,2	(683)(61,9%) 63,1	4,6
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5477	(3.494)(44,7%) 63,8	(3.297)(44,6%) 60,2	5,6
		15 tot 25 jaar	991	(404)(47,6%) 40,8	(363)(47,5%) 36,6	10,2
		25 tot 35 jaar	993	(816)(47,3%) 82,2	(779)(47,7%) 78,4	4,6
		35 tot 45 jaar	1179	(916)(45,2%) 77,7	(872)(45,1%) 74	4,7
		45 tot 55 jaar	1233	(910)(44,4%) 73,8	(862)(44,1%) 69,9	5,3

2012	Mannen en vrouwen	55 tot 65 jaar	1081	(445)(38,3%) 41,2	(421)(38,1%) 38,9	5,5
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	10992	(7.892) 71,8	(7.387) 67,2	6,4
		15 tot 25 jaar	2023	(862) 42,6	(753) 37,2	12,6
		25 tot 35 jaar	2008	(1.751) 87,2	(1.639) 81,6	6,5
		35 tot 45 jaar	2312	(1.986) 85,9	(1.877) 81,2	5,4
		45 tot 55 jaar	2498	(2.076) 83,1	(1.968) 78,8	5,2
	Mannen	55 tot 65 jaar	2151	(1.220) 56,7	(1.149) 53,4	5,8
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5519	(4.343)(55%) 78,7	(4.068)(55,1%) 73,7	6,3
		15 tot 25 jaar	1027	(444)(51,5%) 43,2	(391)(51,2%) 38,1	11,8
		25 tot 35 jaar	1004	(923)(52,7%) 91,9	(855)(52,2%) 85,2	7,2
		35 tot 45 jaar	1156	(1.083)(54,6%) 93,7	(1.028)(54,7%) 88,9	5,2
		45 tot 55 jaar	1256	(1.152)(55,5%) 91,7	(1.095)(55,6%) 87,2	4,9
	Vrouwen	55 tot 65 jaar	1076	(742)(60,9%) 69	(699)(60,9%) 65	5,8
		Totaal leeftijd 15 tot 65 jaar	5473	(3.552)(45%) 64,9	(3.317)(44,9%) 60,6	6,6
		15 tot 25 jaar	996	(418)(48,5%) 42	(362)(48,8%) 36,3	13,4
		25 tot 35 jaar	1004	(829)(47,3%) 82,6	(782)(47,8%) 77,9	5,6
		35 tot 45 jaar	1155	(901)(45,4%) 78	(850)(45,3%) 73,6	5,6
		45 tot 55 jaar	1243	(925)(44,5%) 74,4	(873)(44,4%) 70,2	5,6
		55 tot 65 jaar	1075	(477)(39,1%) 44,4	(449)(39,1%) 41,8	5,8

Source: www.cbs.nl

Appendix F: Exclusionary transitions on the different life domains

(1) Labour mobility

Tabel C: Labour Mobility in 2008 and 2009

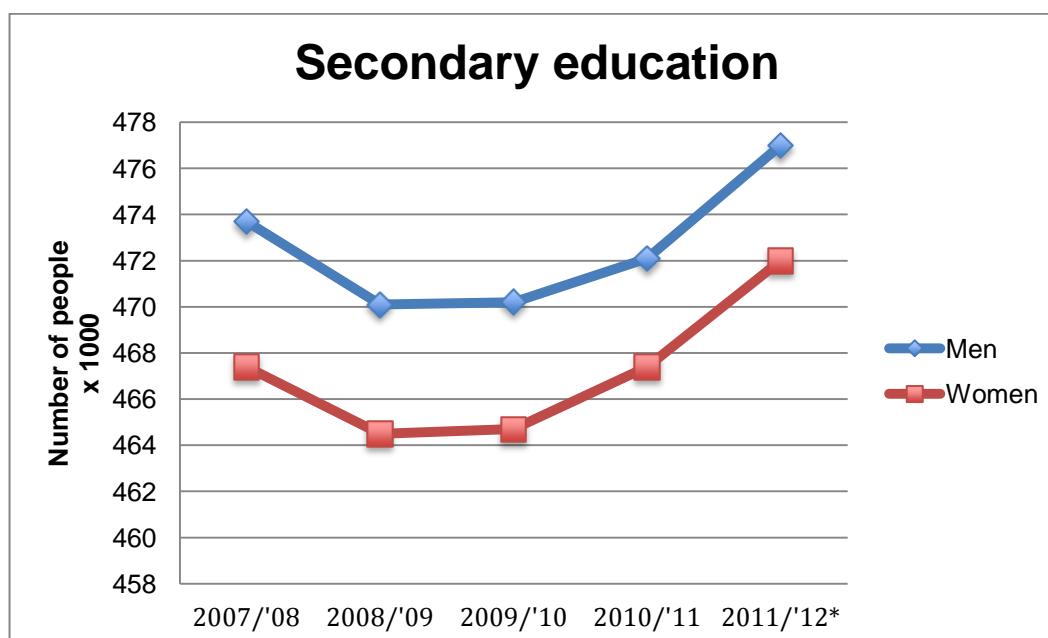
Ondernemingsklimaat; baanmobiliteit, minimumloon, uitkeringen

Landen	Perioden	Onderwerpen	Baanmobiliteit	Baanmobiliteit	Baanmobiliteit	Baanmobiliteit	Baanmobiliteit
		Onderwerpen	0 tot 1 jaar	1 tot 3 jaar	3 tot 5 jaar	5 tot 10 jaar	10 jaar en meer
			% van het aantal werkzame personen	% van het aantal werkzame personen	% van het aantal werkzame personen	% van het aantal werkzame personen	% van het aantal werkzame personen
Nederland	2008		10,3	14,5	11,3	24,4	39,5
Nederland	2009		8,9	14,8	13,1	22,4	40,7
Nederland	2010	
Nederland	2011	

Source: www.cbs.nl

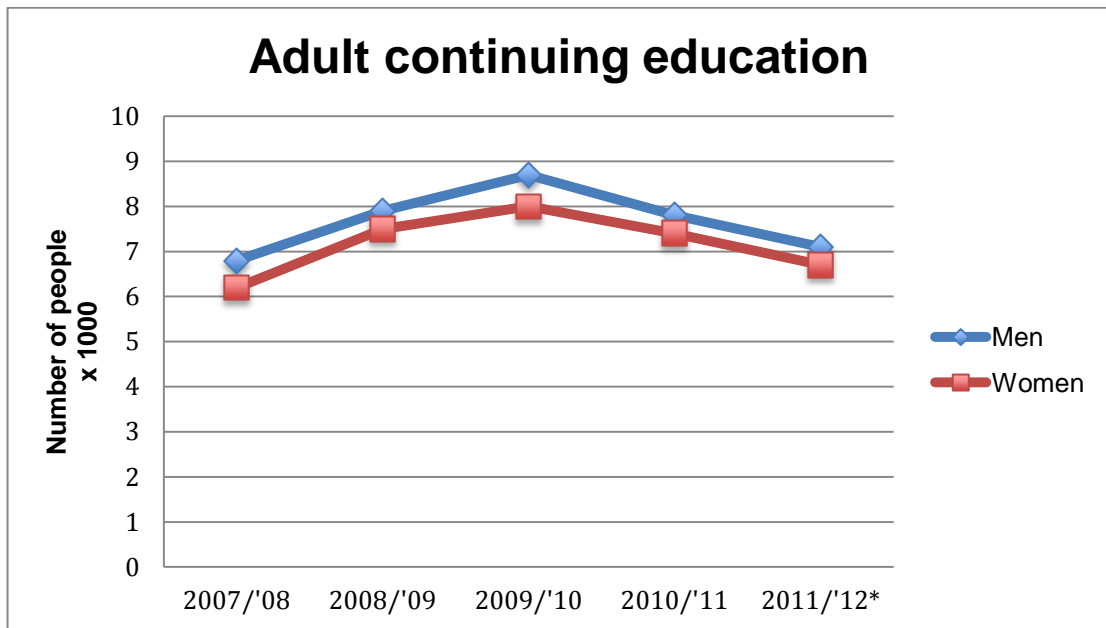
(2) Education

Development of different education levels



Number of people in secondary education in 2007/'08-2011/'12

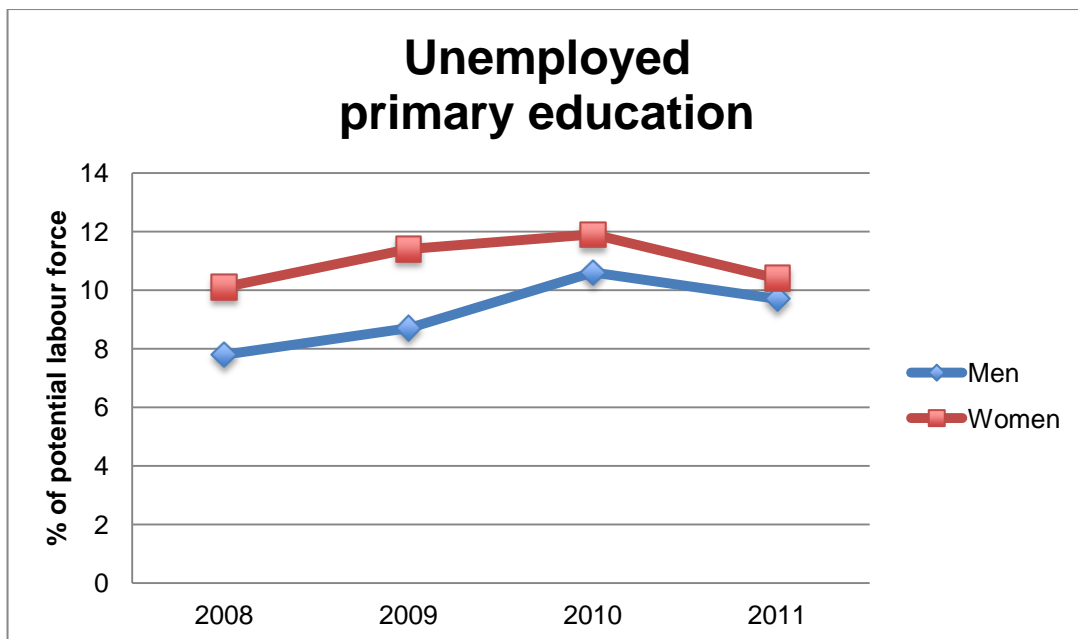
Source: www.cbs.nl



Number of people in adult continuing education in 2007/'08-2011/'12

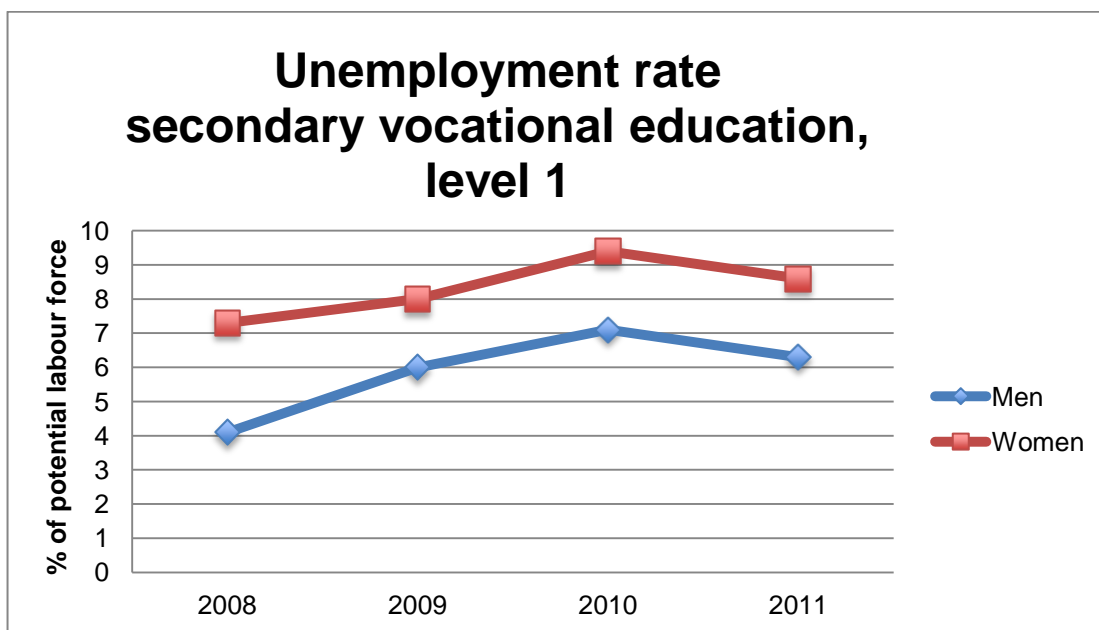
Source: www.cbs.nl

Unemployment rate classified by education level



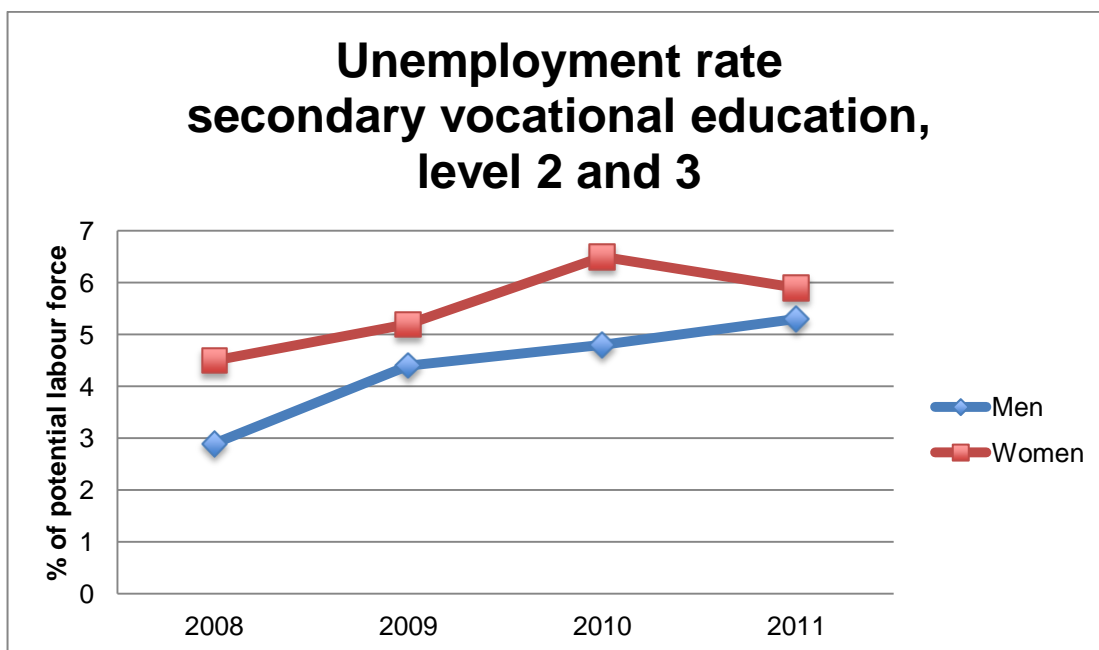
Unemployment rate of people with primary education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl



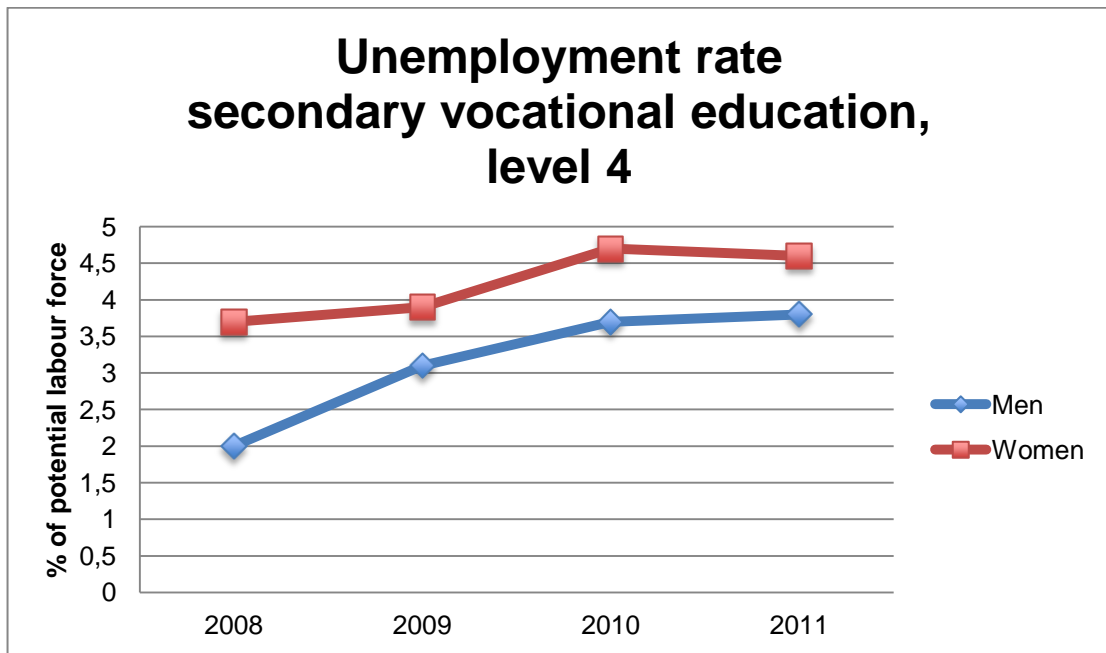
Unemployment rate of people with secondary education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl



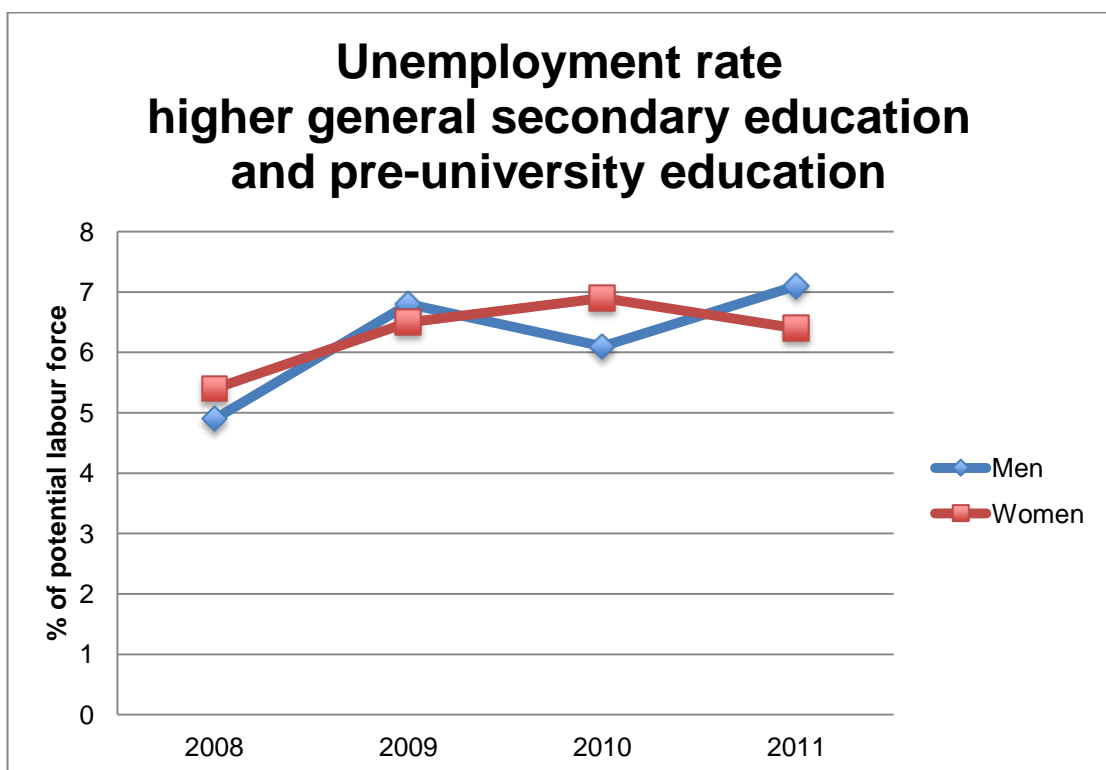
Unemployment rate of people with secondary education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl



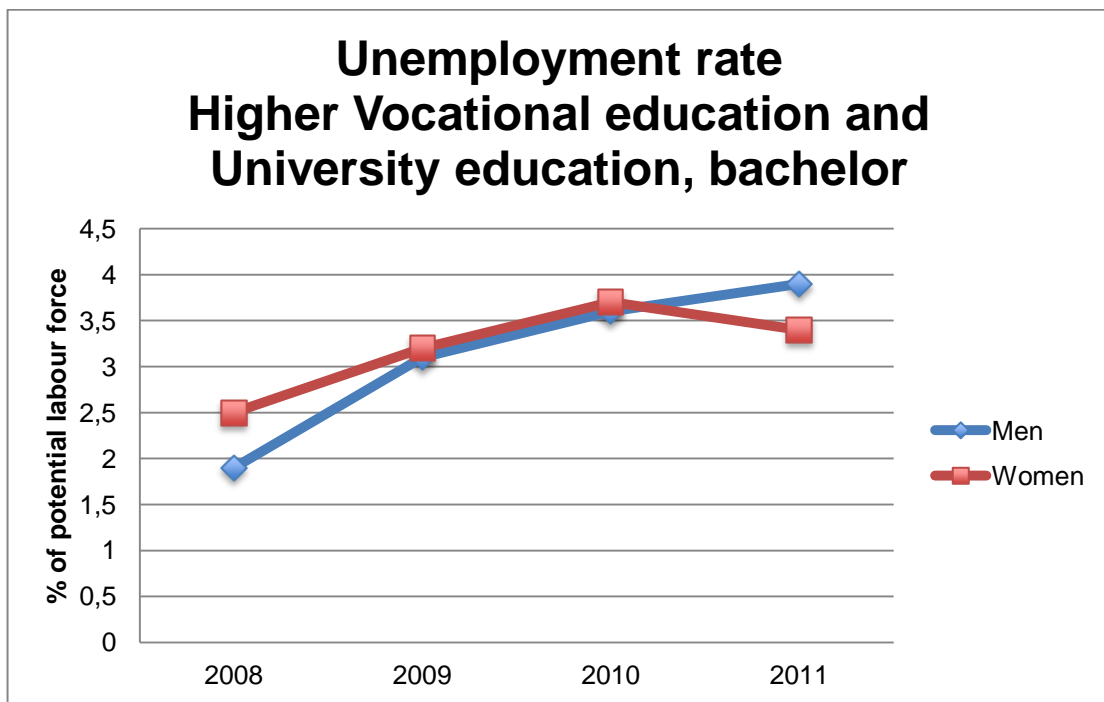
Unemployment rate of people with secondary education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl



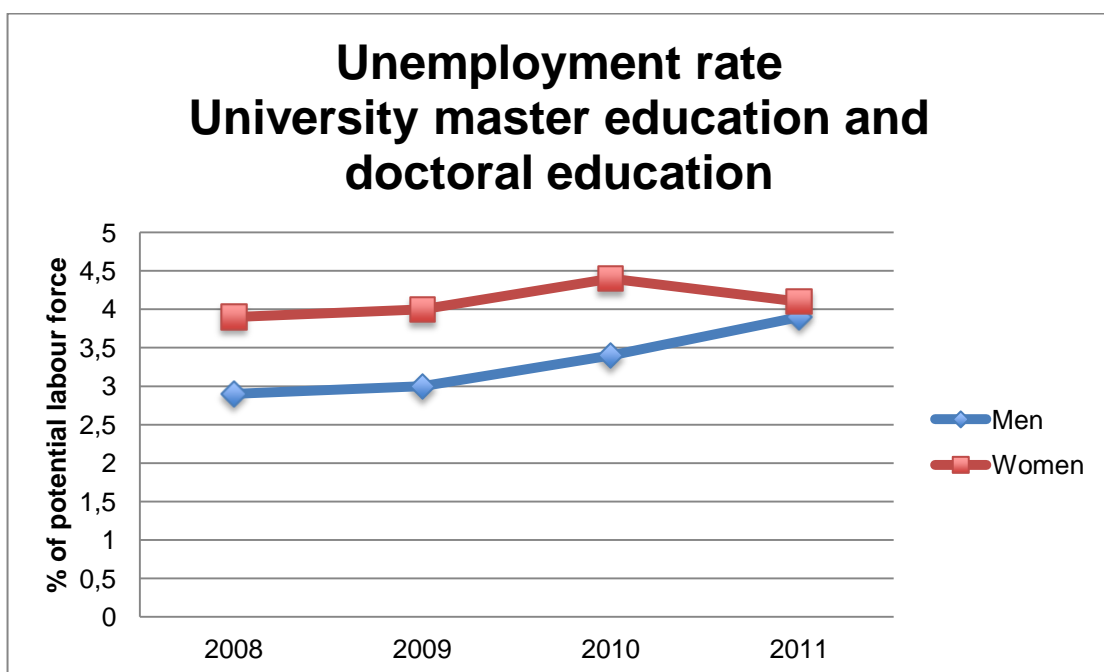
Unemployment rate of people with general secondary education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl



Unemployment rate of people with higher professional education and academic education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl



Unemployment rate of people with academic education in 2008-2011.

Source: www.cbs.nl

(3) Labour disability

Table D: Labour disability in 2008-2012

	Men	Women
2008	297.010	264.100
2009	274.480	250.410
2010	249.570	236.520
2011	223.900	219.920
2012	201.680	204.390

This table shows the number of benefits under the Act Disability Insurance (WAO).

Source: www.cbs.nl

Table E: WAO (in Dutch)

Arbeidsongeschiktheid WAO

		Instroom		Instroom		Uitstroom		Uitstroom	
		mannen		vrouwen		mannen		vrouwen	
2008	Totaal	2690	47,5%	2970	52,5%	25850	64,1%	14490	35,9%
	15 tot 25 jaar	60	50,0%	60	50,0%	30	75,0%	10	25,0%
	25 tot 35 jaar	420	40,8%	610	59,2%	320	48,5%	340	51,5%
	35 tot 45 jaar	840	44,2%	1060	55,8%	990	52,4%	900	47,6%
	45 tot 55 jaar	870	48,6%	920	51,4%	1890	60,8%	1220	39,2%
	55 tot 65 jaar	500	60,2%	330	39,8%	9560	54,6%	7940	45,4%
2009	Totaal	2220	47,0%	2500	53,0%	23350	62,1%	14240	37,9%
	15 tot 25 jaar	40	40,0%	60	60,0%	20	33,3%	40	66,7%
	25 tot 35 jaar	310	39,2%	480	60,8%	200	47,6%	220	52,4%
	35 tot 45 jaar	650	43,0%	860	57,0%	570	52,8%	510	47,2%
	45 tot 55 jaar	710	48,0%	770	52,0%	1250	59,5%	850	40,5%
	55 tot 65 jaar	510	60,0%	340	40,0%	9680	55,0%	7910	45,0%
2010	Totaal	2210	51,9%	2050	48,1%	24250	61,3%	15320	38,7%
	15 tot 25 jaar	-		-		-		-	
	25 tot 35 jaar	190	40,4%	280	59,6%	160	39,0%	250	61,0%
	35 tot 45 jaar	670	46,2%	780	53,8%	780	50,6%	760	49,4%

	45 tot 55 jaar	830	53,9%	710	46,1%	1460	56,8%	1110	43,2%
	55 tot 65 jaar	500	64,1%	280	35,9%	21550	62,2%	13110	37,8%
2011	Totaal	1590	51,8%	1480	48,2%	27250	60,1%	18080	39,9%
	15 tot 25 jaar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	25 tot 35 jaar	120	46,2%	140	53,8%	110	44,0%	140	56,0%
	35 tot 45 jaar	460	47,9%	500	52,1%	560	52,8%	500	47,2%
	45 tot 55 jaar	570	49,6%	580	50,4%	1120	56,6%	860	43,4%
	55 tot 65 jaar	340	61,8%	210	38,2%	16530	70,0%	7070	30,0%
2012*	Totaal	1320	61,4%	830	38,6%	23590	59,1%	16300	40,9%
	15 tot 25 jaar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	25 tot 35 jaar	60	54,5%	50	45,5%	80	53,3%	70	46,7%
	35 tot 45 jaar	330	55,9%	260	44,1%	450	51,7%	420	48,3%
	45 tot 55 jaar	490	60,5%	320	39,5%	1010	56,1%	790	43,9%
	55 tot 65 jaar	350	68,6%	160	31,4%	1190	13,7%	7490	86,3%

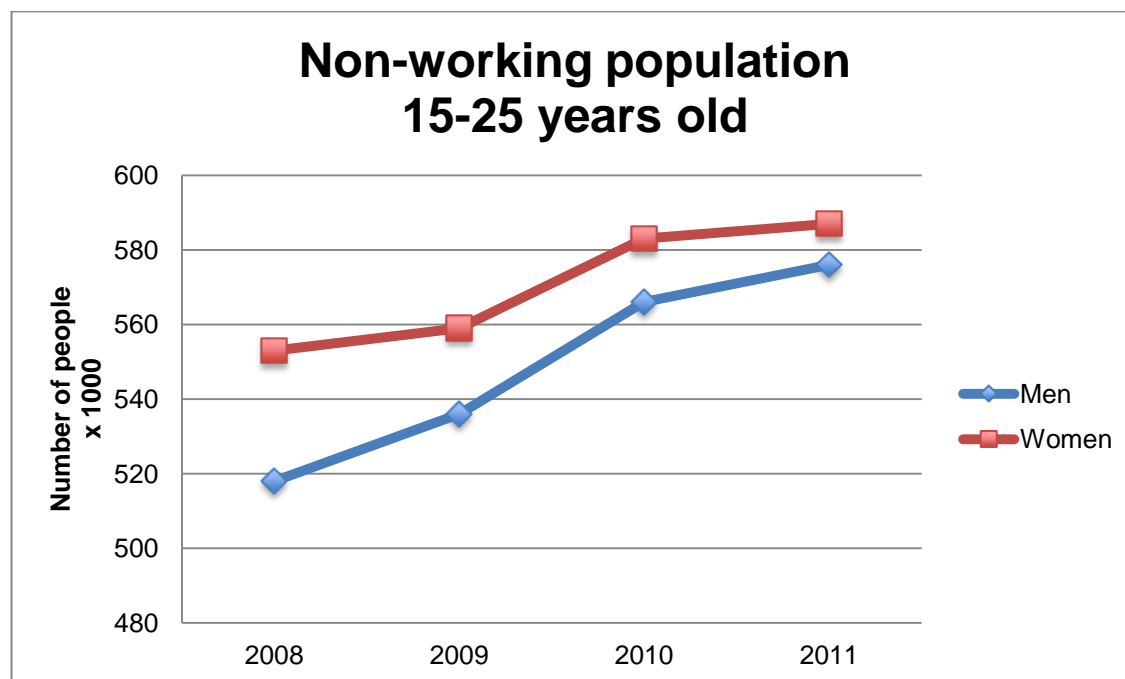
*Voorlopige cijfers

This table shows the in and outflow of labour disability. The outflow of labour disability does not sum up because the age group 65> is not included in this table.

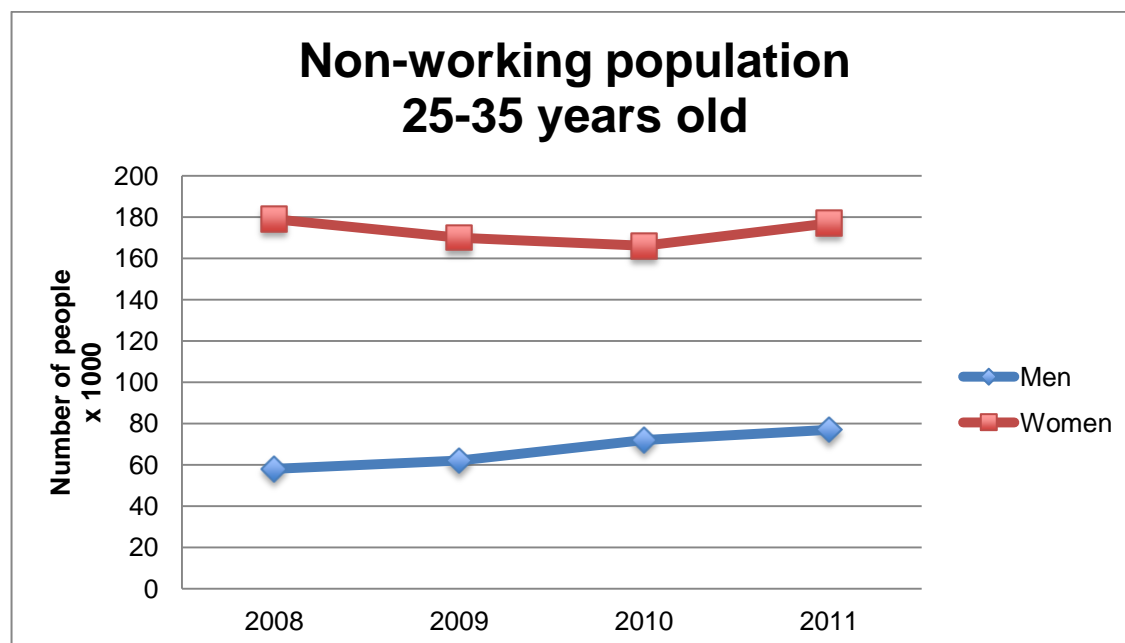
Source: www.uwv.nl

(4) Private Households

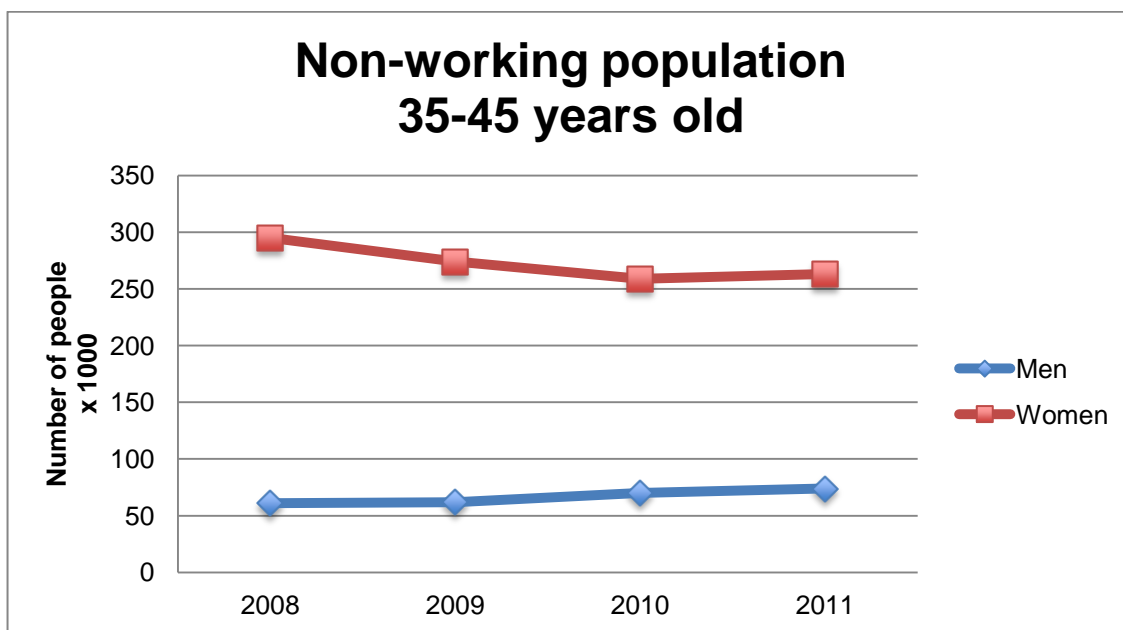
Non-working population divided by age



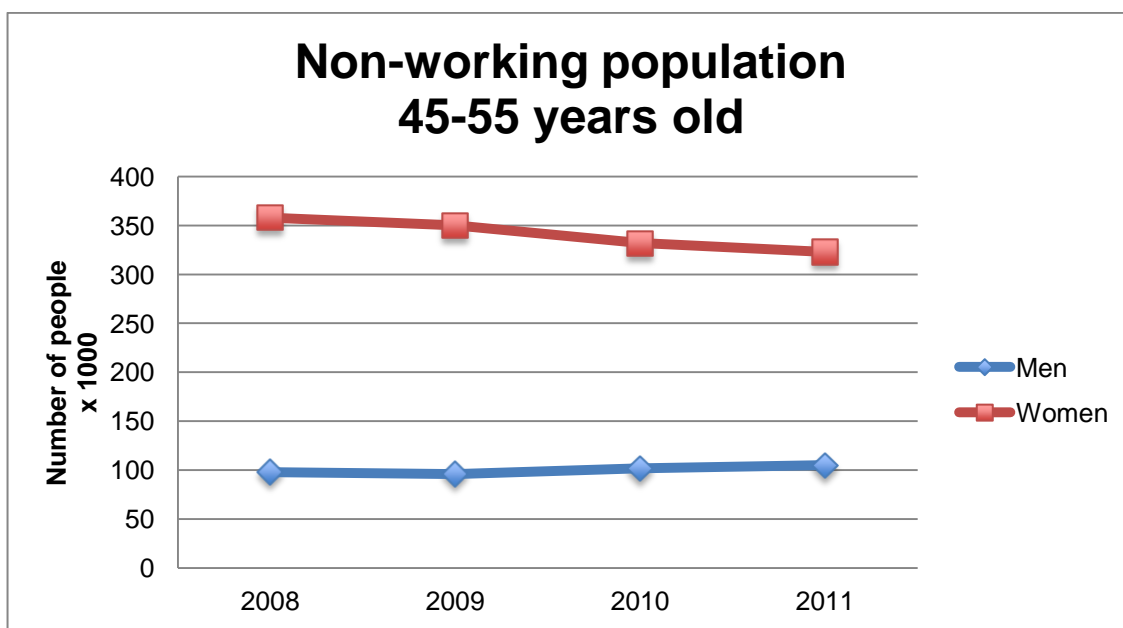
Source: www.cbs.nl



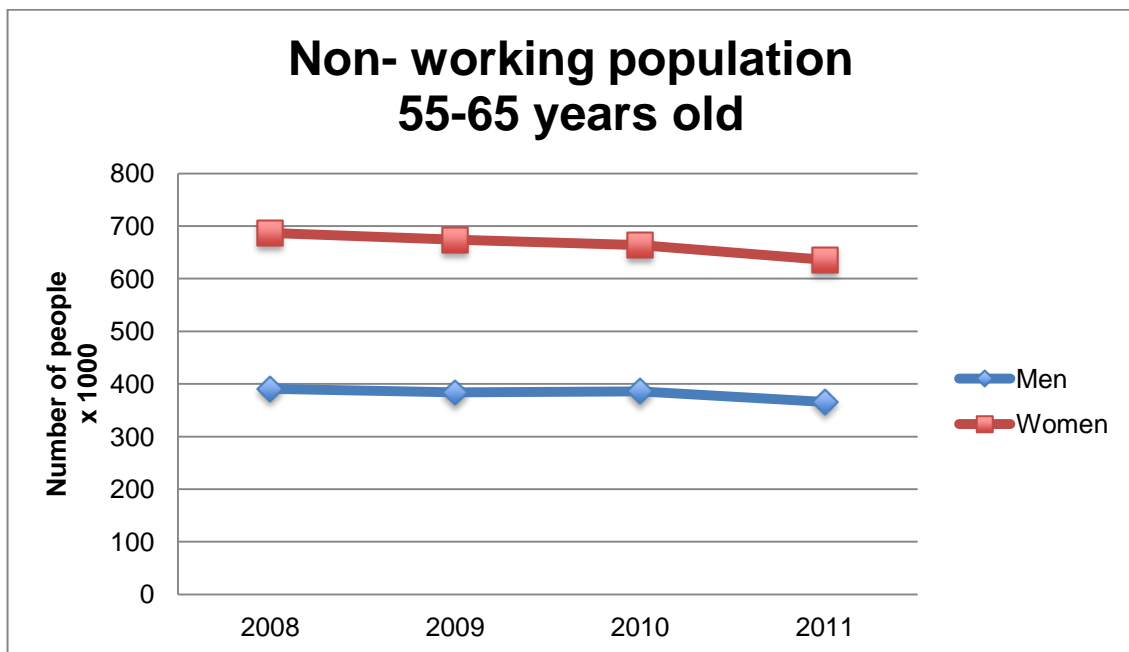
Source: www.cbs.nl



Source: www.cbs.nl

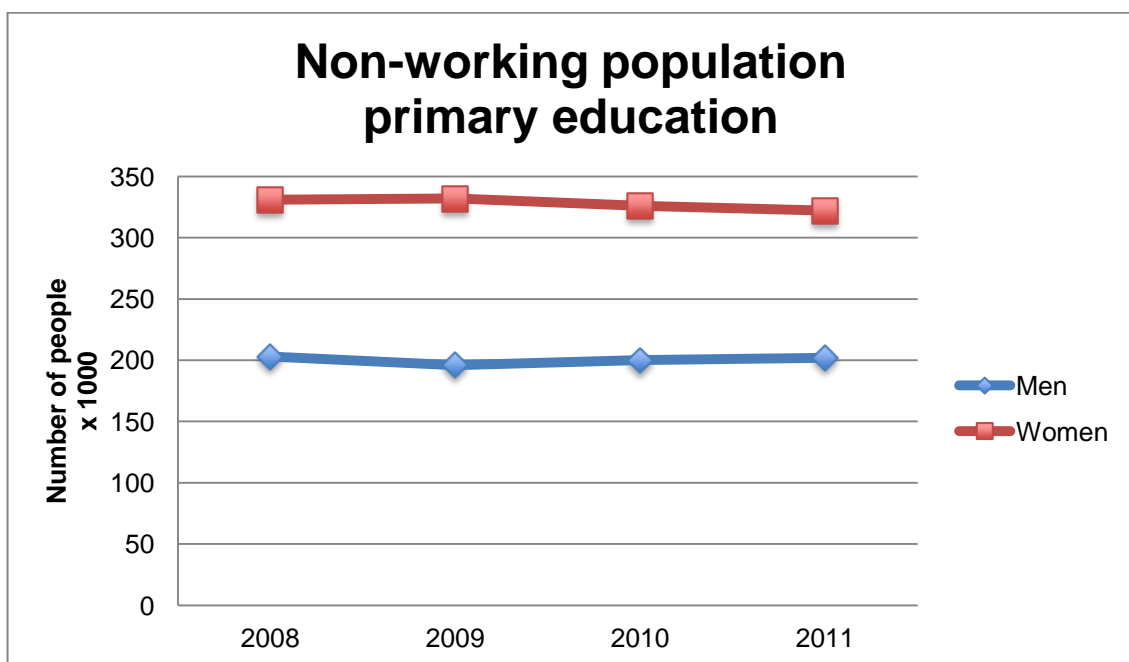


Source: www.cbs.nl

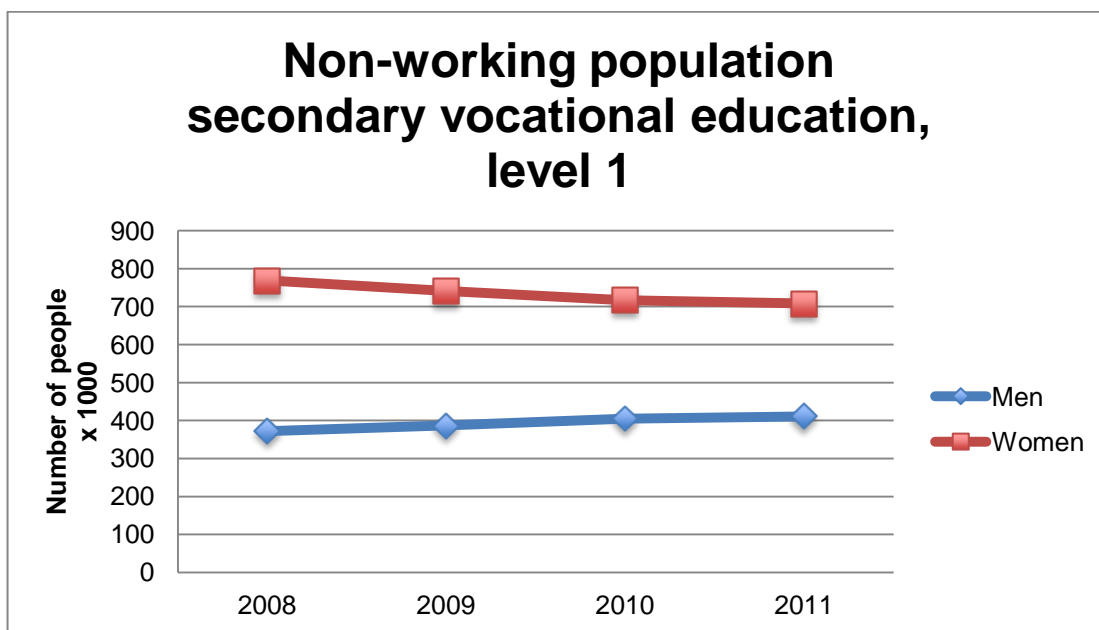


Source: www.cbs.nl

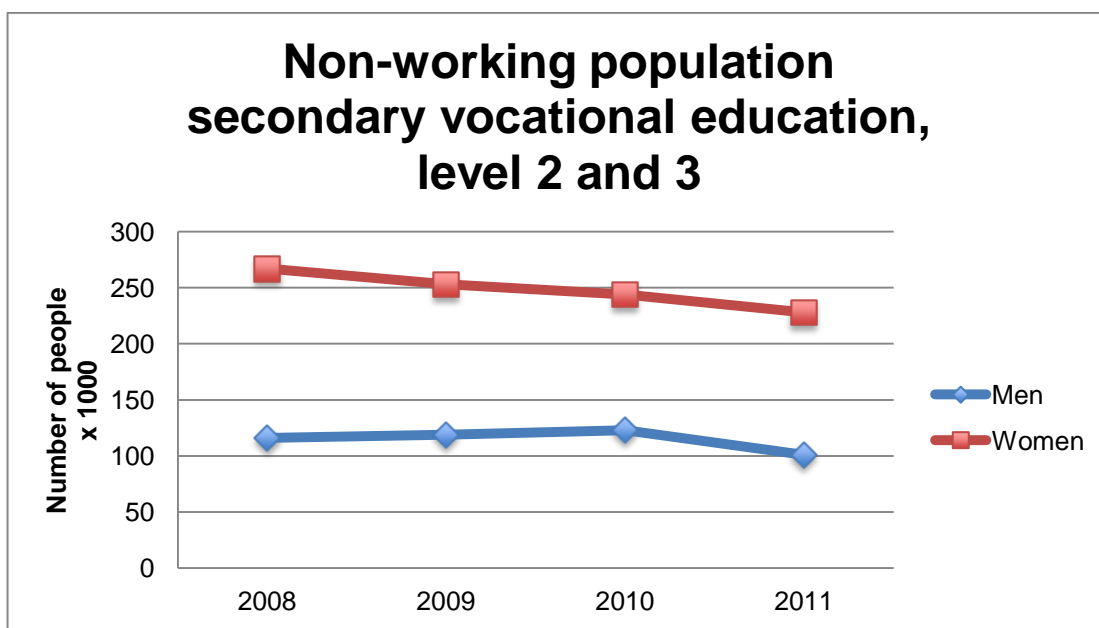
Non-working population classified by education level



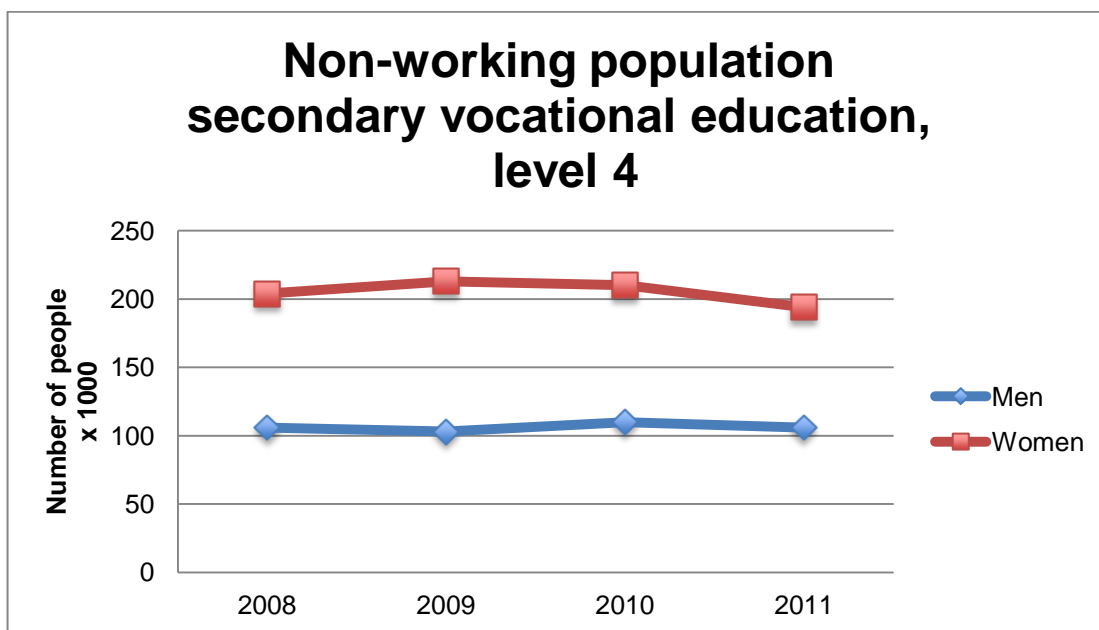
Source: www.cbs.nl



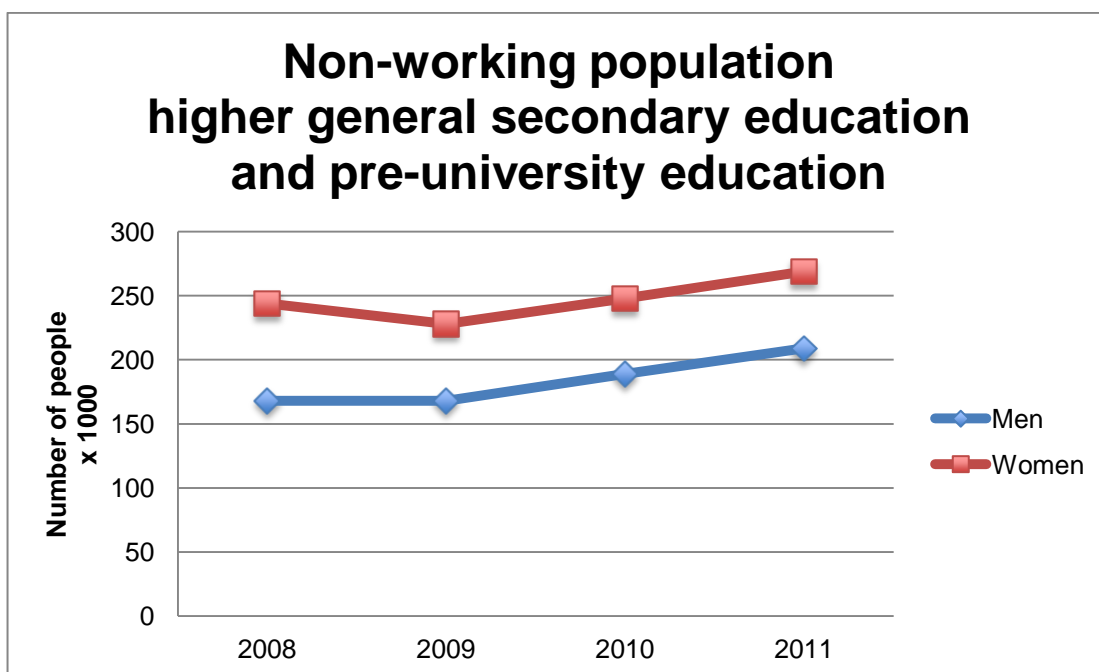
Source: www.cbs.nl



Source: www.cbs.nl

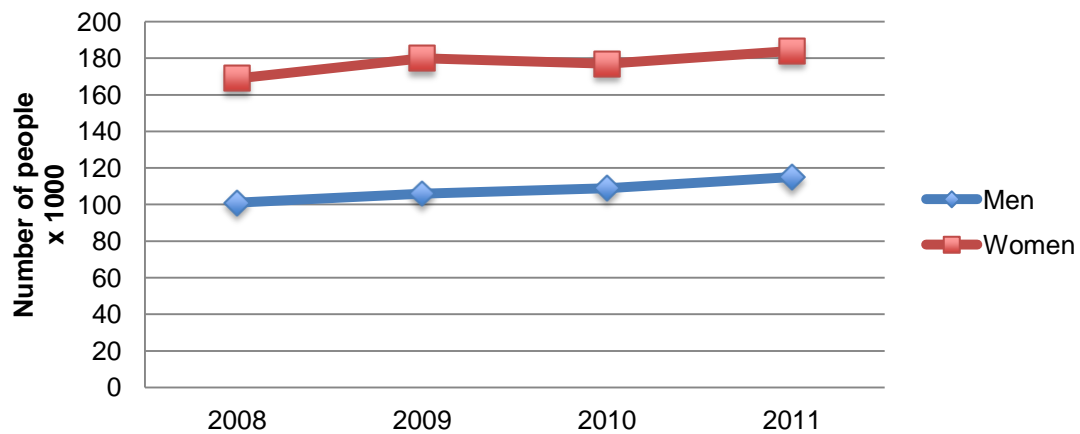


Source: www.cbs.nl

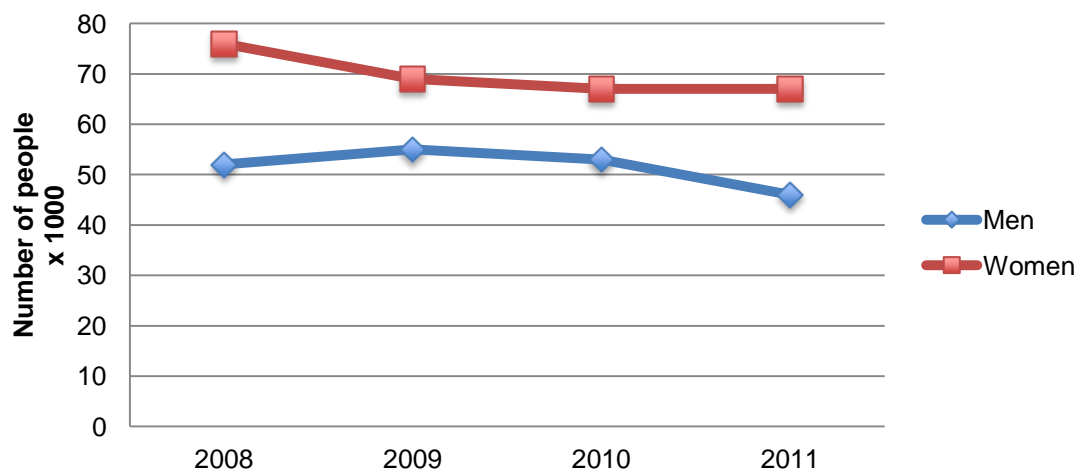


Source: www.cbs.nl

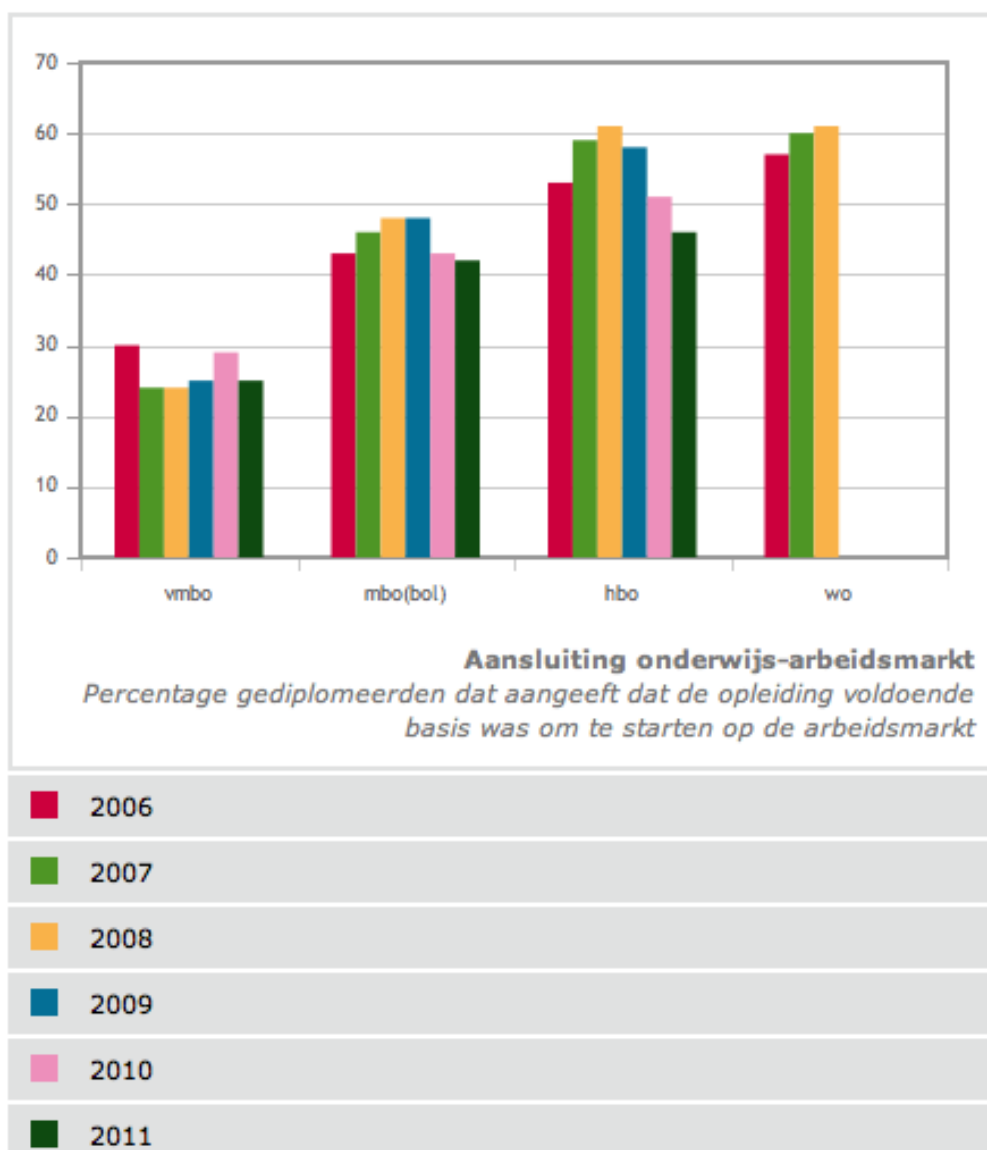
Non-working population Higher Vocational education and University education, bachelor



Non-working population University master education and doctoral education

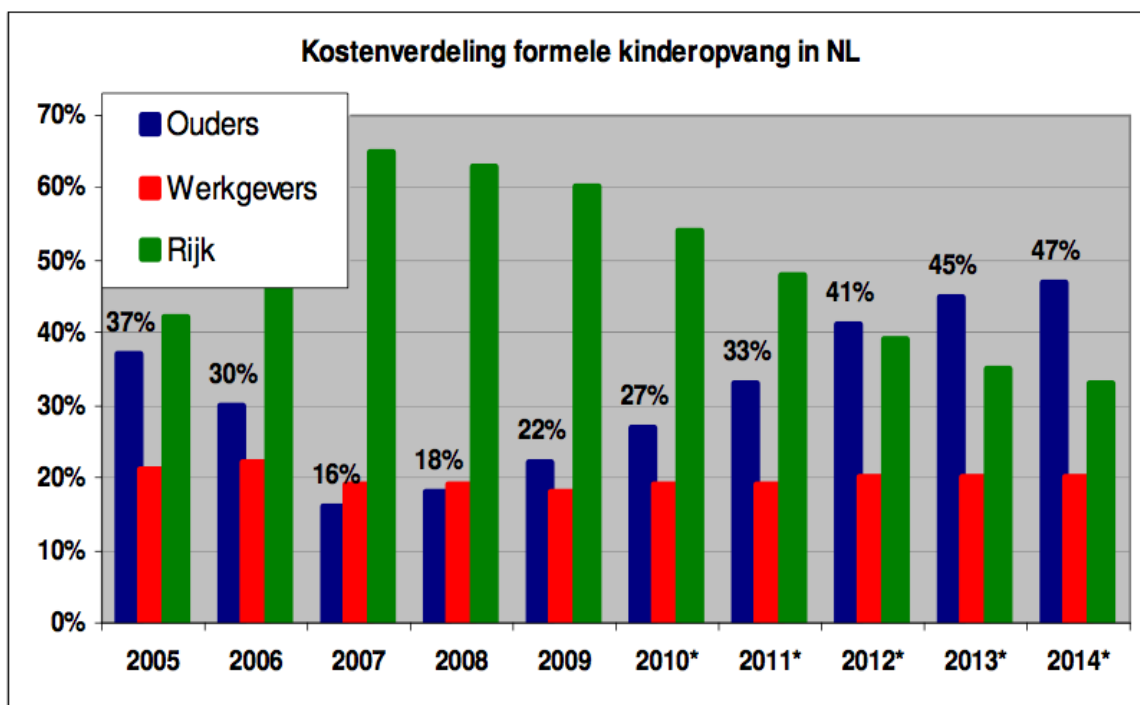


Appendix G: Connection between education and the labour market

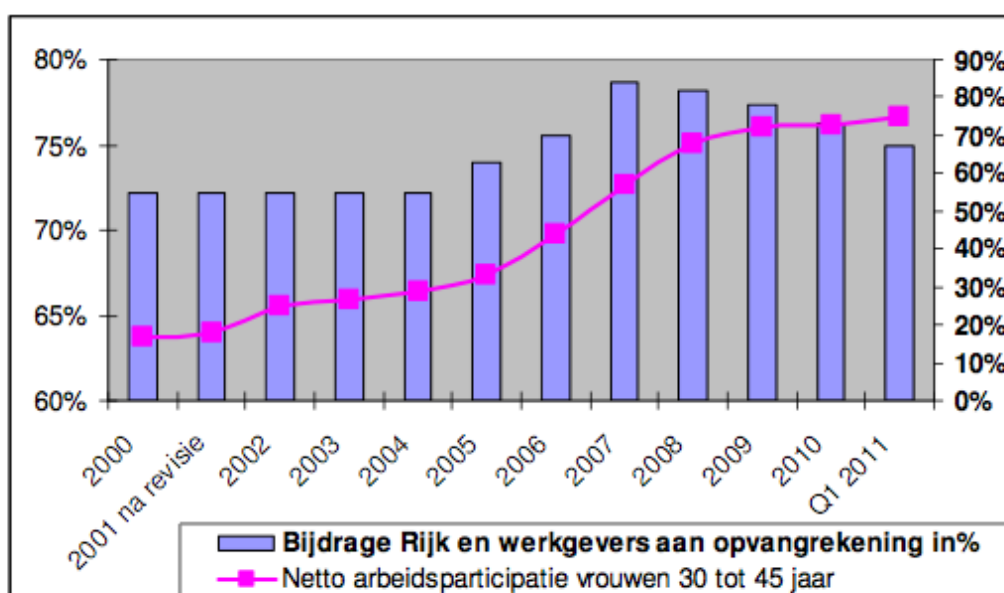


Source: http://www.trendsinebeeld.minocw.nl/grafieken/3_1_2_39.php

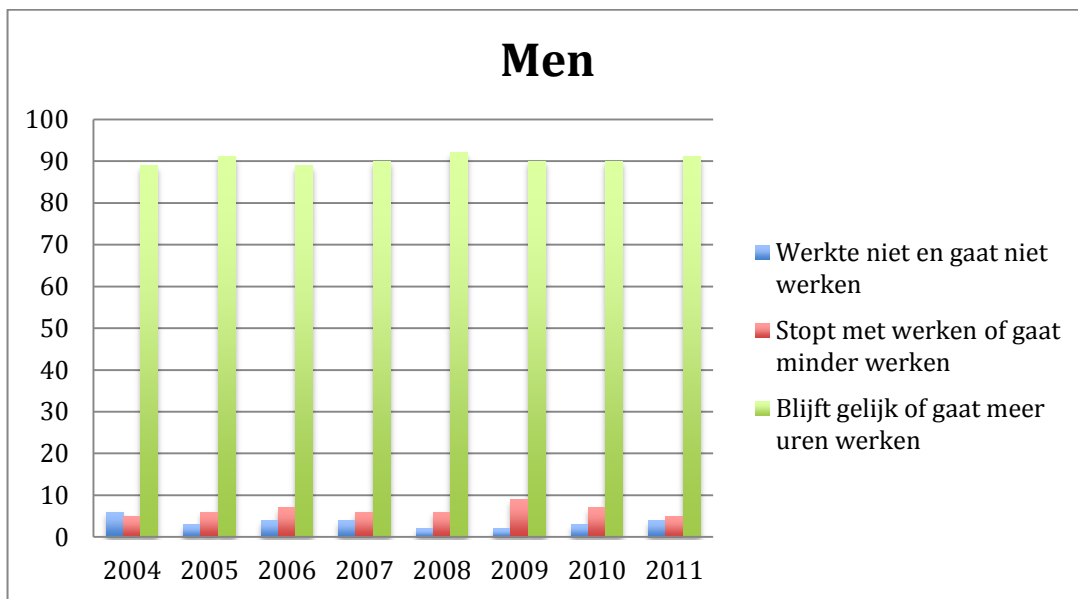
Appendix H: Childcare and labour participation of women



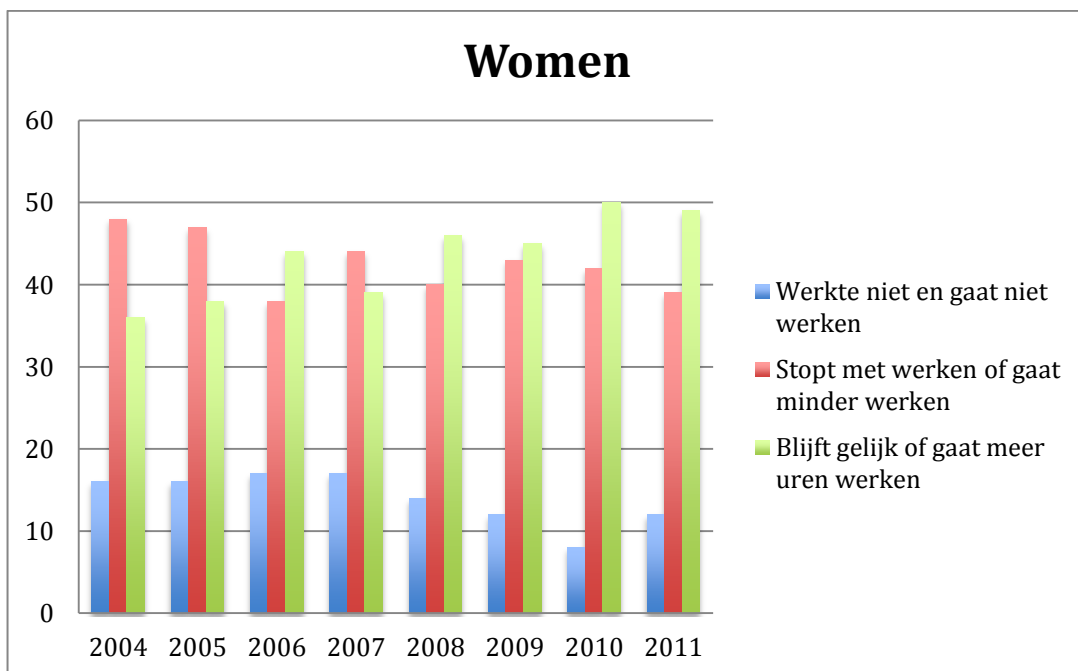
Source: Kritisch over Kinderopvang, feiten en fictie, Buitenhek Management & Consult, Utrecht, 10 juni 2011



Bron CBS, OCW, SZW, bijdrage Rijk en werkgevers 2000-2004 gebaseerd op schattingen



Source: www.cbs.nl



Source: www.cbs.nl