

ABILITY TO APPLY FLEXICURITY IN THE CROATIAN LABOR MARKET

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ABSTRACT

PURPOSE. *For the purpose of enforcing flexicurity, deregulation of national labor standards is necessary. The purpose of the paper is to analyze the basic components of flexicurity as well as its secondary components (demographic, social and industrial relations) for a better understanding of the representation of basic flexicurity components in the Republic of Croatia compared to the selected EU states.*

METHODOLOGY. *The paper is illustrated in order to provide a methodology that allows for how many components of flexicurity are represented in the Croatian labor market in relation to selected European countries which grouped together by in groups according to common characteristics with respect to flexicurity.*

RESULTS. *The research results show an unfavorable position of the Republic of Croatia in terms of flexicurity components compared to other researched countries. We have to point out that certain components show a minimal advancement. Therefore, Croatia would profit from a stronger social dialogue in order to balance the stated components. Croatia could implement flexicurity only under the condition of developing new solidary interest relations that will reflect not only the changed needs of the workers and employers as collective partners but also that of the unemployed.*

CONTRIBUTION. *The paper deals with issues that are discussed not only at national level, but also on EU level. The scientific contribution of the work derives from the extensive empirical (qualitative and quantitative) research. The paper contains a detailed analysis, appropriate scientific research methods and numerous current and secondary sources of foreign and domestic scientific literature. Work is important for the academic community, policy makers, experts, students of economics and management, as well as for the wider public interested in the labor market. It also provides important insight into further design and development of labor market policies in Croatia.*

LIMITATIONS. *Limitations in the research were for some countries (such as for Croatia becoming a member of the European Union in 2013) because there was no uniform data for all the years of research needed.*

1. INTRODUCTION

Flexicurity is an integrated strategy for the strengthening of flexibility and security on the labor market. It tries to balance the employers' needs for flexible workforce with the workers' need for security - assurance they will not face long periods of unemployment. On these grounds, flexicurity became an official EU policy in the field of employment in 2007.

Flexicurity is thus the response to the globalization and restructuring of companies, an optimal solution enabling flexible forms of work on one hand and the security of employment on the other.

The implementation of flexicurity requires a deregulation of national labor law standards.

In order to make the deregulation of labor law standards easier, the European Commission passed a series of accompanying documents: Better Regulation Strategy (BR), Commission White Paper on European Governance (2001), the Commission's Communication on general principles and minimum standards for consultation of interested parties (2002), the Interinstitutional agreement on better law making (2003), the Commission Strategy for Growth and Jobs (2005) and Impact Assessment Guidelines (revised in 2009) (European Commission, 2014).

With flexicurity as a new option in employment policy, it is necessary to create a new balance between flexibility and security on the labor market, which would lead to changes in the area of labor market deregulation. The application of flexicurity needs to encompass all workers, regardless of the kind of their employment (permanent jobs and atypical contracts). New activities and policy options that enable a greater flexibility and an improvement in the employment security for the most vulnerable population groups and changes in the attitudes of both workers and employers. A cooperation of all social actors is needed in order to have mutual trust and realize the integrated flexicurity strategy.

For that reason, the aim of this research is to establish the extent to which the components of flexicurity are represented on the Croatian labor market compared to the observed EU countries.

The purpose of the paper is to analyze the basic components of flexicurity as well as its secondary components (demographic, social and industrial relations) for a better understanding of the representation of basic flexicurity components in the Republic of Croatia compared to the selected EU states. The results of the research are based on Eurostat, OECD and ILO databases.

The research includes 15 countries with a different level of development and economic growth as well as a different organization of the labor market. In terms of territory, the research includes Mediterranean countries (Greece, Spain, Italy and France), central European countries (Germany, Poland, the Czech Republic, Slovakia, Hungary, Slovenia and Croatia), Anglo-Saxon countries (Ireland and the UK) and Scandinavian countries (Denmark and Sweden).

Reasons for inclusion in the research of these 15 countries are that they can be grouped into four groups each of which has common characteristics. Thus, the characteristics of Nordic countries in achieving the highest level of flexicurity in the European Union, the Central European countries except Germany (which have a higher demand for labor supply) are former Transitional from the Socialist system and are cautious of flexicurity, Anglo-Saxon promotes primarily flexibility, while the characteristic of Mediterranean countries is low level of flexibility and security.

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2. PAST RESEARCH

According to Wilthagen and Tros (2004) the first concept of flexicurity is credited to the Dutch professor H. Adriaansens who started using the term in his speeches and interviews in 1995.

The term flexicurity includes high social security of workers and the activities directed to the improvement of skills and activation of the unemployed.

In the past decade, flexicurity imposed itself as the basic model for the reform of social and economic policies, assuming a growth of competitiveness of the European market. The reason for security interconnecting with flexibility is in the European Commission that emphasized and adopted this policy. The set balance between flexibility and security is defined in the European employment strategy. The position of the EU Council is that security represents a significant element of impact on the competitiveness of companies in ways of improving quality and productivity, as well as easing the adjustment of employees and workers to economic change. On the basis of these assumptions the Council of Europe recommended member states to introduce flexicurity in order to increase the possibilities of employment. A large number of papers have appeared on flexicurity (and flexibility) and a number of researches have been done since. "The majority of research focuses on single elements of flexicurity (like Bernal-Verdugo, Furceri and Guillaume, 2012; Dosi et al., 2017; Kahn, 2010; Cournède, Denk and Garda, 2016; Algan and Cahuc, 2006), while some deal with the very process of measurement of flexicurity (Tros, 2012 and Chung, 2012) identifying the most relevant indicators according to single components" (Ostrovidov Jakšić, A., 2017: 44). In order to identify different security policies, Wilthagen and Tros (2004) constructed a matrix including all dimensions of flexibility and security, resulting in 16 different combinations that should result in a win-win situation on the labor market.

The combination of labor market flexibility and economic security in the old age in Denmark is very different from other European countries, from the standpoint of both the development of the system and its outcomes. On one hand, flexibility on the Danish labor market is not connected to the creation of atypical workplaces. The unions had

fought for flexibility for over 50 years before the state ensured workers with workplaces based on standard conditions relative to wages, working hours and social rights.

The flexible aspects of the Danish labor market as well as the extension of the second pillar pension system for the coverage of private sector employees, are the result of negotiations between parties on the labor market.

Liberalization, "flexibilization" and market orientation are recommended according to the rules of the international organization as the OECD in order to achieve solid economic results.

In the last two decades flexicurity has become one of the most important terms in the European discussion on the future of workers on the labor market.

Theoreticians Madsen (2006) and Bredgaard et al (2006/2007) pointed out that Denmark attracted significant international attention in the decade preceding the economic crisis. The reason was a very low unemployment rate and the highest employment rate in the European union and the overall positive macroeconomic effect. In terms of "flexicurity", the Danish labor market model included a highly functional relationship between a low level of employment security, labor market security, high level of unemployment insurance and active labor market policies. In a wider European flexicurity discourse, Denmark was soon seen as an inspiration for the European social model that should guide member states in the development of their employment strategies (European Commission, 2006). After the peak of the positive economic cycle, until Spring 2008, Denmark had the lowest unemployment rate of 3,1%. After that came the economic crisis that significantly affected EU member states. At the beginning of 2011 Denmark had an unemployment rate of 8,2% due to a trimestral decrease of the GDP by 8%. With a rate of 8,2% Denmark got close to the average among European countries. This gave way to additional research on the capabilities of the Danish model.

Madsen (2013) pointed out that theoreticians (Andersen, 2012; Andersen and Svarer, 2012; Eichhorst et al., 2010; Leschke and Watt, 2010; OECD, 2010) discussed the ways and reasons for the crisis on the Danish market, connecting their research with the flexibility and security denoting the Danish model.

Among the researched issues was whether Danish politics reacted to the crisis and whether the crisis stress led to the decomposition of the basic pillars of the model or there were, after all, no obstacles to the implementation of the principle of flexicurity.

As for a direct intervention on the labor market, numerous measures were taken since the beginning of the crisis. In March 2009, a flexible possibility was introduced for the employers to decrease working hours in case of a temporary drop of demand for their products. A maximum duration of job sharing usually lasted for 13 weeks but employers could demand an extension by another 13 weeks.

Economists have not yet reached a consensus on the direction and size of the relation between employment policy and outcomes on the labor market, especially

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in regard to unemployment.

As for the effect of the employment policy on unemployment, Nickell et al. (2001) found that a passive employment policy affects the structural unemployment as a long-term phenomenon.

Accordingly, Scarpetta (1996) and Elmeskov et al. (1998) show that a high legal protection of workers increases structural unemployment, especially for the young and the long-term unemployed.

Schivardi and Torrini (2008) found that such a strict employment policy in the Republic of Croatia decreased the incentive for the increase of employment in Italian companies.

In the book *Reforming severance pay* (2012), the authors Holzmann, R., Vodopivec, M., Boeri and Jimeno (2005) and Kugler and Pica (2008) pointed out the negative effect of a rigid employment policy on the business success of Italian companies. Therefore, the regulation regarding the costs of layoffs could diminish their readiness to employ (Stubelj, 2010).

Heckman et al. (1999) and Kluge and Schmidt (2002) have come to similar conclusions.

In 2009, Hujer et al. have analyzed the German market and concluded that labor market programs did not have any positive impacts on coming out of unemployment in Western Germany. Still, one has to point out that this was the year directly connected to the 2008 crisis.

Boeri T. and Jan van Ours (2008) point out in their research that Europe should adjust its labor market institutions because it is responsible for an increasingly high and longer unemployment. Although Germany reached a great recession in 2003 with a strong legal protection of employment, it shortened working hours and thus avoided layoffs of workers. In that way, Germany got through a strong recession with a minimal loss of workplaces.

Calmfors L., Forsslund A. and Hemström M. (2001) research the influence of an active employment policy on unemployment and point out that such measures should be directed towards employment and keeping people facing long-term unemployment while they recommend direct employment for the young, without subventions. They also plead a non-renovation of unemployment allowance for individuals, for the period of unemployment.

3. BASIC COMPONENTS OF FLEXICURITY

When applying the flexicurity model it is necessary to bear in mind the relation of interests of employers and employees. The employer should adjust to the contemporary demands of the market, which requires an adjustment of the number of employees to the amount of work while, on the other hand, the workers demand a secure employment and continuous income from their work.

This opposed system tells us that the employers tend toward deregulation of the labor market while the workers wish to adjust the work conditions to their personal life.

Since the labor markets of the EU member states are very heterogeneous it is almost impossible to implement a unique flexicurity model. With this in mind, the European Commission, in cooperation with national governments, social partners and academics, determined the common principles of flexicurity. It also researched how the countries can implement them through the following four components:

- Flexible and reliable contracts
- Comprehensive strategies of lifelong learning
- Active labor market policies
- Modern social security systems (European Commission, 2007).

These four components shall be addressed theoretically in this part of the paper followed by numerical values to corroborate the theory.

Flexible and reliable contracts are the first component of flexicurity. They aim at securing employment and income in both an ongoing workplace and in case of a layoff, as well as connecting the worker to the workplace and the employer by way of suitable legislation. Job security is usually expressed with the OECD Indicator of Employment Protection Legislation (EPL). Since employment can be permanent and temporary, the 2013 EPL index is shown for both kinds of employment. However, we have to say that employment security comes before workplace security. Regardless of this component, there is need for a certain level of legal protection in order to protect

of workers. The consequence of a high level of regulation is a lack of elasticity and rigidity of labor because it prevents economic subjects from adapting to the market, especially so in times of economic shocks.

The second component is about lifelong learning. The term of lifelong learning means all the activities connected to learning that go on throughout the life of an individual. The main goal of the whole process is an advancement of knowledge, skills and realization of individual goals, whether professional or personal. The importance of lifelong learning is especially felt during an economic crisis through an increased offer of labor and a decreased demand for labor. Through lifelong learning an individual increases his competitiveness and employability and is included in all aspects of social life. Lifelong learning includes learning within formal and informal education and informal learning. Since the environment is changing very fast in such circumstances, lifelong learning becomes necessary through promotions and the improvement of existing skills and knowledge. (EduCentar, 2014). Workers would find it easier to be employed and adapt to the new concept of labor market with a resulting increased productivity.

The third component of flexicurity is an active labor market policy. The primary aim of active employment measures is to contribute to a functioning labor market. These measures are support for: unemployed people looking for work, people with

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disabilities or a diminished capability to work that wish to work, find a job, and employers looking for labor or wishing to keep employees. There is a wide range of active employment measures encompassing all categories of unemployed people.

Measures of active labor market policies are implemented by centers - public employment offices. They can offer education, orientation and skill development to the unemployed. These can be short activities of orientation and clarification, regular education and training (certified informal education institutions, special projects and periods of training). Jobs that are subject to subventions with public or private employers can be used to requalify professional and social competences of the unemployed. Pay subventions (in private and public sector) given to employers for the employment of the unemployed depend on the duration of the unemployment. The duration of the subvention depends on the category the unemployed person belongs to.

Practical work training in public and private companies can be used to retrain the person looking for work and thus improve his qualifications. The person looking for work continues to receive the benefit for insurance in case he is unemployed for the duration of the stage aiming at developing his skills (Danish Agency for Labor Market and Recruitment, 2018).

The fourth component is relative to social security rights. Flexibility and security are multidimensional concepts appearing in various forms.

Per Kongshøj Madsen starts from Atkinson's model of flexible company. That model enables us to tell four different kinds of flexibility: numerical flexibility, working hours flexibility, functional flexibility and wages flexibility (Atkinson, 1984).

Atkinson and Toss (2004) point out four forms of security: labor security, job security, income security and combined security.

Job security means the security of staying in the same job through the rejection of employment and a mandate with the same employer.

Labor security means the same security but not necessarily with the same employer. What is key in employment are the general trends in the demand for labor, active labor market policy, policies of education and training.

The security of income is relative to the insurance of income in case of unemployment, illness or accidents and is expressed through systems of public transfers.

Combined security represents the possibility to combine professional and private life, for example through pension programs, maternity leaves, volunteering, etc.

4. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RESEARCH ON THE REPRESENTATION OF THE COMPONENTS OF FLEXICURITY IN THE REPUBLIC OF CROATIA AND OTHER SELECTED EU MEMBER STATES

In this chapter, numerical indicators are used to express components of flexicurity in 15 selected EU countries, among which Croatia. The obtained results wish to establish the position of Croatia among the analyzed countries in the area of rep-

resentation of flexicurity components. Besides the basic components of flexicurity it is necessary to explain the situation on the labor market through an analysis of demographic variables reflecting the situation on the labor market by way of the employment and unemployment rates. We also need to clarify how much the changes in labor legislation affected changes in flexibility of working hours and the form of employment as well as the situation in the area of industrial relations.

4.1. Flexible and reliable contracted labor

In order to diminish the rigidity of the labor market and make it more flexible, there should be reliable and flexible contracted labor, which requires a modernization of labor legislation, acceptable collective contracts as well as an elastic organization of work. These elements are basic factors of labor market flexibility.

Regardless of labor market and business flexibility, there is need for a suitable - moderate level of deregulation directed towards the legal protection of workers.

A too strong legal protection prevents employers from terminating work contracts even when terminations are justified.

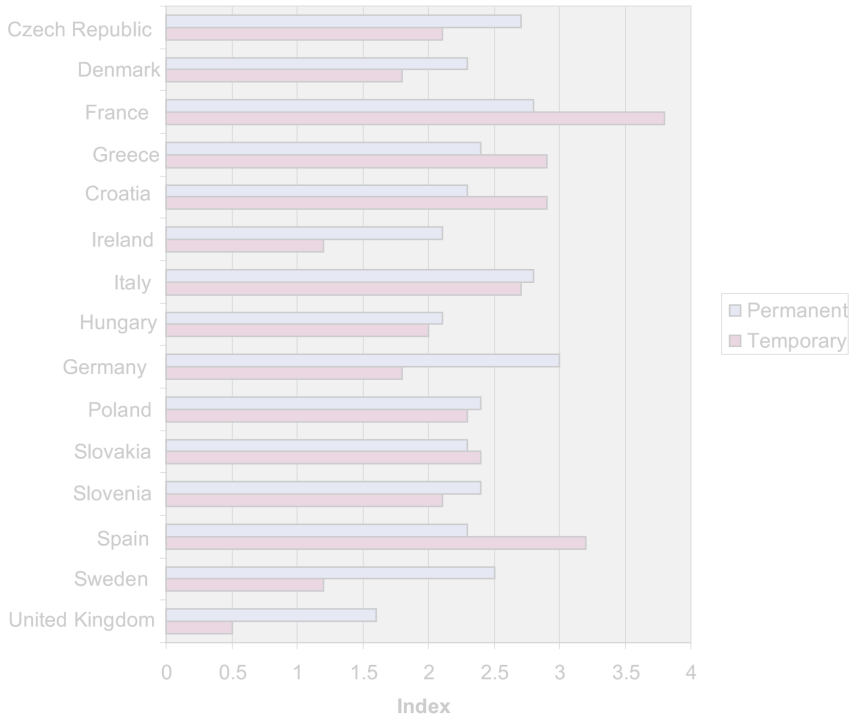
As already stated, legal protection is measured with employment protection legislation index representing the total strictness of labor regulation. The value of the index is from 0-5, where zero indicates a very labile regulation and five a very strict labor regulation. The overall strictness of regulation of collective layoffs represents the sum of expenses for individual layoffs and all additional costs of collective layoffs.

Measures are established by observing the labor legislation, collective contracts and judicial practice on grounds of contribution of officers from member states of the EU (CJ) and the advice of professionals in individual countries (EOD, 2015). Matković and Biondić (2003) point out that the level of protection in employment requires a legal framework regulating the procedures and compensations connected to the termination of the work contracts as well as the possibility of temporary employment.

The index of legal protection of workers with permanent and temporary employment for 15 EU member states is shown in Figure 1.

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Figure 1.: Employment protection legislation index - EPL (Permanent and temporary employees)



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Source: created by the author, according to: <https://www.compareyourcountry.org/employment-protection-legislation/en/170/croatia>

Notes: *EPL is calculated for the largest number of observed countries in 2013. Croatia is not included in the list. **Slovenia and the United Kingdom 2014.

The indexes of protection legislation are based on the provisions of the Labor Act. Matković and Biondić (2003) estimated it to be 2.76 for Croatia. On grounds of the modifications and amendments to the Labor Act (2009), the Croatian National Bank estimated the index of protection legislation to be 2.61 in 2013, while the OECD average for that year was 2.43. After the accession to the European Union, Croatia passed a new Labor Act in 2014 and the protection legislation index was published on the pages of the OECD. After that Act, the protection legislation index published in 2015 on the official pages of the OECD for permanent employees was 2.3 while it was higher for temporary employees, 2.9. Since it was already stated that the index goes from 0-5, it is evident that temporary employees have a higher protection legislation because the index is 2.9.

An analysis of the protection legislation index in the observed EU member states shows that in 2013 Germany had the highest index for permanent employees, namely 3. Among the observed states the lowest index of 1.6 was that of the United Kingdom

(in sources for the year 2014). The protection legislation index for temporary employees was highest in France, 3.8 in 2013, and lowest in the United Kingdom, 0.5 in 2014. When comparing all the observed countries with Croatia, the following countries have a higher protection legislation index for permanent employees: Germany 3, France and Italy 2.8, the Czech Republic 2.7, Sweden, 2.5, Greece, Poland and Slovenia 2.4. Some countries have the same index as Croatia: Denmark, Slovakia and Spain 2.3. A lower index is present in: Ireland, Hungary 2.1 and the United Kingdom 1.6.

On grounds of this analysis we can conclude that out of 15 observed countries, 8 have a higher protection legislation index for permanent employees than Croatia, while 11 countries have a lower index for temporary employees than Croatia.

It can also be observed that Croatia has the same protection legislation index for permanent employees as Denmark, 2.3, while the protection legislation index for temporary employees is 1.1 higher in Croatia than in Denmark (2.9: 1.8).

Regardless of the index in Croatia which is 50% below its value (0-5), the employers point out that it creates obstacles in terminating contracts, especially in specific circumstances. (Afrić - Rakitovac, K., Bušelić, M., 2018.)

Referring to the above, Biondić et. al (2002) are of the opinion that the legal protection of employment is relative to the regulations limiting the possibilities for employers to adapt the level of employment in their companies to their needs.

The fact is that in Croatia the cancellation procedure is complex and requires expert knowledge in the implementation of what small and medium-sized companies, most of them in Croatia, do not have. Simplification of procedures that would increase the dynamics and modernity of business processes would lead Croatian employers to a more favorable position.

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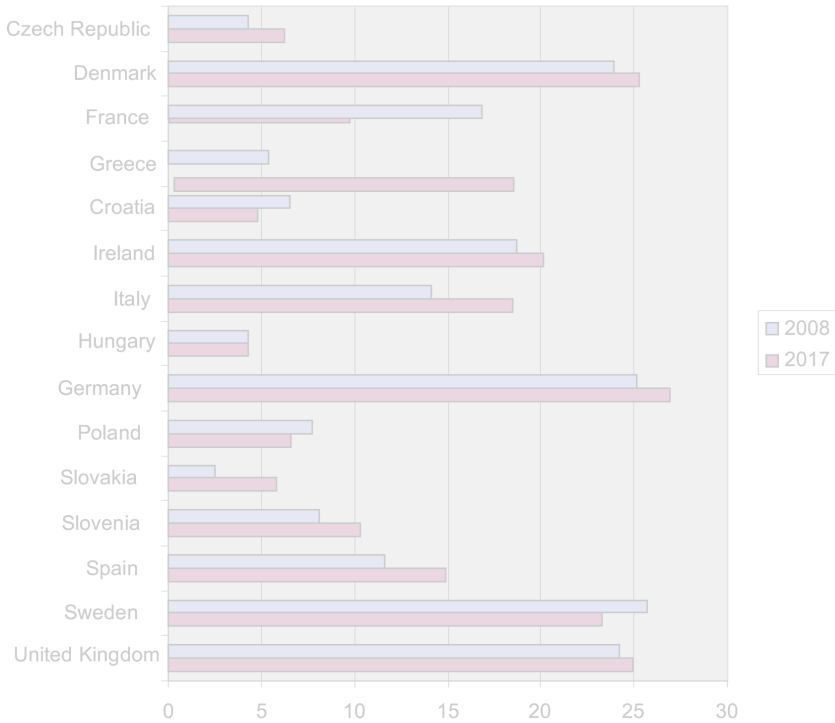
The following part of the research looks into and presents flexible forms of work: part-time work, work from home and temporary agency work.

4.2.1. Part-time work

Part-time work is one of the traditional kinds of non-standard employment. This kind of work gained importance towards the end of the 20th century. Satisfaction with this kind of work depends on whether it is a choice or a necessity. In cases when part-time jobs are a choice, they often serve to balance business and family life. As opposed to contract workers, part-time workers (whose workload differs according to the company) have all the rights arising from employment accordingly to the number of hours and the duration of employment (pension, social security, paid days off, sick leave), (Bušelić, M. 2017: 124).

Part-time work shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2.: Part-time work in 2008 and 2017 (in %)



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Source: Creation of the author, according to: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>. The data on weekly working hours are established through the Employment Questionnaire (Eurostat data). They are based on the total of hours spent working and exclude the time spent commuting to and from work, as well as the lunch break. For almost all observed countries there are about 40 hours a week. The difference between full-time and part-time is established based on the spontaneous responses of the participants.

The majority of western European countries in 2008 and 2017 have a high percentage of part-time workers, the highest being in Sweden 25.7%/23.3%, Germany 25.1%/26.9%, United Kingdom 24.2%/24.9%, Denmark 23.9%/25.3% and Ireland 18.7%/20.1%. Like the majority of the ex-socialist countries, Croatia also has a low share of part-time workers in the observed years (Croatia 6.5%/4.8%, Greece 5.4%/9.7%, the Czech Republic 4.3%/6.2%, Hungary 4.3%/4.3% and Slovakia 2.5%/5.8%).

Despite an improvement in the Croatian legislation there are still provisions of the labor legislation that discourage employers from employing part-time workers. It has to be pointed out that there is also a very low interest of workers for this kind of work.

An analysis of these information leads us to conclude that western European countries have a high rate of part-time employment which ensures a high flexibility of the labor market compared to post-transition countries where there is no tradition of part-time employment.

4.2.2. Work from home

Croatia not only has a relatively low rate of part-time employment, but it also has a low rate of people working from home. In the observed years it was the lowest in the European Union (2008 - 0.9% and 2017 - 1.4%). Of all the ex-socialist and post-transition countries, Slovenia has the highest rate of those working from home (2008 - 4.8% and 2017 - 7.2%). A comparative analysis of work from home for the observed countries shows that it is highest in Denmark (2008 - 10.0% and 2017 - 8.6%) and France (2008 - 9.8% and 2017 - 6.8%) (Eurostat, 2018.). These facts point to a greater flexibility of labor in the observed countries compared to Croatia although Croatia has the necessary legislation for these forms of work.

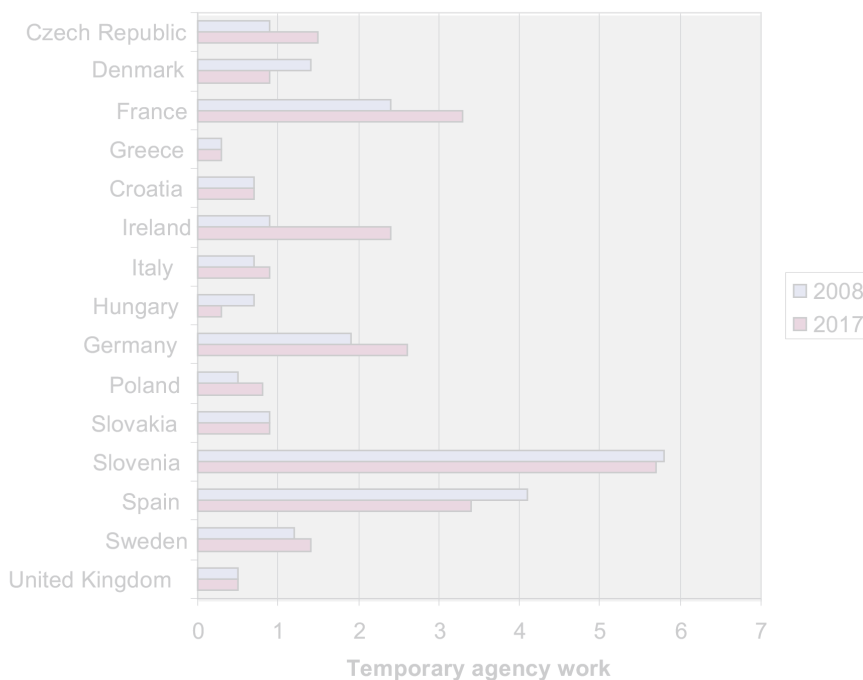
4.2.3. Temporary agency work

Agencies for temporary employment have appeared in response to the demands of the labor market and the flexibilization of labor rights and relations. The first countries to introduce agency work in Europe were the Netherlands (1965) and the United Kingdom (1970) (Laleta S., Brižanović A., 2015). Agencies saw an expansion in the very beginning of the crisis in 2007, when their considerable capability to adapt their activity to the new situation of the labor market was recognized. The work of these agencies is regulated with laws, bylaws, collective agreements and service codes. In the Republic of Croatia, the 2014 Labor Act regulates in detail the activity of agencies for temporary employment. Figure 3 shows a comparison of temporary agency work among the observed countries for the period of 2008 and 2017.

According to the share of workers employed by agencies for temporary employment, Croatia kept the same share in 2017 compared to 2008 (0.7%), while the average in the EU was 1.7% for 2017. An above average share can be seen in Slovenia (5.7%), Spain (3.4%), France (3.3%), Germany (2.6%) and Ireland 2.4%).

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Figure 3.: Temporary agency work (%)



Source: Eurostat (2019), further, according to: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LMPEXP>

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4. Situation on the labor market

The analysis of the situation on the labor market includes the rate of activity, the rate of employment and the unemployment rate. These variables are a quality indicator of the situation on the labor market owing to the activity rate which shows the connection between employment and unemployment rates and the issue of inactive population. Active population are individuals between the ages of 15 and 64 (according to the ILO definition). National legislations most often accept the lower limit while the upper limit is established depending on the rate of activity or inactivity of the population. All the employed and the unemployed are considered active population.

4.3.1. Activity rate

Active population is the source of the offer of labor and the main determinant of the labor potential of a society. The active population is in the group of those capable of work, however, mere capability is not enough, there is need for active willingness

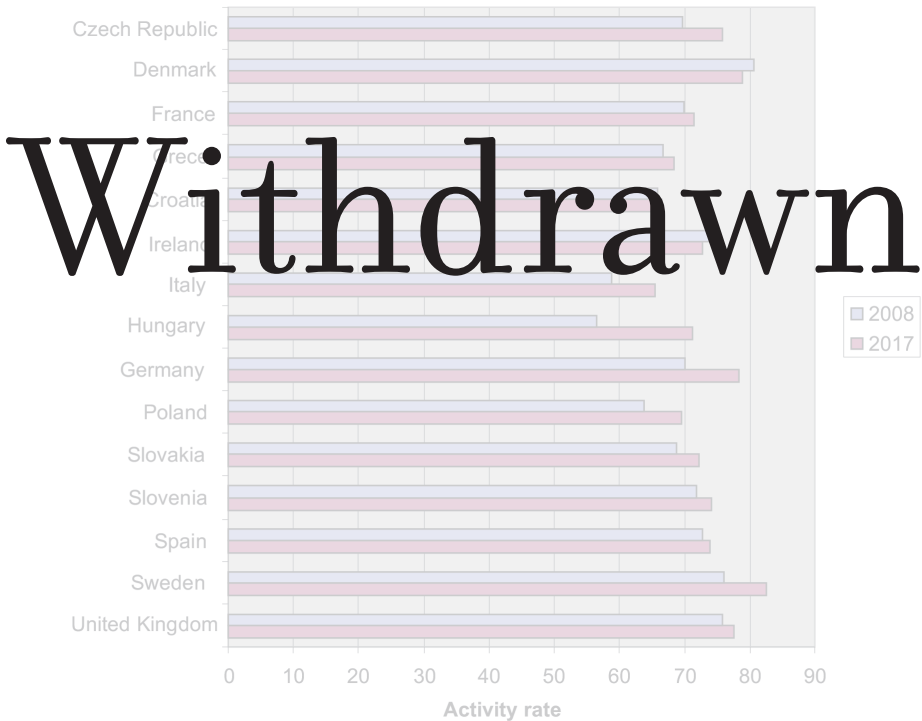
of the individual to look for and accept a job fitting to his capabilities (according to Wertheimer - Baletić, A., 1999).

In an analysis of the average duration of a working career in terms of the active part for the observed countries, the Eurostat data show high shares in Sweden (2017 - 41.7 years), Denmark (2017 - 39.6 years), the United Kingdom (2017 - 38.9 years), Germany (2017 - 38.4 years), Ireland (2017 - 36.7 years), Slovenia (2017 - 35.6 years), France (2017 - 35.2 years) and Spain (2017 - 35.1 years) (Eurostat, 2018). Based on the years of work in EU member states, the average in 2017 was 35.9 years. This number is 0.3 higher than the one in 2016 and 3.0 higher than in 2000. We can conclude that the ageing of the population leads to the need for a growth in the rate of activity and consequently to an extension of the working life.

The lowest rates of the average working life were found in Italy (2017 - 31.6 years), Croatia (2017 - 32.5 years) and Greece (2017 - 32.7 years) (Eurostat).

These rates reflect on the rates of activity so that it is important to note for Croatia that a large part of the active population has passed on to the inactive population (early retirement). Figure 4. shows the activity rate from the age of 15 to 64.

Figure 4.: Rate of active population (15 - 64 years)



Source: Creation of the author, according to: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>

Croatia has one of the lowest activity rates in the age 15 - 64 (66.5). This activity rate is the result of the employment and unemployment rates when comparing the observed countries. The activity rate is a changeable variable because it changes depending on the economic, demographic and social factors. One of the reasons for Croatia was the trend of the economic activity which was negative in the period 2009 - 2015 (negative GDP rate). Demographic factors are also important for Croatia because birthrate has been very low from 1990 until today. With this negative trend there is also emigration relative to younger capable population. This phenomenon is certainly conditioned by the economic growth rate and thus with a lower possibility of employment. For that reason, Croatian labor market today has a low offer of a large number of occupations.

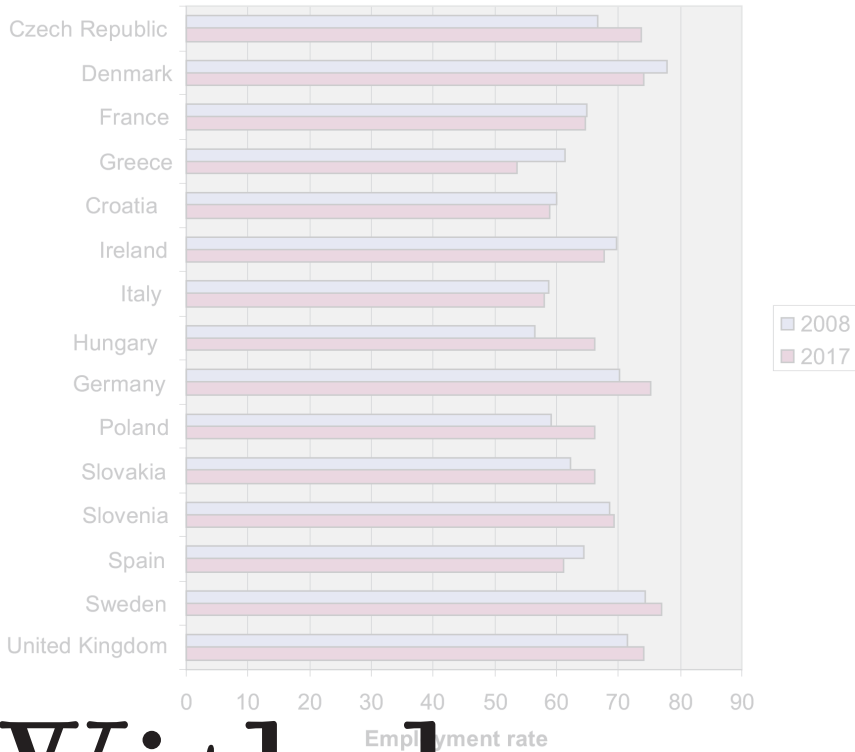
It would be good if we could increase economic activity in order to employ young and highly educated people and change individual education programmes so that there is demand for lifelong learning with the aim of employing people in an unfavorable position on the labor market.

4.3.2. Employment rate

The employed account for the part of the active population who, according to the official statistics, have an employer, whether temporary or permanent and regardless of the working hours and the property of the legal person. Here is the definition of the employed according to the Employment Questionnaire conducted by the Croatian Statistical Service in keeping with the international definition (ILO) with the aim of harmonizing the indicators published by Eurostat. Therefore, the image shows the indicators following the state definition because they were taken over from Eurostat. The definition states: "An employed person is a person who during the reference week performed work for pay, profit or family gain. These are all employees, self-employed people and family members helping in the business subject owned by a family member (company, trade, freelance occupation, farms) or in some other form of family processing activity or people working for pay per contract, immediate pay in money or things. The Questionnaire, therefore, includes all people who during the reference week performed work, even if just for one hour, regardless of their formal status and regardless of the modality of payment for work. Therefore, the employed in the Employment Questionnaire may be a pensioner, a student or a housewife". (Employment Questionnaire, NO.: 9.2.7., 2018).

Figure 5. shows the number of the employed in 15 European states according to the Employment Questionnaire.

Figure 5.: Employment rate



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Source: Creation of the author, according to <http://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/mshov.do?code=sdg-erga&lang=en>

The figure shows that countries with a high employment rate in 2008 kept a high position in 2017 as well (Sweden 76.9%, Germany 75.3%, Denmark 74.2%, United Kingdom 74.1% and the Czech Republic 73.6%). On the other hand, countries with a lower rate in 2008, keep it in 2017 (Greece 53.5%, Italy 58.0% and Croatia 58.9%). Countries of the ex-socialist block have a better employment rate compared to Croatia, Slovenia 69.3%, Hungary and Slovakia 66.2% while the Czech Republic was already listed among the countries with the highest rate.

All these countries had a lower unemployment rate than Croatia and thus a higher activity rate, which certainly reflects on the social representation of the society.

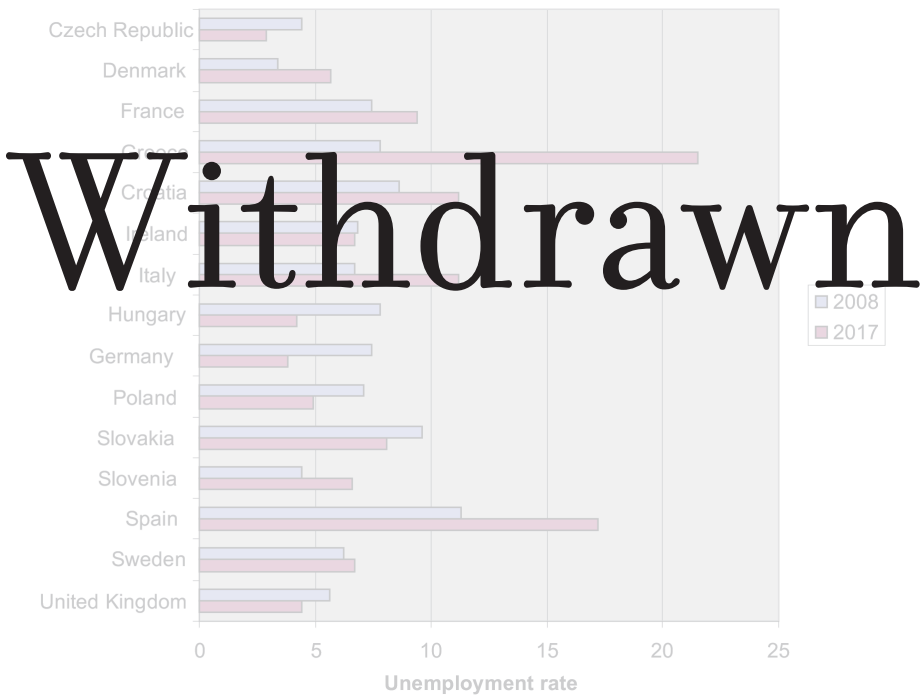
If we add the ratio of permanent and temporary workers, the highest share of temporary workers in 2017 in the overall employment was in Spain (26.8%), Poland (26.1%) and Croatia. The lowest share was that of the United Kingdom (5.7%). All the other analyzed countries had a rate below 20% ranging from 8.8% in Hungary to 17.7% (Eurostat, 2019).

4.3.3. Unemployment rate

Besides inflation, unemployment is considered to be the biggest problem today, not only economic but also social. Unemployment causes high fiscal expenses, diminishes the value of human capital, increases inequality in society and causes serious psycho-social consequences for the individual and the society as a whole. The unemployment rate shows the number of unemployed workers as part of the workforce.

This image is based on the information taken from the Employment Questionnaire. The questionnaire unemployment was defined by the International Labor Organization (ILO). According to this organization the standard international definition of unemployment covers all persons of working age who were: without work during the reference period, were available for work during the reference period, and seeking work, i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment). (ILO, https://www.ilo.org/ilostat-files/Documents/description_UR_EN.pdf)

Figure 6.: Unemployment rate



Source: Creation of the author, according to: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>

The analysis of the unemployment rate among the observed countries in 2008

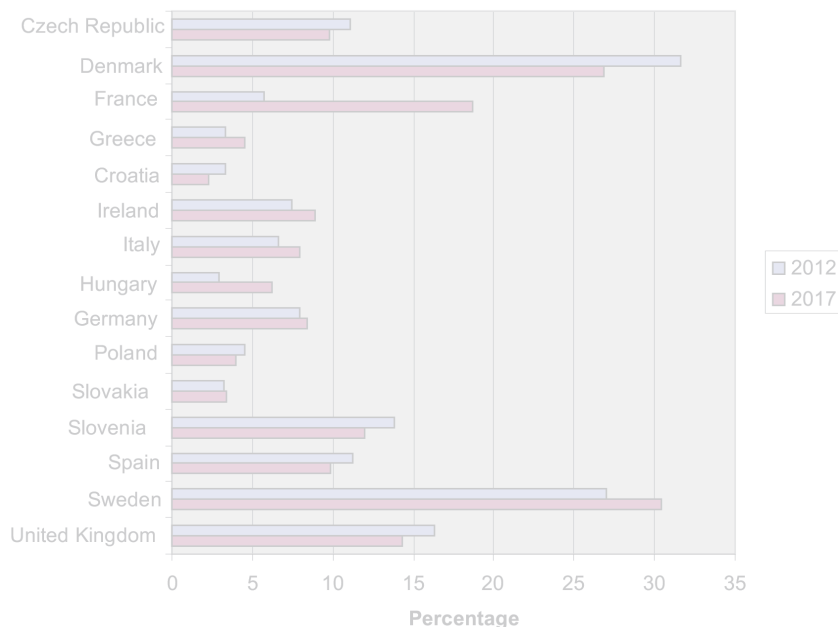
proves that the highest rate was in Spain (11.3%) which traditionally has a high unemployment rate, as confirmed in 2017 (17.2%). Greece had a relatively lower rate in 2008 (7.8%) but the economic crisis and the problems of imbalance in the Greek economy (GDP growth rate of 1.7% in 2017) brought Greece to the highest unemployment rate among all observed countries in 2017 (21.5%). Although the Republic of Croatia had an unemployment rate of 8.6% in 2008, due to a rate of 11.2% in 2017, it is on third place per negativity. The cause is a negative GDP growth rate in the period 2009 - 2015. The unemployment rates in France (7.4%: 9.4%) and Slovakia (9.6%: 8.1%) are also among the highest in both 2008 and 2017. The lowest rate among western European countries in both 2008 and 2017 was recorded in Denmark (3.4%: 5.7%), Germany (7.4%: 3.8%), the United Kingdom (5.6% : 4.4%), while Sweden maintains an almost constant rate (6.2% : 6.7%). As opposed to western European countries, the new post-transition central European countries who accessed the European Union in 2004 besides Croatia also have a low unemployment rate (except Slovakia): Czech Republic (4.4% : 2.9%), Slovenia (4.4.% : 6.6%), Poland (7.1% : 4.9%), Hungary (7.8% : 4.2%), Slovakia (9.6% : 8.1%). All these countries except Slovenia had a higher unemployment rate in 2008 than in 2017. The reason for this can be found in the growth of the GDP growth rate as well as in the mobility of part of the workforce to the labor markets of western European countries.

In order to keep unemployment at a low level there has to be economic growth as well as, according to Scutaria (2015), an organization of requalification courses, professional training and usage of new fields that can open up jobs.

4.4. Lifelong learning **Withdrawn**

Lifelong learning is today becoming an imperative. It increases the need to include growing numbers of active people in various educational programmes. (Bušelić, M., 2017: 145.) With that in mind the European Union brings educational programmes for various levels of education and they have become the largest program for lifelong learning with a budget of 6.9 billion euros. The programme aims at contributing to the development of the Union as an advanced knowledge society, sustainable economic development, higher employment rate and a higher level of social cohesion. (European Commission, 2017). The rate of participation in lifelong learning is shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7.: Participation rate in lifelong learning



Source: Creation of the author, according to: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/images/3/34/Adult_participation_in_learning%2C_2012_and_2017_%28%2B9%29_%28%25_of_the_population_aged_25_to_64_in_the_last_4_weeks%29.png

Figure 7. points to the conclusion that Denmark and Sweden have very high above average rates of participation in lifelong learning. In the observed period (2012 and 2017) the United Kingdom, France, Slovenia, Spain and the Czech Republic are in the range from 10 - 20% participation.

The Republic of Croatia has a very low rate of participation in lifelong learning in 2012 and 2017 when it was the lowest among the observed countries of the European Union (3.3%: 2.3%).

Having recognized the problem, in November 2015 the Republic of Croatia passed a Strategy for lifelong learning and professional orientation and career development in the Republic of Croatia 2016 - 2020.

The strategy is based on international and national contexts. The international context is based on directives of lifelong learning and professional learning of the OECD, the World Bank and the European Commission.

The national context is based on the tradition of professional orientation, the analysis of the existing education policy and the needs of the labor market.

In the Strategy for lifelong learning and professional orientation and career development, within the topical priority "employment and human resources devel-

opment”, Croatia has defined the key goals which are in keeping with the European employment strategy.

These goals are:

- Attract and keep a large number of people on the workplaces and modernize the social protection systems;
- Improve the adaptability of the workers and the companies and the flexibility of the labor market;
- Increase the investments in human resources through better education and skills;
- Improve the role of the civil society in the shaping and implementation of the policies.

(European Commission, 2015)

A study of the said goals leads us to the conclusion that they affect the employment sector, the social sector and the civil society sector.

Since the strategy was passed only in 2015 and harmonized with the international context, due to the increasingly fast technological development, it is expected that the rate of participation in lifelong learning in Croatia shall grow.

4.3.5. Active employment policy

The third component of flexicurity is an active employment policy with the purpose of integrating the unemployed and inactive persons in the world of work. Its task is to give the unemployed the possibility to acquire new knowledge and skills, the

possibility to find work and support for employment. The measures to fight unemployment came about during the great world economic crisis (1929 – 1933) in the form of public works. Active policies were few and far after the Second World War. Since then they appear through many different programmes, depending on the rate of unemployment and the structure of the unemployed as well as on the financial possibility of the state to finance or co-finance certain programmes.

We differentiate direct and indirect active measures against unemployment.

Direct measures include the following: opening of new jobs through public works, mediation and counselling in employment by employment services, aid in self-employment, training and requalification, co-financing of employment, encouragement of geographical, economical and professional activities, shortening working hours and diminishing benefits for the unemployed.

Indirect measures of an active employment policy are directed towards spreading small and medium enterprise, self-employment and lowering of taxes for employers for each newly employed person.

Generally speaking, the measures are directed towards groups of the unemployed who are most often in an unfavorable position on the labor market. These are young people, people with disabilities, the elderly, long-term unemployed, women and special groups.

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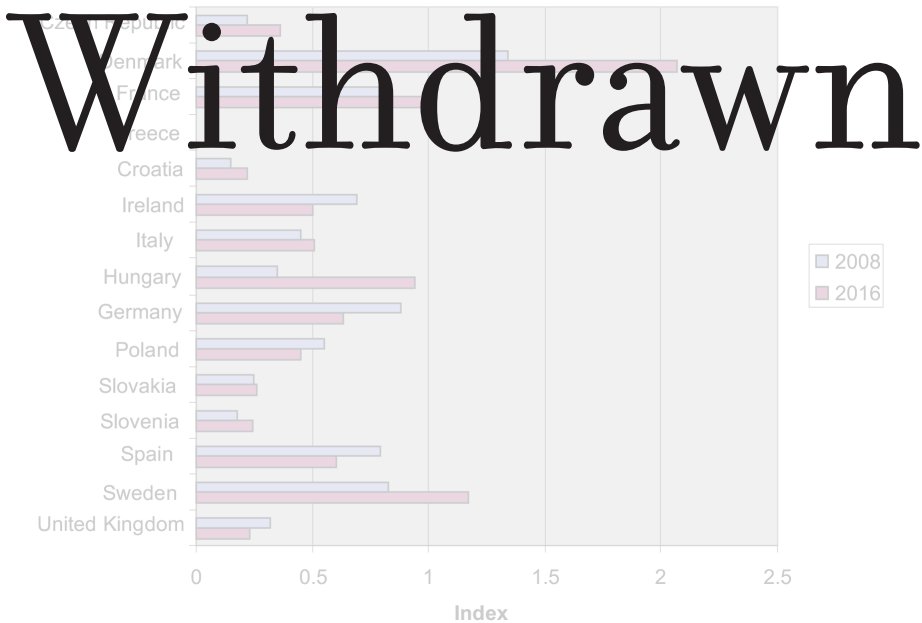
Escherudo, V. (2018) researched the effectiveness of active labor market policies. Her research was mainly about the employment of lowly qualified individuals. The research included the period from 1985 - 2010 and was carried out through the joint database for several countries and time series for 31 developed countries.

Her basic conclusion was that the measures directed towards endangered population groups were more effective than other active employment policy measures in the sense of diminishing unemployment and increasing employment. It is interesting to note that the positive aspects of those policies were especially useful for the lowly qualified workers. Bassanini, A. and Duval, R. (2006) analyzed the labor market for 21 countries of the OECD for the period from 1982 - 2003 and concluded that the observed countries had long-term benefits from an active employment policy. As a matter of fact, well planned active employment policy packages may diminish unemployment and balance efficacy and skills of the unemployed.

One of the main goals of the Croatian Government is to use active employment policies to support the transition from unemployment to the world of work with education, gaining work experience, through public works, subventions for the employment of certain groups of the unemployed or through encouraging self-employment (According to: <https://vlada.gov.hr/mjere-aktivne-politike-zaposljavanja/211>).

Figure 8. shows the consumption on active employment policy marking the amount of GDP on 1% of the unemployed finding employment.

Figure 8.: Consumption on active employment policy (%)



Notes: Greece - 2015 *, Italy - 2015 *, Spain - 2015 *, France - 2015 *, United Kingdom - 2011 **

Source: Creation of the author, according to: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LMPEXP>

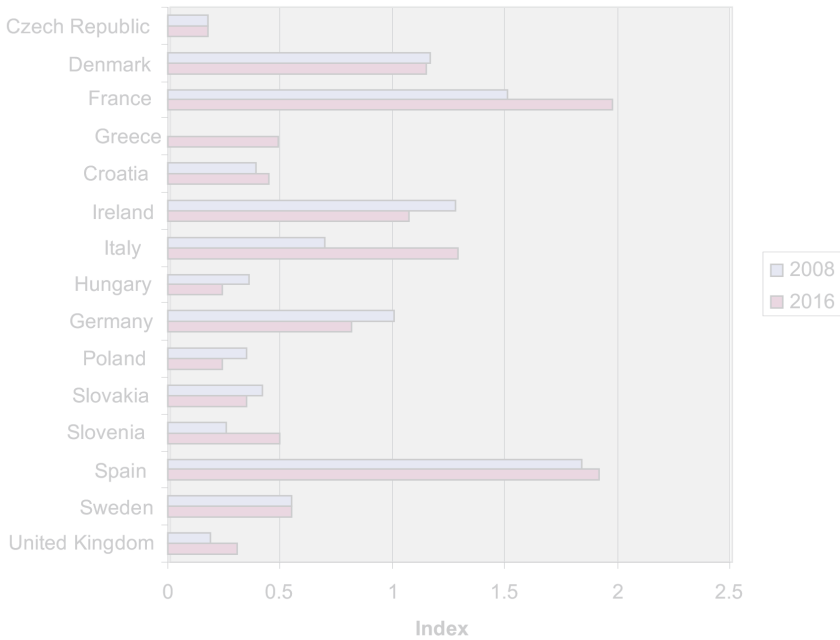
The largest consumption for programmes of active employment policy among the observed countries was recorded in Denmark for 2008 and 2016 (1.34: 2.07). This is not surprising since Denmark is actively implementing the flexicurity model and committing to spend on measures of active policy as a component of flexicurity. Other countries with high consumption on active policy (figure 8) are Sweden, Germany and France. Ex-socialist countries have a much lower (below average) expenditures on active employment policy, among which Croatia has one of the lowest. We have to point out that Croatia is a country that was last to become part of the European Union in 2013 and therefore had a shorter time to use the European Social Fund as a considerable support for an active employment policy. For those reasons, such programmes have multiplied after 2013 in Croatia but are still not so present and successful as they are in more developed European countries.

4.3.6. Passive employment policy

A passive labor market policy and unemployment benefits have a double effect. On one hand, they are useful for the protection of living standard of the unemployed while on the other hand they diminish the motivation to seek for work and might result in a deficit in certain professions on the labor market (due to a long stay in financed unemployment). For this reason, this policy is most often a negative determinant on the labor market. An additional negative consequence of a passive employment policy is black work, which also affects the extension of time one wants to use the measures of a passive employment policy. The system of benefits should be organized in such a way as to protect the unemployed but also motivate them to find work as soon as possible (Bušelić, L., 2017: 119.) In Croatia the material protection of the unemployed is ensured through the Act on Job-Finding Services and Rights During Unemployment.

Withdrawn

Figure 9.: Consumption on passive employment policy (%)



Notes: Greece - 2015 *, Italy - 2015 *, Spain - 2015 *, France - 2015 *, United Kingdom - 2011 **
 Source: Creation of the author, according to: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LMPEXP>

Withdrawn

The consumption on passive employment policy in terms of material protection of the unemployed depends on their number. Figure 9 shows that Spain and France have the highest consumption for passive policy, and it follows the trends of their unemployment rates, as is visible in Figure 6. As opposed to these countries Denmark has a below average unemployment rate but also significant expenditures for social policy in terms of unemployment benefits. Such a situation is a consequence of the implementation of flexicurity where people stay unemployed for a relatively short time.

4.3.7. Industrial relations

Industrial relations encompass the development of collective relations between workers and employers by way of their representatives. They include a tripartite dimension with the presence of public authorities on different levels.

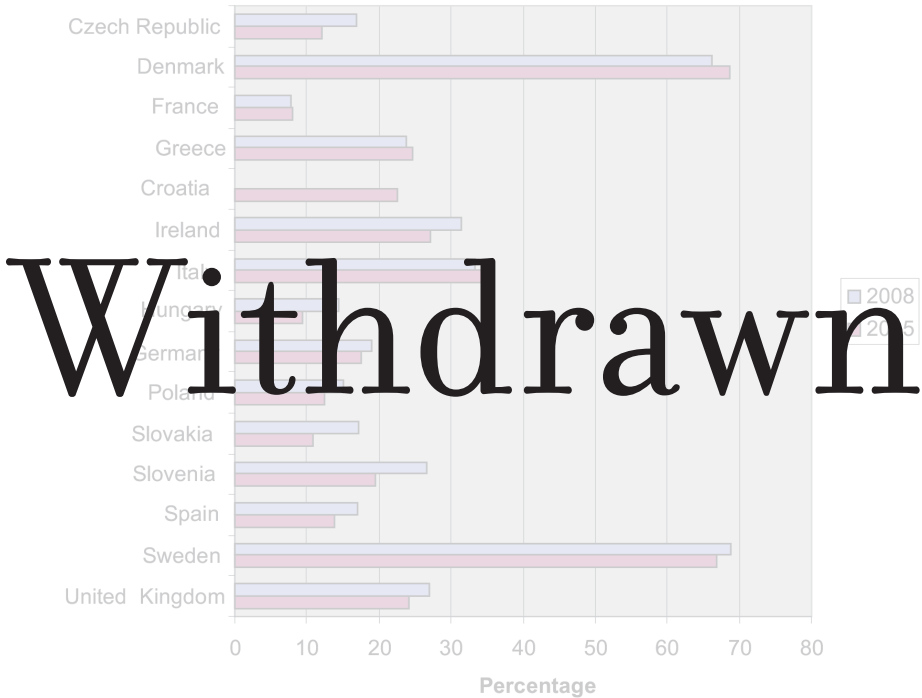
In 2015 there were 633 unions registered in Croatia and for the participation in the tripartite bodies on a national level there are four union associations of a higher level with 334.939 members, according to the last data from 2013. Furthermore, there are 58 associations of employers in the Republic of Croatia, one being repre-

sentative in tripartite bodies on the national level, the Croatian Association of Employers employing a total of 394.739 workers (Ministry of Labor and Pension System, taken from Ostrovidov Jakšić, A., 2017: 73).

The Croatian Labor Act regulates the rights and obligations of workers and employers including the issues relative to membership in a union. The law says that a worker must not be put in a less favorable position than other workers because he is member of a trade union.

It is especially forbidden to stipulate a labor contract with a worker on condition he does not enter a trade union, or on condition comes out of it. Along the same lines, a contract cannot be cancelled, or a worker put in a less favorable condition than others because he is member of a trade union or is taking part in union activities outside of his working hours (Labor Act, 2014, art. 186).

Figure 10.: Number of employees who are members of trade unions (%)



Notes: *** Ireland - 2016, **Poland - 2014, *Croatia and Greece - 2013.

Source: Creation of the author, according to: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=TUD>

An analysis of Figure 10. shows that in 2013 Croatia had the lowest share of the employed who were trade union members (22,5%) thus being among countries with a low share of trade union members despite the legal freedom to organize unions.

Countries that stand out for their high share of union members are Denmark (68.6) and Sweden (66.8). Strong unions are a basic element for partnership and a system of collective negotiation in Denmark as well as in other Scandinavian countries. Almost 70% of the employed in Denmark are part of a trade union. The Danish labor market, as opposed to other EU member states, is more regulated with contracts between social partners. This means that the labor market is mainly regulated with collective contracts and with a small number of laws relative to the labor market.

Sweden is also highly unionized and has a Confederation of Professional Employees (TCO). Then there is also the Swedish Confederation of Professional Associations (SACO) which is developing faster in the private sector. SACO includes associations in its membership, like self-employed professionals (architects, consultants, pharmacists, dentists). 4% of SACO members are full-time self-employed and 5% are part-time workers. The restructuring of the labor market in Sweden resulted in an increase in the number of self-employed workers so that they are also present in the other two acknowledged central trade union organizations in Sweden (the Swedish Trade Union Confederation - LO and the Confederation of Professional Employees - TCO). All these trade unions are acknowledged by the government and employers and make an integral part of the tripartite body (Fulton, L., 2013).

Unfortunately, the average number of members in trade unions in Croatia is declining. Croatian trade union leaders are of the opinion that trade union membership will continue to decline due to the flexibilization of the labor market. Flexibilization should not affect the decline of membership as can be seen in Denmark and Sweden. Countries that apply the model and are the most unionized in the European Union. The work of the trade union as a member of the tripartite body in the economic and social council should be constructive because the rights of the workers should be protected, especially when negotiating collective agreements. We hope that unionization in Croatia shall not decline further and that trade unions shall take greater responsibility because their leaders cannot only promote themselves.

Withdrawn

5. CONCLUSION

Every EU member state applies its own set of institutes and policies, which results in a certain "state of flexicurity". There is no clear-cut strategy or direction of flexicurity for all countries. The flexicurity directives proposed by the European Union may serve as principles. However, the basic components of flexicurity need to be integrated with an effective social dialogue based on mutual trust among the social partners.

This paper researched the components of flexicurity for Croatia and the selected countries of the European Union. The task was to establish the position of Croatia compared to other selected EU member states in regard to the representation of the said components. The results proved that the components of flexicurity

ity are barely present in the Croatian labor market as opposed to other analyzed markets of variously developed countries of the EU. The analysis of the first component of flexicurity, relative to reliable and flexible contractual relations, is expressed with the index of protection legislation which showed that the said index is below 50% of its value. Regardless of its amount, employers are dissatisfied when having to terminate contracts in unfavorable business conditions. The amount of the index enabled a certain flexibilization of working hours, by means of part-time work, work from home and temporary agency work. However, they are at a very low level compared to other observed countries and do not enable a satisfactory level of flexibility.

The most unfavorable results for Croatia among observed countries were in the component of lifelong learning with a rate of 2.3% because the countries that follow are Slovakia with a rate of 3.4% and Poland 4.0%, which is by 2.3% and 3.4% higher than Croatia. In this component of flexicurity Slovenia is in a highly favorable position compared to Croatia because it has a rate of 12.0%. It is clear that Croatia should see a greater engagement of the employers in training their employees and the state with active employment policy measures. Unfortunately, there is a larger share of passive than active measures in Croatia. Past research proved that an extended duration of the unemployment benefit affected an increase of unemployment and the later stability of employment. Analyses have shown that the unemployed who have found employment immediately after exploiting all the benefits will receive lower salaries when employed. These results show that the unemployment benefits discourage people from seeking new employment and when they eventually find work, their wages are usually lower. This suggests there is an increased risk of repeated unemployment because they become less selective.

When we speak of the need to introduce flexicurity it is impossible without taking security into account. The reason is that the implementation would be socially ineffective and besides having negative effects on the level of individuals and households, it would also have negative macroeconomic consequences. There is need for a balanced policy that can diminish the obstacles to adjustment and at the same time ensure employment for workers. Policy makers - social partners need to seek for new social models of workers' protection, protecting workers who are entering the dynamic labor market of a globalized economy.

In order to better understand the possibilities for the implementation of flexicurity on the Croatian labor market it was necessary to analyze the length of the working life, the rates of activity, the rates of employment and unemployment and industrial relations. Starting from the average duration of working life, the lowest was in Italy, Croatia and Greece. At the same time, these countries had the lowest activity rates of work capable population. Compared to Croatia, Slovenia is in a much more favorable position with the average rate of retirement being higher, a better rate of activity and employment and a lower unemployment rate.

Withdrawn

Croatia therefore needs a stronger social dialogue in order to balance the stated discrepancies. This is especially important since only about a fourth of the employed are part of a trade union so that their position should be balanced with the other partners in order to have a better balance on the labor market. Considering their position, trade unions should not go back to the traditional employment models.

Algann, Y. and Cahuc, P. (2006) claim that the Mediterranean and central European countries will be able to implement the Danish model of flexicurity with a decrease of passive employment policy measures and relying on a strong tripartite body and the public.

Flexicurity could be implemented in Croatia only if new solidary interest forms appear, reflecting not only the changed needs of the workers and employers as collective partners but also that of the unemployed.

Withdrawn

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APPENDIX 1.: PROTECTION LEGISLATION INDEX AND PART-TIME WORK

	2013 - permanent	2013 - temporary	Part time 2008 in %	Part time 2017 in %
Czech Republic	2.7	2.1	4.3	6.2
Denmark	2.3	1.8	23.9	25.3
France	2.8	3.8	16.8	18.2
Greece	2.4	2.9	5.4	9.7
Croatia	2.3**	2.9**	6.5	4.8
Ireland	2.1	1.2	18.7	20.1
Italy	2.8	2.7	14.1	18.5
Hungary	2.1	2	4.3	4.3
Germany	3	1.8	25.1	26.9
Poland	2.4	2.3	7.7	6.6
Slovakia	2.3	2.4	2.5	5.8
Slovenia	2.4***	2.1***	8.1	10.3
Spain	2.3	3.2	11.6	14.9
Sweden	2.5	1.2	25.7	23.3
United Kingdom	1.6***	0.5***	24.2	24.9

Permanent and temporary workers: *Croatia 2015, **Slovenia and the United Kingdom 2014

Source: <https://www1.compareyourcountry.org/employment-protection-legislation/en/o/176/datatable>
<https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>

APPENDIX 2.: WORKFORCE ACTIVITY RATE AND UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

	Activity rate 2008	Activity rate 2017	Unemployment rate 2008	Unemployment rate 2017
Czech Republic	69.7	75.9	4.4	2.9
Denmark	80.7	78.9	3.4	5.7
France	69.9	71.5	7.4	9.4
Greece	66.7	68.3	7.8	21.5
Croatia	65.8	66.5	8.6	11.2
Ireland	74.9	72.7	6.8	6.7
Italy	58.7	65.5	6.7	11.2
Hungary	56.4	71.2	7.8	4.2
Germany	70.1	78.3	7.4	3.8
Poland	63.8	69.6	7.1	4.9
Slovakia	68.8	72.1	9.6	8.1
Slovenia	71.8	74.2	4.4	6.6
Spain	72.7	73.9	11.3	17.2
Sweden	76.0	82.5	6.2	6.7
United Kingdom	75.8	77.6	5.6	4.4

Source: Questionnaire unemployment, <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>

APPENDIX 3.: RATE OF EMPLOYMENT AND TEMPORARY AGENCY WORK

	Employment rate		Temporary agency work	
	2008		2017	
Czech Republic	66.6	73.6	0.9	1.5
Denmark	77.9	74.2	1.4	0.9
France	64.9	64.7	2.4	3.3
Greece	61.4	53.5	0.3	0.3
Croatia	60.0	58.9	0.7	0.7
Ireland	69.7	67.7	0.9	2.4
Italy	58.7	58.0	0.7	0.9
Hungary	56.4	66.2	0.7	0.3
Germany	70.1	75.3	1.9	2.6
Poland	59.2	66.1	0.5	0.8
Slovakia	62.3	66.2	0.9	0.9
Slovenia	68.6	69.3	5.8	5.7
Spain	64.5	61.1	4.1	3.4
Sweden	74.3	76.9	1.2	1.4
United Kingdom	71.5	74.1	0.5	0.5

Source: <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/data/database>

<https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LMPEXP>

Withdrawn

APPENDIX 4.: RATE OF PARTICIPATION IN LIFELONG LEARNING

	Lifelong learning	
	2012	2017
Czech Republic	11.1	9.8
Denmark	31.6	26.8
France	5.7	18.7
Greece	3.3	4.5
Croatia	3.3	2.3
Ireland	7.4	8.9
Italy	6.6	7.9
Hungary	2.9	6.2
Germany	7.9	8.4
Poland	4.5	4.0
Slovakia	3.2	3.4
Slovenia	13.8	12.0
Spain	11.2	9.9
Sweden	27.0	30.4
United Kingdom	16.3	14.3

Source: https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/images/3/31/Adult_participation_in_learning%2C_2012_and_2017_%28%C2%B9%29_%28%25_of_the_population_aged_25_to_64_in_the_last_4_weeks%29.png

Withdrawn

APPENDIX 5.: CONSUMPTION ON ACTIVE AND PASSIVE EMPLOYMENT POLICY (%)

	Active measures		Passive measures	
	2008	2016	2008	2016
Czech Republic	0.22	0.36	0.18	0.18
Denmark	1.34	2.07	1.17	1.15
France	0.82	1.01*	1.51	1.98*
Greece	-	-	-	0.49*
Croatia	0.15	0.22	0.39	0.45
Ireland	0.69	0.50	1.28	1.07
Italy	0.45	0.51*	0.70	1.29*
Hungary	0.35	0.94	0.36	0.24
Germany	0.88	0.63	1.01	0.82
Poland	0.55	0.45	0.35	0.24
Slovakia	0.25	0.26	0.42	0.35
Slovenia	0.18	0.24	0.26	0.50
Spain	0.79	0.60*	1.84	1.92*
Sweden	0.83	1.17	0.55	0.55
United Kingdom	0.32	0.23**	0.19	0.31**

Notes: Greece - 2015*, Italy - 2015*, Spain - 2015*, France - 2015*, United Kingdom - 2011**

Source: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=LMPEXP>

Withdrawn

APPENDIX 6.: NUMBER OF TRADE UNION MEMBERS AMONG THE EMPLOYED

	2008	2015
Czech Republic	16.9	12.0
Denmark	66.2	68.6
France	7.8	7.9
Greece	23.8	24.7*
Croatia		22.5*
Ireland	31.4	27.2***
Italy	33.4	35.7
Hungary	14.4	9.4
Germany	19.0	17.6
Poland	15.1	12.4**
Slovakia	17.2	10.9
Slovenia	26.6	19.6
Spain	17.1	13.9
Sweden	68.8	66.8
United Kingdom	27.0	24.2

Notes: *** Ireland - 2016, **Poland - 2014, *Croatia and Greece - 2013

Source: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=TUD>

Withdrawn

