

# National Report Sweden

## Socio-economic trends and welfare policies

Deliverable 3.1 – November 2006

Linda Lane, Margareta Bäck-Wiklund and Stefan Szücs –  
Göteborg University



*Institutionen för socialt arbete  
Göteborgs universitet*

**Quality** is an innovative, quantitative and qualitative research project that aims to examine how, in an era of major change, European citizens living in different national welfare state regimes evaluate the quality of their lives. The project will analyse international comparative data on the social well-being of citizens and collect new data on social quality in European workplaces in eight strategically selected partner countries: UK, Finland, Sweden, Germany, the Netherlands, Portugal, Hungary and a candidate country for EU enlargement, Bulgaria.

Quality is a Specific Targeted Research or Innovations Project funded within the European Commission's Sixth Framework Programme (contract no 028945), Priority 7, Citizens and Governance in a Knowledge-based Society (March 2006 to February 2009).

## **Acknowledgements**

We would like to thank the Swedish Expert Group for valuable comments on the content of the document and for specific comments for improving the quality of the text in their areas of expertise. The Swedish Expert Groups consisted of Mr. Jesper Hamark, Analyst, Kommunal, the Swedish Municipal Workers' Union, Mr. Erik Mellander Deputy General director IFAU – Institute for labour market policy evaluation and Mr. Eberhard Strüber Analyst Office of the Equal Opportunities Ombudsman.



**Universiteit Utrecht**

The knowledge and data provided in this publication has been collected as part of the FP6 EU-financed-project QUALITY. It reflects only the authors' views. The EU is not liable for any use that may be made of the information contained therein. The user uses the information at his/her sole risk and liability.

## Introduction

This deliverable is part of Workpackage 3. ‘Analysis of the Institutional Context for the project Quality of life in a changing Europe’. Its purpose is to provide the necessary contextualisation for the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data which would be gathered in the Quality project. It builds upon the work already done in the project: Deliverable 1.1. ‘Literature Review. Theoretical Concepts and Methodological Approaches of Quality of Life and Work’ and Deliverable 7.1. ‘Gender Checklist’. The reports in this collection present information about macro level trends in order to interpret research findings on the meso level (that of the companies under investigation) and the micro level (the values and lifestyles of individual employees). Other reports will examine existing data sources on objective and subjective indicators for the quality of life (D 1.2.) and offer comparative cross-national analysis (D 1.3.). Here we focus on the institutional framework in terms of resources and challenges in front of the quality of life in each partner country involved in the Quality team. The concrete objectives of this exercise were:

- To map current socio-economic and demographic trends concerning changes in work, employment patterns, institutional structures and practices of human resources management, family life, community and leisure, with an expected impact on the quality of life;
- To examine trends in public policies regarding employment and family life related to work-life balance;
- To get insight into the way different policy regimes stimulate or restrain quality of life.

Each report presents the major concerns and opportunities for the quality of life in the national context and makes an attempt to evaluate the impact of the national policy regime (the combination of social rights and services delivered by the state, the market and the family) on the quality of work and the quality of life. The time frame of the analysis is the last ten years. Where relevant, reports refer to major policy and economic changes in a longer time frame, as is the case of the two post-communist countries Bulgaria and Hungary which explore employment, demographic and policy trends since the regime change in 1989. Gender, as well as class (social status) and age (life course), act as the main cross cutting factors in the analysis.

The national reports made use of the following main sources of information:

- statistical data provided by the national statistical offices, Eurostat or other agencies;
- official documents of the national governments, programmes and reports of various ministries and non-governmental organisations;
- research reports and academic publications of national and international sociological agencies, research centres and universities;
- reviews of public debates in the media concerning quality of life and the policy measures deemed necessary to address the challenges;
- consultations with stakeholders and experts from the academia, policy makers and practitioners in the partner countries.

All national reports have similar structure in order to ease the task of international comparison which will be addressed in the next stage in Deliverable D 3.2. ‘Combined comparative report on socio-economic trends and welfare policies in the partner countries’. The reports’ introduction addresses the strategic

topics of national academic and policy debates about quality of life and most pressing issues in each country. The first chapter analyses significant trends in the economic activity patterns and population developments from the mid 1990s to the present and the prospects for the near future. The issues covered are activity rates by gender, age and education, patterns of employment, self-employment and flexible work, unemployment, trends in retirement, disability, sickness, family transitions and fertility rates, diversity of family forms and trends in social inequalities. The second chapter explores the employment policies in the country and elaborates on the patterns of social protection the state is providing for its citizens. Discussed are labour market, unemployment and self-employment policies, programmes for flexibility of work, measures for life long learning and safety at work, wage policies and the practices of social dialogue and their impact on the quality of work. The third chapter focuses on the trends in family policies and the kinds of provisions there are for maternity, paternity and parental leaves. This section of the reports examines the models of care policies (primarily for children but also for other dependents) and family friendly measures offered by the state, employers, community and wider families. It also includes a brief presentation of the significance attached to trends and challenges in health, housing, and leisure policies and policies for the safety in the community and society as a whole, and how these affect the wellbeing of citizens. The conclusion contains the authors' evaluation of the influence of policy interventions (current and in the past ten years) on the quality of life and quality of work and the prospects for the future.

The national reports in this collection represent countries selected before the start of the project with the understanding that they correspond to the main policy regimes. Thus Finland and Sweden have social democratic welfare states, the Netherlands and Germany stand for the corporatist regime, the UK represents the liberal regime and Portugal – the sub-protective regime. Hungary and Bulgaria are post-communist countries moving away from the centralized one-party regimes and are currently combining elements from all the four models above. The ongoing changes in their policy systems make it unclear which welfare regime they are moving toward. However, as the reports attest to, transformations are underway in all other countries under the influence of demographic and economic changes, new technologies and globalisation. Which model of citizenship best provides for the quality of work and life is to be further explored in the course of the study.

Siyka Kovacheva,  
Quality partner responsible for WP 3

## Tables of Contents: Sweden

Introduction .....	3
Tables of Contents: Sweden .....	5
1. Introduction .....	6
2. Demographic Trends .....	8
Fertility trends.....	8
Population trends .....	9
3. Employment Trends .....	10
Occupational trends.....	11
Trends in immigration.....	11
Labour market policy - Trade unions, Employer organisations and the State.....	11
Active labour market programmes .....	12
Unemployment insurance .....	13
Women in the labour market .....	13
4. Working Conditions.....	15
Minimum wages.....	15
Employment forms.....	15
Work time.....	15
Over time.....	16
Health and safety.....	16
Annual leave (Vacation) .....	16
Sickness insurance .....	17
Job protection.....	17
Pensions.....	17
5. From the Housewife Contract to the Daddy-Quota .....	18
The family policy model – the dual earner family.....	19
Parental insurance .....	19
Childcare .....	21
Education system .....	21
6. Poverty Prevention through Housing Allowances.....	23
7. Conclusions .....	24
Literature .....	25

## 1. Introduction

At the beginning of the 1990's Sweden experienced an economic crisis that had eased in intensity by 1994 but whose after-math on the labour market continued until 2000. The crisis precipitated by a financial crash of the overheated real estate market coincided with a crisis in the foreign exchange market and a decline in the export sector pushed unemployment in Sweden to unprecedented levels. In the first stage employment was lost in the private sector but by the mid-1990s redundancies in the public sector were becoming apparent. Unemployment continued to rise in spite of governmental efforts to mitigate the problem with active labour market programmes.

The deep recession and rapid growth in unemployment rates resulted in a decline in the average disposable income for Swedish citizens and a growth albeit small in income inequality. Among full-time employed earning inequality increased slowly during the 1990s, the Gini-coefficient went up from 19.5 percent in 1991 to 26.0 per cent in 2005 (SCB, 2005). The change in disposable income was not equally shared by all. At its peak in 2000 inequality reached nearly 29.0 percent. During that period inequality increased between those with full-time employment and those who found it difficult to find employment; youths, recent immigrants and single parents (Gustafsson & Palmer, 2002). Recent data show that lone women over age 75 are most likely to experience falling standards of living (SCB, 2005).

Although the country has experienced continuous growth since the crisis, losses in employment have not been fully regained and unemployment remains high by Swedish standards, a fact that made unemployment and labour market policies the centre of debate in the general elections in September 2006.

The economic crisis initiated a period of re-evaluation and debate concerning the Swedish welfare model. Of primary interest was the question of whether the Swedish model was still viable or was it time to consider new approaches to welfare. In response to these debates new trends in social policy have been observed. The 1990s saw a decentralisation in education and health opening up the possibility for private initiative. The number of private "free" schools, from kindergarten through secondary education increased dramatically as schools with alternative pedagogical aims was permitted for the first time. In addition some health services and clinics were privatised as entrepreneurs were permitted to bid for opportunity of providing services previously organised by the Public Health Service. The costs for these private alternatives were voucher based, in order that citizens could choose a private or public alternative for the same or comparable price. The period saw cutbacks in some services for the elderly. Simultaneously, caps were put on tariffs for others services such as the introduction of a maximum tariff for child care to replace the former progressive tariff system. In 1998 tougher social assistance laws were enacted in an effort to adapt benefit levels to the new economic reality but also to curb "free riding." In 1999 a new pension system was inaugurated. The period also saw the decline in social dialogue between trade unions, employer organisations and the state, a development that had important outcomes for the quality of life and work for Swedish citizens because of the manner in which the Swedish labour market is organised.

Although Sweden consistently ranks high in quality of life and well-being surveys and indices, the recent changes in social policy will have important repercussions for Swedish citizens. Ongoing research on the quality of life in Sweden is attempting to assess the impact of these changes for individual citizens; what strategies are they adopting to cope with work, what are the influences of flexible work on their health and

well-being, job satisfaction and stress. Of specific interest is the relationship between long-term sickness absence, health, gender segregation, work-stress and burnout.

The presentation is divided into four parts followed by a short conclusion. In the first part a discussion of the demographic trends facing Sweden in the next twenty years is presented. This is followed by a presentation of employment trends including a short overview of the Swedish labour market. Swedish family policy is the focus of part three followed by a brief insight into poverty prevention.

## 2. Demographic Trends

The correlation between fertility and gender equality in Sweden was recognised in the early development of the Swedish model. In the fight to defend women’s right to work Alva Myrdal went so far as to make the radical argument that what was needed was not women’s return to domestic chores but that men should take a more active role in family life. In one of her most read debate books concerning family policy she wrote;

*“A real renaissance for family life is only possible if men are also given the opportunity to live with their families. It is not self-evident that housework will develop as an occupation for women. That development is not finished yet. Perhaps, the meaning instead is that housework and the creation of a home is to be a rich, warm, intimate lifestyle for the whole family.”*  
(Alva Myrdal, 1944)

The need for increased gender equality; filtered through the improvement of the quality of life and quality of work in the Swedish context, is predicated against demographic trends that raise issues for future fertility levels and by extension levels of employment, health and safety and social inequality. In the modern Sweden of today, where demographic trends as discussed in Table 1 below show declining fertility rates albeit for many different reasons, Alva Myrdal’s call for gender equality is as timely today as it was for over 50 years ago.

*“There is a need to defend women and particularly married women’s right to earn their daily bread./ .../Women’s time-honoured right to freedom of choice between housework and work in the labour market and population policy’s demand for preservation of the family go hand in hand./ .../What we must safeguard is not so much “married women’s right to work” as “working women’s right to get married and have children”* (Alva Myrdal, 1944)

### Fertility trends

If we begin by looking at fertility trends, we find that young Swedish women tend to wait until they are finished with their formal education and have secure employment before the birth of their first child. In 1990 the average age at birth of first child for a woman was 26.3 years of age and in 2004 it was 28.6 years of age. The fertility prognosis until the year 2020 is presented in Table 1, below. The table shows that the average number of children per woman is expected to increase slightly from 1.7 children in 2005 to 1.8 by 2020. While the increase in fertility is comforting, the fertility rate is still below the replacement level of 2.1 and is not expected to compensate for the decline in the wage-earning population (EU memo/06/372). Furthermore as shown in Table 1, the prospect is complicated by an expected weak net immigration to Sweden.

Year	Fertility child/woman	Average life length		Immigration in thousands	Emigration in thousands
		Women	Men		
2001	1,576	82,2	77,5	60	34
2005	1,726	82,7	78,1	61	43
2010	1,800	83,4	78,9	68	50
2015	1,800	83,9	79,6	68	50
2020	1,800	84,3	80,2	68	50

Source: Trender och Prognoser, p 21.

*Table 1. Swedish population prognosis year 2001*

A survey of young people born between 1968 and 1976 showed that two variables were decisive when making decisions about starting a family - the relationship to the labour market and to finding a suitable partner (Bernhardt, 2000). The dual-earner model, whereby both partners participate in the labour market, has increased women's economic independence. However, even in the dual-earner model women have retained primary responsibility for child care and housework and as such are more likely to have longer periods of absence from the labour market than her partner. A factor which has proven detrimental for women, as the time spent outside the labour market usually results in lost of human capital with accompanying curtailed possibilities for careers, lower-incomes as well as lower expected pensions upon retirement.

For young women and a growing number of men, the search is not simply for a partner nor is it merely for someone who pays for the kids, instead the search is for a partner willing to share all of the costs of raising a child; this includes not only economic costs but also social cost associated with caring duties and housework (Folbre, 1994). Thus, in the Swedish context, questions of fertility, population growth and economic growth are intricately related.

## Population trends

Sweden will continue to experience rapid changes in in the age distribution. Life expectancy is high and a newborn boy in 2004 can expect to live to be 78.4 years of age and a newborn girl 82.7 years of age. As shown in Table 2, the redistribution among age groups implies that the ratio between the total population and the working age population will be nearly unchanged over the next ten years but is expected to decline thereafter.

Swedes born in the 1940s will enter retirement in the next few years. This group is expected to be healthier than their predecessors as they have had the opportunity to enjoy the benefits of the Swedish welfare state, especially health and medical services. The percent of citizens over retirement age, those 65 years of age and older is expected to be relative stable until 2010 but to increase thereafter. As shown in Table 2 after 2010 the share of older and younger people become almost equal in magnitude with a resulting lower percentage of population in active labour market age. The redistribution among age groups implies that the ratio between the working age population and the total population will become notably smaller after 2010.

Year	Total	0-19	20-64	65+
1980	8318	26.4	57.3	16.3
1990-	8591	24.6	57.7	17.7
2000	8883	24.1	58.7	17.2
2010	9114	22.7	58.5	18.8
2020	9623	22.4	56.1	21.7

Source: Trender och Prognoser 2002, p 14.

*Table 2. Population by age groups 1980-2020 Numbers in thousands and age in percent*

### 3. Employment Trends

Since the 1990s economic crisis, Sweden has experienced exceptional economic growth. Much of this growth has been concentrated in the financial sphere and to new industries clustered around IT and services. A general problem for Sweden is that economic growth has not generated more jobs and the country is still experiencing the effects of the crisis in the labour market. Hardest hit by the lack of employment opportunities are young people aged 16-24, men over age 50 and immigrants of all ages. There are also strong regional differences in the incidence of unemployment. The North South divide is clearly visible. While southern Sweden rebounded from the recession relatively quickly after 1994, with Stockholm region as the poster example with an unemployment rate of about 3.8 percent in 2002 (Magnusson & Ottosson, 2003), northern Sweden continued to experience high unemployment. Although partially mitigated through active labour market programmes, recovery in the northern Sweden remains slow and protracted. Magnusson & Ottosson conclude that despite positive developments in the labour market since the recession, regional differences have increased resulting in increased numbers of citizens outside the labour market for longer periods of time (Magnusson & Ottosson, 2003).

A notable result of the decline in employment opportunities in northern Sweden is the increased internal migration of women from the northern to the southern regions. Women are more likely than are men to migrate in search of jobs, education and opportunities to enjoy a richer leisure life. The trend is a continued decline in population, with fewer families, and children in the north than in the south and an increasing number of older people.

In the longer perspective, employment trends reveal that employment in manufacturing industries will continue to decline, from about 800000 employed to about 650000 in 2020. However, there will be large variations across sectors. A portion of this decline may be attributed to rationalisation processes whereby jobs performed previously within industries will be out-sourced to other entrepreneurs.

In the private service sector, the number of employed is projected to increase to nearly 1.7 million in 2020. The increase will mainly occur in consultancy services focusing in the business sector. Employment in retail trade, banking and financial operations is expected to decline.

In the public sector, child care, education, health and medical care and care of the elderly, will generally follow changes in the number of persons in the relevant age groups. Together, employment in the public sector is expected to reach 1.54 million by 2020 (Trender och Prognoser, 2002).

Future employment trends are uncertain, but a modest increase in the demand for labour is expected to continue. The prognosis for Sweden's labour reserve is rather bleak. Taken together, the unemployed, latent job seekers and people occupied in labour market policy measures amount to about 500 000 people (SCB, 2006). It is uncertain as to whether this reserve will provide good matches for the types of competencies a future labour market will demand, especially since future demands focuses on highly educated labour with uneven regional distribution (Trender och Prognoser, 2002). Furthermore, if labour force participation does not increase, the labour market will face even more serious problems of shortages in a few years time.

## **Occupational trends**

In terms of occupational sectors it is expected that the number of employees in the health and medical care system will increase. As the number of very old pensioners, those 85+ year increase, the number of personnel needed to care for the elderly is also expected to rise. There is also an expected shortage of teachers at all levels, from kindergarten through grade 12 secondary school, three year university educated engineers, qualified IT staff (systems engineers/programmers) and in the service sector particularly, hotel restaurant, catering trades and personal services.

## **Trends in immigration**

During the last few decades Sweden has accepted a relative large number of political refugees. Most of these new comers have come from countries outside of Europe. While adding to the cultural diversity of Sweden their ethnic and cultural backgrounds have also been a hindrance for their full acceptance in Swedish society. Most notable has been the difficulty these groups have had in finding employment.

In 2000, only 54 percent of foreign citizens, i.e. immigrants with working permits but without Swedish citizenship were employed. The unemployment rate in this group was 13 percent. For native Swedes, the corresponding rates were 75 percent and 4.5 percent respectively (Ekberg & Rooth, 2001, Ekberg & Hammarstedt, 2002). A White Paper commissioned by the Swedish Parliament concluded that trends in the Swedish labour market towards racialised exclusion of ethnic minorities have become more pronounced in the last 15 years (Schierup, 2006).

It is not only the case that individuals born outside of Sweden have found it difficult to find work that matches their formal education level. Large numbers – specifically those arriving during/under periods of high unemployment have found it difficult to enter employment at all. Furthermore, access to the Swedish labour market appears to be correlated to country of birth (Hedin, 2001), a result that suggests that immigrants meet forms of discrimination or fear of “differentness” that influence their possibilities to find employment (de los Reyes, 2006).

This notwithstanding the benefits of immigration for Sweden from a demographic perspective can not be overlooked. Research has pointed out three main reasons why immigration in some form will be a part of a future scenario: 1) a need to retain an unchanged total population level; 2) the need for a constant number of individuals of working age and 3) the need to maintain an adequate dependency ratio (Essén, 2002).

## **Labour market policy - Trade unions, Employer organisations and the State**

It is generally accepted that the Swedish labour market policy has its roots in the Rhen-Meidner model was first presented at the Swedish Trade Union Confederations congress in 1951 and advocated the use of finance policy, active labour market programmes and solidaristic wage policy to reach and maintain full-employment.

An important contrast between actors in the Swedish labour market and those in other countries is the relative lack of legal intervention by the state to regulate relationships between the partners. Instead

partners in the labour market specifically the primary trade union and employer organisations have taken on the responsibility of solving labour market problems together.

This unique manner of solving labour market problems is attributed to three factors: well developed, clearly defined organizations for both employees and employers, both sides have high membership density, most employees in Sweden belong to an employee organization and most employers are members of their branch organization (Kjellberg, 1983); and finally both organizations developed before the modern labour market and were involved in defining and developing the framework for the model (Ruggie, 1987). Thus, on issues of labour relations, such as wages, hiring and promotion, labour market partners have opposed legislation and insisted that such matters be settled in collective bargaining.

Entitlements to social benefits are based on citizenship or residence, with benefit levels depending on income. The most important benefits accruing to employees are those negotiated through collective agreements between labour market partners. These benefits are covered by collective insurances or if benefits are paid by employers through collective compensations.

Collective compensation may be divided into four large categories for: 1) state employees, 2) municipal and county employees, 3) white-collar workers in the private sector and 4) blue-collar workers in the private sector. Most employees are covered by collective compensation agreements. However, many self-employed in small firms are not covered by these agreements. Other forms of insurance may accrue to members through membership in collective insurance schemes organised through trade unions and private insurance schemes on the open market available to all who wish to purchase them.

Since the 1980s centralised collective bargaining between the social partners has been called into question and gradually centralised negotiations have given way to negotiations at the industrial branch level. In 1983, employer organisations' dissatisfaction with certain aspects of the solidaristic wage policy which had resulted in extensive wage drift culminated in a break-away from centralised bargaining by the Swedish Metal Trades Employers' Association (VF) and its trade union counterpart, the Swedish Metal Workers' Union (Metall). The process of decentralisation was reinforced by the economic recession of the 1990s. That notwithstanding, at present, Swedish Industrial Law continues to form the basic framework for collective agreements regardless of the level at which they are negotiated. Of particular interest are collective agreements determining wages, forms of employment, regulation of work hours, compensation for overtime and shift work, job protection, health and safety issues and supplemental insurance and pension plans. These conditions are negotiated in collective agreements under the heading of General Terms of Employment.

## **Active labour market programmes**

Swedish labour market policy involves a large number of active labour market programmes offered in order to improve the employment opportunities of unemployed workers.

The economic crisis of the 1990s was the litmus test for active labour market programmes (ALMP) in Sweden. Active labour market programmes are designed to mitigate the effects of unemployment. While all are aimed at improving the possibilities for the unemployed to re-enter the labour market, some types of programmes provide direct incentives to move back into employment by facilitating job search,

providing wage subsidies or fostering the acquisition of work contacts and references. Other measures attempt to make work more attractive by providing incentives to improve individual productivity and skills via formal education or work experience.

A number of studies have evaluated the effectiveness of these programmes for combating problems associated with the complexities of unemployment (Sianesi 2002, Calmfors et al 2001, Carling & Richardson 2001, Ackum Agell 1995). The results are mixed. In general, measures taken to put the unemployed back into work have been more successful than training schemes. Another finding is that youth programmes have rarely been effective. The newly elected liberal government has voiced its intentions to make major changes in the programmes. That notwithstanding the general consensus is that also in the future some form of active labour market policy is necessary if regional differences in unemployment rates, the continued exclusion of underrepresented groups such as youths, new immigrants and older workers from the labour market are to be alleviated.

## **Unemployment insurance**

The first condition to receive unemployment benefits is that the unemployed individual must have belong to a recognized unemployment insurance fund at least 12 months prior to becoming unemployed. An employee need not be member of a trade union to join an established unemployment insurance fund.

Unemployment insurance is financed by a combination of taxes and contributions from employees. Unemployment funds are administrated by trade unions that are bound by law to follow rules and regulations set down by the Swedish Parliament (Lundh, 2002). To qualify, the individual must have been employed for 6 months and worked at least 70 hours per month during this period and must be registered for work at the Public Employment Service (PES). Unemployed who meet the qualifications receive benefits up to 80 percent of their wages. At present, the lowest benefit is about €34.50 per day and the highest about €73 per day. Benefits are payable 5 days a week up to 52 weeks with the possibility of extension under special circumstances. Individuals, who do not meet the requirements for unemployment benefits, receive a cash unemployment allowance which is lower than the lowest unemployment insurance benefit.

These regulations are expected to change or at least be modified from 1 January 2007 when changes initiated by the new liberal government are implemented.

## **Women in the labour market**

Since the 1850s and the rise of industrial growth and development and the organisation of a formal market for labour, Swedish women have had a prominent place in labour market. Labour force participation rates were closely correlated to economic class, with women from the working classes making up the majority of wage earning women. When World War II began, Swedish women were about 27 per cent of the labour force. When the war ended the composition of working women had changed, expansion in the private service sector and the “new” industries provided job opportunities for working class women and women from the middle classes.

In the mid-1960s, as the Swedish welfare state became more service intensive, a general labour shortage and limited recruitment of non-Nordic foreign labour combined to provide even greater opportunities for employment for women, specifically in public health, education and welfare. Women's entrance was facilitated by an expansion in maternity/parental leave and child care facilities, which in turn provided additional jobs for women. An agreement was reached between employers and trade unions in 1960 that abolished separate wage tariffs for women, and in 1971 separate income tax assessment was introduced. These policies laid the foundation for a dual-earner individual model of welfare which was consolidated with the adoption of a parental insurance in 1974, reforms in the education system to promote equal opportunity in education, the adoption of the Equal Opportunity Act in 1977 and the introduction of active labour market policies to the needs of working women, which replaced measures that previously had primarily encouraged and recruited men (Sainsbury 1999).

In Sweden, there is a relative strong official and public commitment to gender equality as a dual breadwinner/dual career relationship between men and women (Oláh 1998). This includes an active governmental responsibility to abolish gender discrimination against employees to enable women to combine paid work and family duties, and to reduce the conflict between the two commitments.

## 4. Working Conditions

### Minimum wages

In contrast to most other countries Sweden does not have a minimum wage law; instead, minimum wages are negotiated in collective agreements. Minimum wages are negotiated not only for trade union members, all employed in the branch covered by the agreement. Labour market partners negotiate a minimum wage in each branch for a specified agreement period. Negotiations determine not only the level of minimum wage but also how that wage will be differentiated by variables such as occupation, experience, age, region or a combination of all factors.

Swedish minimum wages on average tend to be slightly higher than in other countries. The lowest minimum wage is about 60-70 percent of the median wage in manufacturing (Skedinger, 2005).

### Employment forms

The question of growth of atypical employment forms has been central in the Swedish debate. However, in the Swedish labour market the dominant form of employment continues to be permanent employment; about 75 per cent of all employees are permanently employed. However, since 1990 there has been a noticeable growth in temporary employment in 2000, about 15 per cent of all employed are temporarily employed, and another 10 percent are employed in other forms of non-permanent employment such as project employment, seasonal work, and short-term contracts (Håkansson, 2001).

Young people, including immigrants and women are over represented among the temporarily employed. In the age category 16-24, over 55 percent of temporary workers were women. The majority of the 16-24 age category is employed in the hotel and restaurant trades followed by the building trades, retail and the public sector. A longitudinal study in 2001 showed that of all in temporary employment, 30 percent of women and 47 per cent of men had entered in permanent employment within two years of the temporary employment (Wikman, 2002). The study also showed that those in temporary employment had fewer possibilities for advancement, fewer opportunities to take responsibility, to influence their work time, and were less likely to be included in training and educational programs.

### Work time

According to the Law on Working Time, ordinary work time may not exceed 40 hours per holiday free week under a specified period of four weeks or one month. With this as the basis for negotiation, labour market partners have negotiated weekly working time ranging from 40 hours, to 34 hours and 20 minutes, depending upon the degree to which the work is performed under atypical conditions, shift work, night work, or weekends etc. Women are over-represented among employees in both the private and public service sectors and tend to work on average about 38 hours per week if employed full-time.

## Over time

In the same manner as ordinary work hours, over time is regulated in collective agreements for each specific branch. The maximum number of hours is restricted to 150 per calendar year and the total number of hours worked may not exceed 48 per week. Collective agreements also regulate over time compensation, compensation for atypical work times such as shift work, nights and weekends.

In a period of relative high unemployment, discussions concerning the high levels of overtime work have been called into question. The number of employed working more than 45 hours per week has steadily increased. In 1976 about 6 percent of all women and about 15 percent of men worked more than 45 hours per week by 2003 the corresponding percentages had increased to 15 percent and 30 percent respectively (Välfärd, 2004). Women are more likely to work part-time and are therefore less likely than are men to work overtime. The trend today is a relative increase in the number of overtime hours worked for age category 45-54 years of age and for individuals employed in management positions, both men and women (Välfärd, 2004).

## Health and safety

Work-related disorders are caused by: occupational accidents; commuting accidents; and other causes such as strenuous working postures, mental stress, harassment, violence, noise, chemical substances etc (Lundberg, 2005). Work related disorders caused by occupational accidents and commuting are low compared to other causes. Occupational accidents answered for about 3 percent and commuting accidents for about 0.5 per cent of all work related disorders between 2000 and 2005.

Stress and mental strain are the most common cause of work related disorders among women and the third most common for men. Among men, the most frequent cause of work-related disorders is strenuous working postures, which is the second most frequent for women (Lundberg, 2005). In modern Swedish workplaces between 60 percent and 70 percent of men and women use computers in their work, this is seen as one explanation of why the proportion of neck-and-shoulder complaints has increased (Skjöld, 2005). Musculoskeletal disorders are the most common diagnosis behind sickness absence and disability pensions followed by mental disorders. In 2005 about 11 percent of all employed women and 7.5 percent of all employed men were on sick leave due to work-related disorders. Mentally stressful jobs are most common within the public sector, mainly in occupations within the care, nursing and teaching professions (Person, 2006). Further, recent research has shown the importance of organisational factors for compounding and complicating the incidence of sickness absence from work (Szücs et al, 2003).

Occupations where the risk for work-related disorders are deemed high are teaching at both compulsory and upper-secondary levels, social work professions, painters, carpenters and joiners, hairdressers and other personal services, the building trades, cooks, IT/computer work and health care workers.

## Annual leave (Vacation)

Swedes are guaranteed vacations amounting to 25 paid work days per year in annual leave if employed the full year between April 1 and 31 March the previous year. Collective agreements provide additional days based on age up to 35 days per year. Vacation rights exceeding 25 days may be saved for five years.

## **Sickness insurance**

The right to sickness insurance applies from the first day of employment. Compensation levels are guaranteed by law and may not be reduced through negotiations. Employers are responsible for paying sickness compensation the first 14 days. There is a one-day qualifying period when no compensation is paid. Days 2-14 are compensated at 80 percent of wages. After 14 days the responsibility for sickness compensation is transferred from the employer to the national insurance service. Sick pay is supplemented through collective agreements; levels of compensation depend on the type of collective agreement reached between labour market organisations.

## **Job protection**

Basic job protection is guaranteed by the Security of Employment Act that regulates forms of employment and protects the employee against unwarranted dismissal. Further, the Law of Co-determination (MBL) guarantees the employee's representation and rights to be informed when jobs are in jeopardy. Collective agreements supplement the law by including arrangements for compensation for involuntary redeployment or reorganisation of labour, lay-offs and redundancies.

## **Pensions**

Sweden carried out a reform of its General Pension System (PPM) in 1999. The old system was under financed and with an aging population the system was expected to present large problems in the future. The "new" General Pension System is closely tied to expected demographic changes, changes in the economic and business cycles and when compared to the "old" system, is more financially stable. This is important because the primary source of income for Swedish pensioners is from the General Pension System. In the "new" pension system, workers and employers make a combined contribution of 18.5 percent of pension carrying income, of which the insured worker pays 7 percent of gross income up to €37 600.

The pension system includes basic protection for all pensioners. Those who for different reasons have not contributed enough to the system before reaching pension age – 65 years of age, receive a guarantee pension or an old-age support supplement, and if necessary, combined with a supplemental housing allowance. Common for all pension forms is that they are paid out first from age 65.

## 5. From the Housewife Contract to the Daddy-Quota

Family policy in Sweden can be divided in five stages (Bäck-Wiklund 2002). The first stage was when the state began to take responsibility for the organization of everyday family life to make domestic work more efficient and to improve living conditions for children. Some of the objectives came from the vision expressed by Alva and Gunnar Myrdal (Myrdal & Myrdal 1935, Myrdal 1944, Myrdal & Klein 1957) as part of the family-friendly policy which they launched in the mid-1930s in response to demographic change and economic growth that encouraged new categories of women to enter the labour market (Lane, 2004). The policies were advocated both as a concern for children's living conditions and as a pro-natalistic population policy (Kälvemark, 1980). This first stage in Swedish family policy from the 1930s to 1946 has been labelled “the housewife contract” (Hirdman, 1989, 1990, 1998). Women's right to work and to have a family was recognised by law in 1921. However, only a few of the ideas discussed as part of family friendly policy were implemented before World War II. Perhaps the most important of these were Marriage Loans and a Mothers allowance which were implemented in the 1930s as a part of Sweden's pro-natalistic policy and the implementation of a law in 1939 safeguarding women's right to work.

The second stage of Swedish family policy was initiated after World War II and was characterised by the debate on equal pay for equal work. To improve the possibilities for more women to enter the labour market public childcare was introduced. There was also growth in the number of part-time jobs. The aim was to ease the situation for women by making it possible for them to combine family and work. There were also improvements in social insurance to reduce child poverty. In 1948, a general child allowance, as a non-means-tested cash benefit, was introduced for all families with dependent children regardless of their economic status (Hirdman, 1998).

The third stage of Swedish family policy was initiated during the 1960s. As more women entered the labour market, the quest for childcare became urgent and was accompanied by an intense debate about “sex roles” (Dahlström 1992). The ideological goal became symmetrical gender roles, and the “symmetrical family” was launched. Economy, work, family, and children now became parts of one political discourse about wage labour and care. During the 1960s, family policy improved gradually and entitlements were now directly related to women as wage earners.

The fourth stage of Swedish family policy was enacted in 1974 when the Social Democrats introduced a “new” family policy, with the dual-earner family as an official goal. Maternal leave was replaced by parental leave and also became liable to taxation and new principles for entitlements were introduced as both parents became entitled to leave. Several reforms have promoted gender equality and women's autonomy. In 1975, the law on free abortions was enacted. In 1977 an agreement between trade unions and employer organisations was reached on the Equal Opportunity Act and in 1980 a law prohibiting sex discrimination in the labour market was enacted. The law had a prehistory stretching back to the 1970s and was mainly related to working life and the labour market (Government Proposition 1987/88:105). At the beginning of the 1990s, the law was broadened. An important goal of the new law was to encourage employers to provide both men and women with the same rights and opportunities to combine work in the labour market with domestic responsibilities of housework and childcare.

The fifth stage, from 1995 can be labelled “the new fatherhood” (Plantin 2001, Klint 2002, Hobson & Morgan 2003). In 1995, a so called “daddy- month” was introduced and was extended to two months in 2001. From 2000 onward, the right to public child care was introduced, initially only for children with working parents but gradually including all children under the age of five.

## **The family policy model – the dual earner family**

Swedish family policy has passed through several phases and is at present characterized by a dual function to allow parents to combine parenthood and work and to provide children with good conditions in which to grow up. In the 1990s Esping-Andersen (1999) created the now well known welfare state typology: the liberal, the corporatist and the social democratic welfare state regime. Sweden is the role model for the Social Democratic welfare state regime, with an extended social insurance scheme. The social insurance is based on citizenship and universalistic principles, thus insuring a high level of de-commodification.

The typology has been criticized from a feminist perspective because women and their unpaid work in the family were excluded from the analysis as a source of welfare (Sainsbury 1994, Lewis, 1993). Taking the critique into account Esping-Andersen (1999) moved on and included families and particularly women’s economic contributions into his analysis. He now, among other things, introduces degrees of “familialism” versus “de-familialization”. The familialistic regimes lean on the principle of subsidiary and the state is only supposed to intervene when the supporting networks around the family have failed, thus, it goes hand in hand with an almost non-existing family policy. De-familialization on the other hand, is a concept used:

*“to capture policies that lessens the individuals’ reliance on the family; that maximizes individual’s command of economic resources independently of familial or conjugal reciprocities ... and the Nordic welfare state regimes remain the only ones where social policy is explicitly designed to maximize women’s economic independence” (Esping-Andersen 1999, p. 51).*

Narrowing the perspective to family policy as such Korpi (2000), Ferrarini (2003, 2005) and Forssén (2005) offer a typology based on two dimensions; general family support (high –low) and dual-earner support (high –low). Sweden along with the other Nordic countries has:

*[i]mplemented dual-earner models of family policy, characterized not only by policies oriented towards extending mothers’ capabilities to combine labour market careers with children, but where fathers also are provided with incentives to engage in care work (Ferrarini and Forrsén 2005, p. 120)*

Ferrarini and Forrsén have created an index of family policy in order to compare welfare democracies. They include child benefits, paid parental leave and public child care take up. Sweden along with the other Nordic countries scores high on the index as well as illustrating the benefits from the dual-earner model (Ferrarini & Forrsén, 2005). The two most salient pillars in the family policy are parental insurance and public day-care. Together those systems help families to reconcile family and work. The next section presents a short overview of parental insurance thereafter follows a presentation of childcare. The section concludes with a glance at the Swedish education system.

## **Parental insurance**

The parental insurance comprises child allowance, parental cash benefit, temporary cash benefit, pregnancy cash benefit, and contact days for children with special needs. It is also possible to see the cash

housing allowance as part of the parental insurance as its aim is to create a basic economic security for families with children. Six per cent of children living with single mothers receive cash housing allowance in order to provide a secure upbringing to the children (Berggren, 2005).

Paid parental leave was introduced in Sweden in the 1960s and entitlements were directly related to women as wage earners. Mothers were entitled to three months of paid leave upon the birth of a child; in 1962 paid leave was prolonged to six months. After that it has gradually increased up to 480 days allocated on a gender quota basis. The compensation level for 390 of these days is 80 per cent of previous salary (up to the same income ceiling as for sick leave). For the remaining 90 days parents receive a flat rate of 7 Euros per day. Parents who were not in employment before the birth or adoption of their child receive a flat rate of 20 Euros per day for the first 390 days of the insurance period, then the same 7 Euro rate as everyone else. The parental leave is allocated on a quota basis, so that the mother and father each have 60 earmarked days, while the remaining days guaranteed by statute can be shared between them at will.

A distinguishing feature of the Swedish parental insurance system is its flexibility. Parents may combine parental leave with work, choosing to work a shorter number of days per week, a shorter number of hours per day or a combination of both until the child's sixth birthday. Recent studies show that some parents use cash benefits for a short period with high replacement level or extend their leave for as long as possible. Others take shorter leave with high replacement and save the cash benefit until later (FRV 2004).

Temporary cash benefit is paid 120 days per child and year according to the same scheme as the sickness benefit. Compensation at the same rate can be transferred from the parents to any other person who stays home from work to care for the sick child.

Pregnancy cash benefit compensates loss of income when working conditions involve risks to the foetus. It is worth noticing that when the new family policy was launched 1974, the maternity leave was abolished, and the fathers was eligible to use the insurance. While there still is the possibility for women to have, pregnancy cash benefit, as explained above, this shall not be equalised with maternity leave. In international comparisons based on OECD countries plus the US, Sweden stands out as the only country that does not have a maternity leave (Ferrarini and Forrsén, 2005).

When the maternity insurance in 1974 was transformed into the parental insurance it was a landmark for the dual earner policy model. The new parental insurance gave equal opportunity for parenting to both parents replacing the older maternity benefits insurance that focused primarily on women. At that time less than three percent of fathers used their right to have parental leave. In 1995, when the first "daddy-month" was introduced, 28 percent of fathers used parental leave. In total, fathers used only about 9 percent of all available days, taking on average of 36 leave days. In 2002, 43 percent of fathers took advantage of the possibility to take parental leave, using 16 percent of all days available, and an average of 28 days leave. (Mamma, pappa – tid och pengar, 2003). The development presents a paradox, the number of fathers involved in care is steadily increasing, but the number of days taken by each individual father is lagging behind.

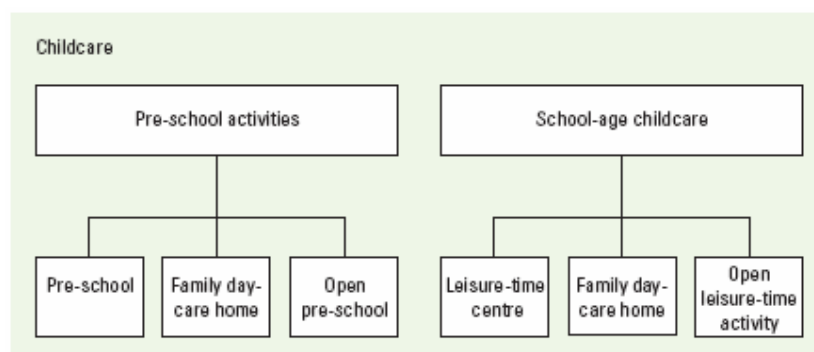
The propensity to become parents in Sweden is related to the situation on the labour market. The benefits in the parental insurance are direct linked to status on the labour market as well as the salary. It seems as whatever strategy the family uses, the outcome tends to give mothers primary responsibility for home and

children, with persisting traditional gender roles, inequality, these results challenge the official goal the “symmetrical family”.

## Childcare

Swedish public child care is organized according to the following scheme. Public child care expanded rapidly in Sweden during the 1970s, and continued to expand in the 1990s. In 2002, 729, 650 children age 0-12 were enrolled in some form of childcare. These children comprise about 57.3 percent or 6 of 10 children of the total number of children in this age category.

Source: *Descriptive data on childcare, schools and adult education in Sweden in 2003. National Agency for Education. Report no.236. Diagram2, p.15.*



The situation for school aged child care is presented below.

For school children are

Public child care covers over 80 percent of all children between 1 to 5 years of age and three quarters of all schoolchildren between 6 to 9 years of age. All parents have by law, the right to place their children in the public day care system. It is also designed with a maximum fee. There is a ceiling for the amount parents are required to pay for each child placed in public day care. At pre-school facilities, the fee is about 135 Euro per month for the family’s first child, 90 Euro for the second child, and 45 Euro for the third child. In the school-age childcare system (leisure-time centres and family day care units), the fee charged is about 90 Euro per month for the family’s first child and 45 Euro for the second and third child (*Early Childhood Education and Care Policy in Sweden 1999*).

Year Activity Principle organiser	Enrolled children					Enrolled children of all in resp. age			
	No. younger than 1 year-old	No. 1–5 yrs	No. 6–9 yrs	No. 10–12 yrs or older	Total 0–12 yrs	Prop. (%) 1–5 yrs	Prop. (%) 6–9 yrs	Prop. (%) 10–12 yrs	Prop. (%) 1–12 yrs
<b>2002</b>									
<b>Childcare, total</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>369 213</b>	<b>324 667</b>	<b>35 741</b>	<b>729 650</b>	<b>80.5</b>	<b>74.7</b>	<b>9.4</b>	<b>57.3</b>
municipal	23	310 571	299 305	32 300	642 199	67.8	68.9	8.5	50.4
private	6	58 642	25 362	3 441	87 451	12.8	5.8	0.9	6.9

Source: *Descriptive data on childcare, schools and adult education in Sweden in 2003. National Agency for Education. Report no. 236. Table2, p. 17.*

## Education system

The educational system provides the basic fundament upon which occupations, both academic and vocational are built. In Sweden, nine years of schooling is compulsory for all children domiciled in Sweden. This means that all children between the ages of 7 and 15 are both entitled and obliged to school in a public or private sector school. The next step, the upper secondary school is 3 years and prepares the pupil for university, college and vocational school. About 98% of compulsory school leavers go on to

upper secondary school. Almost 50 percent of young people continue to higher education within five years of completing their upper secondary schooling. The number of people continuing to higher education has increased during the last decade, between 1993 and 2003 the number of people starting higher education increased by 35 percent. An explanation for the increase was the increasing difficulties for young people to find employment. Furthermore, concurrent with the rationalisation in the labour market was a rise in the demand for personnel with academic qualifications. Women comprised the majority of the new university students. In general, women tend to have slightly higher education level than do men.

## 6. Poverty Prevention through Housing Allowances

Housing allowances dated back to the middle of the 1930s. However, the goals have shifted over the decades both in response to changes in family policy and to housing policy as such. At present, both of these fields of policy are addressed. One main objective included is to give economically weak households resources to ascertain good housing conditions. The housing allowance is made up of two parts, one general means-tested component and one component targeting families with children. It is based on the annual income and adjusted accordingly. Single parent, female headed family is the most frequent recipient of housing allowances, followed by pensioners living on guarantee pensions. Housing allowances are one of the main measures used to reduce poverty (Bostadsbidrag 2004 – för barnfamiljer med flera). Seen in an international comparison, the Swedish welfare state is one of the most effective states in reducing poverty (Palme & Kangas 2005).

## 7. Conclusions

We began this presentation by pointing out some of the changes we expect to occur in Sweden in the next 10 to 15 years. Given the experiences of the 1990s, the future for Swedish citizens is not easy to discern, much depends on how well the future adheres to the prognoses concerning demographic changes and fertility. The vision is made more complex by projected trends in employment that raise questions about how well the labour market will function in the future.

Sweden was one of few countries that did not close its labour market to labour or request special exemptions regarding labour from new EU members in 2004, Sweden's experience of relative high levels of unemployment with the present labour reserve in spite of exceptional rates of economic growth has raised skepticism towards open immigration. As a result Swedish citizens have reassessed their views on free immigration of low-paid labour from the newly admitted EU countries and on immigration in general. At present, Swedish citizens tend to also be wary of globalisation in the labour markets. Globalisation and immigration are both issues of particular interest since they put pressure on labour market partners. This implies that the roles for labour market partners will change considerably over the next few years, in future; perhaps both trade unions and employer organisations must accept more intervention in the labour market by the state.

The resilience of the Swedish model during the economic recession of the 1990s has lain to rest some of the gloomy tales of the demise of the model. However, the failure of the economic boom to produce jobs, the rise in the number of individuals not working due to work-related injuries or illness are still causes for concern. Active labour market policies will be of central importance in the future as demands for new competences, regional differences in labour demand, and demand for rehabilitation to prepare those suffering from work related injuries for new job opportunities become the key to finding new employment.

## Literature

- Ackum Agell, S. (1995) "Swedish labour market programmes: Efficiency and timing" *Swedish Economic Policy Review* nr 2:65-98.
- Andersson, J. (2005) "The Swedish National Council for Crime Prevention – a presentation" in *Journal of Scandinavian Studies Criminology and Crime prevention*, Vol 6:74-88.
- Berglind, H. & Rundblad, B. (1975) *Arbetsmarknaden i Sverige*, Stockholm: Esselte Studium.
- Berggren, S. (2005) *An overview of the Swedish family benefits – goals and developments*. The Swedish Social Service Agency, Working papers.
- Bernhardt, Eva, (2000) *Unga vuxnas syn på familj och arbete* Centrum för kvinnoforskning skriftserie 20: Stockholm.
- Bostadsbidrag 2004 – för barnfamiljer med flera. Statistik 2005:4. Försäkringskassan Sverige.
- Bäck-Wiklund, M. (2002) "The Family and the Welfare State: a Route to De-familialization" in Liljeström, R. & Özdalga, E. (ed.) *Autonomy and Dependence in The Family*. Istanbul: The Swedish Research Institute in Istanbul.
- Calmfors, L. et al (2001) "Does active labour market policy work? Lessons from the Swedish experience" *Swedish Economic Policy Review*, Vol. 8, nr 2:61-124.
- Carling K. & Richardson, K. (2001) The relative efficiency of labour market programmes: Swedish experience from the 1990s. IFAU Working Paper 2001:2 Uppsala.
- Dahlström, E. (1992) "Debatten om kön och familj under svensk efterkrigstid" i Acker, J. et. al. (red.) *Kvinnors och mäns liv och arbete*. Stockholm: Studieförbundet näringsliv och arbete.
- de los Reyes, P. (2006) *Arbetslivets (o)synliga murar*, SOU 2006:59, pp. 9-33.
- Descriptive data on childcare, schools and adult education in Sweden in 2003. National Agency for Education. Report no.236.
- Early Childhood Education and Care Policy in Sweden. Regeringskansliet december 1999.
- Ekberg J. & Hammarstedt, M. (2002) "20 år med allt sämre arbetsmarknadsintegrering för invandrare", *Ekonomisk Debatt* nr 4.
- Ekberg, J & Rooth, D-O. (2001) "Är invandrare oprioriterade inom arbetsmarknadspolitiken?" *Ekonomisk debatt* nr 4.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1990) *The three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Esping-Andersen, G. (1999) *Social Foundations of Postindustrial Economies*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Essén, A. (2002) *Svensk invandring och arbetsmarknaden Återblick och nuläge*, Arbetsrapport/Institutet för Framtidsstudier:6.
- Ferrarini, T. & Forssén, K. (2005) "Family Policy and Cross-National Patterns of Poverty" in Kangas, O. & Palme, J. (ed.) *Social Policy and economic development in the Nordic countries*. London: Palgrave.
- Folbre, N. (1994) *Who pays for the kids?: gender and the structure of constraint*, London, New York: Routledge.
- Gustafsson, B. & Palmer, E. "Was the Burden of the Deep Swedish Recession Equally Shared?" *Review of Income and Wealth*, series 48: 4 Dec. 2002, pp 537-560.
- Hedin, G. (2001) "Utländsk bakgrund ger sent inträde i arbetslivet". *Välstånd* Nr. 3: 20-21.

- Hirdman, Y. (1989) Att lägga livet till rätta – studier i svensk folkhemspolitik, Stockholm: Carlssons förlag.
- Hirdman, Y. (1990) “*Genusystemet*” i Demokrati och Makt i Sverige, Maktutredningens huvudrapport. SOU 1990:44.
- Hirdman, Y. (1998) Med kliven tunga- LO och genusordningen, Stockholm: Atlas.
- Hobson, B. & Morgan, D. (2002) (ed) Making Men into Fathers. Men, Masculinities and the Social Politics of Fatherhood. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Håkansson, K. (2001) “Tidsbegränsade arbeten – sprängbräda eller segmentering?” *VälfärdsBulletinen* nr 2.
- Kjellberg, A. (1983) Trade Union Organizations in Twelve Countries. Lund: Arkiv.
- Korpi, W. (2002) “Faces of Inequality: Gender, Class and Patterns of Inequalities in Different types of Welfare States”, *Social Politics*, 7 (2):127-191.
- Klinth, R. (2002) *Göra pappa med barn*. Umeå: Boréa.
- Källemark, A-S. (1980) *More Children of Better Quality?* Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell.
- Lane, L. (2004) Trying to Make a Living- Studies in the economic life of women in interwar Sweden. Göteborg: Livrena.
- Lewis, J. (1993) Women and Social Policies in Europe, Work, Family and the State. Aldershot: Edward Elgar.
- Lundberg, J. (2005) “Work-related disorders in Sweden” *European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions*. [www.eurofound.eu.int](http://www.eurofound.eu.int) pp. 1-8.
- Lundh, C. (2002) Spelets regler, institutioner och lönebildning på den svenska arbetsmarknaden 1850-2000, Stockholm: SNS förlag.
- Lundqvist, T. (2005) *The Employers in the Swedish Model*. Arbetsrapport/Institutet för Framtidsstudier:2.
- Magnusson, L. & Ottosson, J. (2003) ”Den tredje industriella revolutionen och ”den nya ekonomin” – mellan sken och verklighet” in von Otter, C. (red.) *Ute och inne i svenskt arbetsliv*. Stockholm: Arbetslivsinstitutet.
- Mamma, pappa tid och pengar (2003) Socialförsäkringsboken, Stockholm: Riksförsäkringsverket.
- *Meeting the challenge of ageing in good time: some successful policy responses*, EU- Memo/06/372, <http://europa.eu/rapid/pressReleasesAction.do?reference=MEMO/06/372&format=HTML&aged=0&language=EN&guiLanguage=en>, 2006-10-19.
- Myrdal, A. & Myrdal, G. (1935) *Kris i befolkningsfrågan*. Bonniers: Stockholm.
- Myrdal, A. (1944) *Folk och familj*. Stockholm, KF:s förlag.
- Myrdal, A. & Klein, V. (1957) Kvinnans två roller. Stockholm: Tidens Förlag.
- Nilsson, Å. (2002) Befolkningsutvecklingen i Trender och Prognoser 2002, [http://www.scb.se/statistik/AM/UF0520/2003M00/AM85SÅ0201\\_03.pdf](http://www.scb.se/statistik/AM/UF0520/2003M00/AM85SÅ0201_03.pdf)
- Palme, J. & Kangas, O. (ed) (2005) Social Policy and Economic Development in the Nordic Countries. London: Palgrave.
- Persson, G. et al. (2006) ”Health in Sweden: The National Public Health Report 2005”, *Scandinavian Journal of Public Health*, nr 34 Suppl. 67:3-10.
- Plantin, L. (2001) *Män, familjeliv & föräldraskap*. Umeå: Boréa.
- Proposition 1987/88.105 Om jämställdhetspolitiken inför 90-talet.
- Oláh, L. (1998) ”Sweden, the Middle Way. A Feminist Approach”. *The European Journal of Women’s Studies* (5):47-67.

- RFV (2004) Flexibel föräldrapenning. Hur mammor och pappor använder föräldraförsäkringen och hur länge de är föräldralediga. Rapport nr 2004:14. Stockholm: Riksförsäkringsverket.
- Ruggie, M. (1987) "Worker's Movements and Women's Interest: The Impact of Labor-State Relations in Britain and Sweden" in *The Women's Movements of the United States and Western Europe* Mary F. Katzenstein & Carol M. Mueller (eds.) Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Sainsbury, D. (1994) *Gendering Welfare States*. London: Sage.
- SCB (2005) [http://www.scb.se/templates/pressinfo\\_\\_\\_181320.asp](http://www.scb.se/templates/pressinfo___181320.asp).
- SCB (2006) Pressmeddelande nr 2006:258 Arbetskraftsundersökningen i September 2006.
- SCB (2006) Pressmeddelande nr 2006:259 Tio år i rad med ökad standard i September 2006.
- SCB (1995) *Facts and figures*. Stockholm: Statistiska Centralbyrån.
- Schierup, C.-U. (2006) *Den sociala exkluderingen in Sverige*, SOU 2006:59, pp. 35-99.
- Sianesi, B. (2002) "An evaluation of the Swedish system of active labour market programmes in the 1990s" IFS Working Paper W02/01.
- Skedinger, P. (2005) "Hur höga är minimilönerna?" *IFAU – Institutet för arbetsmarknadspolitisk utvärdering*, Stockholm.
- Skjöld, C. (2005) "Fler besväras av datorarbete" *Välfärd* nr 4:16-17.
- Szücs, S. et al (2003) "Organisatoriska faktors betydelse för långa sjukskrivningar i kommuner". *Arbete & Hälsa: 6*, Arbetslivsinstitutet:Stockholm.
- Wikman, A. (2002) "Temporära kontrakt & inläsningseffekter" *VälfärdsBulletinen* nr 1.