



WORK AND WELFARE IN EUROPE

The Dynamics of Welfare Markets

Private Pensions and
Domestic/Care Services in Europe

Edited by
Clémence Ledoux · Karen Shire
Franca van Hooren

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Work and Welfare in Europe

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Franca van Hooren
Editors

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Part I

Mapping the Dynamics of Welfare Markets



1

Introduction: From the Emergence to the Dynamics of Welfare Markets

Clémence Ledoux, Karen Shire,
and Franca van Hooren

1.1 Introduction

Since the 1980s, ideologies orienting welfare reforms in many European countries support replacing state provision with market-based and private provision of welfare (Taylor-Gooby 1998). Despite over 30 years of

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such reforms, welfare states have far from disappeared. Instead, the role of the state and the nature of welfare policies have changed. Welfare states have developed competition, separated the functions of providing and funding welfare goods and services (Le Grand 1991), created and subsidized the development of markets, and imbued them with welfare goals (Nullmeier 2001; Bode 2008; Gingrich 2011; Köppe 2015; Pieper 2018), examples of which range from the development of school vouchers (Köppe 2015) to cash for eldercare schemes (Ungerson and Yeandle 2007; Da Roit and Le Bihan 2010; Ranci and Pavolini 2013), tax incentives for the payment of household services (Carbonnier and Morel 2015), housing support (Pollard 2011), and private pensions (Hacker 2004; Ebbinghaus 2011). With the establishment of market mechanisms within public policies, social policies, ironically, use these to protect against market risks (Köppe 2015), and contrary to Esping-Andersen's original claims, social politics no longer appear *against* markets (Esping-Andersen 1985), but instead *with* markets (Leibfried and Obinger 2000; Pieper 2018). The concept of welfare markets, rather than being an oxymoron, has been adopted to characterize these transformations and to go beyond the opposition between market/non-market spheres in the analysis of the different interpenetrations between market mechanisms and welfare states (Bode 2008; Gingrich 2011). The contributors to this volume agree on a definition of welfare markets as politically shaped, regulated, and state-supported markets, which provide social goods and services through the competitive activities of non-state actors.

We begin to build a conceptual basis for studying the dynamic development of welfare markets by drawing on research in the sociology of markets and political economy focused on the emergence of market structures generally (Beckert 2009; Aspers 2011; Ahrne et al. 2015), and adapting these perspectives to the specific dimensions shaping *welfare* markets. From these perspectives, market making is a dynamic process, involving not only top-down policies and rules, but also changes in normative understandings of the meaning of what is exchanged, and agreements on how markets work. The aim of this book is to examine these dynamics, in relation to how European welfare markets have developed since the 1990s. We do so from an explicitly actor-centred perspective, focusing not only on the state and private sector (including profit and non-profit organizations), domains of action which are in part already well covered in the

welfare market literature, but also on the perspectives of consumers, users,¹ and, where applicable, workers delivering services exchanged in welfare markets. Though in all cases, new policies are highly significant events in the creation of welfare markets, a central thesis of the contributions to this book is that welfare markets develop not only out of state policies, but are also significantly shaped by the practices of welfare recipients, who are often transformed into consumers of private goods and services, and by workers and their employers in the emerging welfare service industries.

The contributions in this volume aim at filling the gap in understanding welfare market *dynamics* through an action-centred approach to welfare *marketization* as a process of institutional change. Following Mahoney and Thelen (2010), we emphasize how the way in which state policies are implemented and interpreted by actors involved in the market exchange of welfare contributes to layering welfare markets onto existing welfare institutions, or to displacing earlier forms of state or other types of welfare provision. The analysis of the dynamics of welfare markets focuses on continental and Scandinavian European countries, which began to legislate welfare market instruments in the 1990s, later than most countries classified as liberal-market welfare states. Two cases of welfare markets comprise the empirical focus: private pensions and home-based domestic/care work (see below for an elaboration of our choice of cases). The analysis covers multiple levels of European and national politics and markets, and the impact of cross-national differences in welfare states on market dynamics, covering countries often classified as conservative or familial welfare states, as well as social-democratic, and Eastern European welfare states. The breadth of country cases and types of welfare states contributes to analysing regional differences in welfare market dynamics.

This introductory chapter begins with an interrogation of the nature of markets in general (Sect. 1.2) before analysing the specificities of welfare markets (Sect. 1.3), the instruments which structure them (Sect. 1.4), and their outcomes (Sect. 1.5). We then discuss the theoretical significance of new sets of actors, and their agency for the dynamics of welfare markets (Sect. 1.6), the two fields of private pensions and home-based domestic/care services (Sect. 1.7) and finish with the contributions of each of the chapters (Sect. 1.8) and the knowledge generated by this volume for understanding the dynamics of welfare markets outside of the traditionally liberal-market welfare states (Sect. 1.9).

1.2 Definition of Markets

Markets have been defined very differently across economics and the social sciences. We draw on the new sociology of markets, which defines a market as a social interaction which produces “a social structure for the exchange of rights in which offers are evaluated and priced, and compete with one another, which is shorthand for the fact that actors – individuals and firms – compete with one another via offers” (Aspers 2011, p. 4). This definition highlights the competitive nature of market exchanges, thus defining markets as present, in the words of Max Weber, “wherever there is competition, even if only unilateral, for opportunities of exchange among a plurality of potential parties” (Weber 1978, p. 635). Market exchanges may involve individual or organized actors and are distinguished further by their voluntary nature. Market exchanges can “transcend the boundaries of neighbourhood, kinship, or tribe” and give the possibility for people who did not know each other before to buy and sell goods or services (Weber 1978, p. 637). Herein lies the source of uncertainties in market exchanges, which must be solved in order to establish a stable market order (Beckert 2009; François 2008; Aspers 2011). As Beckert (2009) argues, the competitive and voluntary nature of markets presents market actors with coordination problems, which actors eventually seek to solve through embedding exchanges in (non-market) macrostructures. These structures include formal and informal institutions which take the form of rules, norms, and shared understandings of what a market is about and how it works (see also Fligstein 2001; Aspers 2011).

Market uncertainties are not solved in a day, if ever. Aspers introduces a dynamic concept of markets, differentiating between ways in which markets are created, and stages through which they develop, possibly ending in a consolidated market, but also possibly failing (Aspers 2011; Ahrne et al. 2015). In the market theory of Fligstein (2001), markets are established through political struggles between market actors, who eventually align their interests and develop shared cultural understandings about the market. The development of a market culture is also central to Aspers’ dynamic theory of markets, as he sees the establishment of a market culture as the development of a common understanding about what the market is about, and how things are done in a specific market (Aspers

2011). The sociology of markets also points to the need for shared understandings about what is commodified, that is, about which objects can be legitimately produced for sale (Engels 2009). Once objects are produced for sale, a number of issues remain in determining their value, a process rendering them comparable to other objects and exchange currencies (Beckert 2009; Engels 2009).

Welfare markets do not arise spontaneously but are organized, and almost by definition, state-organized and publicly governed. From a sociological perspective, which always sees markets as embedded in macrostructures and institutions (in the form of rules, norms, and shared understandings), the *public* governance of welfare markets is not unusual. Shifting the focus of research to the dynamics of markets does, however, raise the question of how welfare markets, once initiated through state policies, develop through the agency of market actors.

In the next section, we focus on the specificities of the market exchange of welfare and begin to outline the specific goals of this volume in studying the dynamics of welfare markets.

1.3 Welfare Markets

Welfare markets have introduced “competitive spheres in the institutional provision of social welfare” (Bode 2008). Over the last 30 years, European welfare states have turned increasingly to market mechanisms for the provision of welfare. Local, national, and/or European political authorities contributed to different policy instruments to generate competition, and to create and regulate these markets (Bode 2008; Gingrich 2011; Köppe 2015; Crespy 2016; Crespy, Chap. 3; Bitinas, Chap. 11). Previous research pointed to the emergence of quasi-markets (Le Grand 1991), where the state becomes “a funder, purchasing services from a variety of private, voluntary and public providers, all operating in competition with one another” (Le Grand 1991, p. 1257). Our conceptualization of welfare markets overlaps partly with Le Grand’s understanding of quasi-markets, but there are also key differences. By defining welfare markets as politically shaped, regulated, and state-supported markets, which provide social goods and services through the competitive activities of non-state

actors, we exclude those forms of quasi-markets that consist only of competition of the new public management type, within and between state organizations. Instead, our focus is on markets involving non-state and private actors. Contrary to the quasi-markets concept, welfare markets include markets in which the state is not the purchaser of welfare goods or services, but instead subsidizes non-state market actors in order to give them the possibility to exchange welfare services or goods.

We follow an open definition of what constitutes social goods and services, which can be identified as such either by the functions they perform or by the fact that they are considered as such by the actors involved. In both cases, social goods and services are concerned with the social security of individuals and the social reproduction of society.

As politically shaped and regulated markets providing social goods and services, welfare markets are closely related to the welfare state and its different public policy instruments. In certain cases, welfare markets have been added as an additional layer onto more traditional policies, such as the introduction of a private pension scheme next to statutory public pensions. In other cases, welfare markets have replaced existing public provisions, or developed parallel to familial activities, as has often been the case with welfare markets for care services.

Studies of welfare markets in sociology and political economy have been very prolific in analysing the emergence of market structures and the rapid and ‘external shocks’ affecting markets, for example, economic crises. Existing work on welfare markets has underlined how institutions of the welfare state have played a central role in reorienting citizens to the market for protections that had traditionally been provided by families or social policies. Several studies have underlined the coherence between welfare state regimes and welfare market regimes (Köppe 2015). The role of agency in the rise of welfare markets has also received attention in some studies (Gingrich 2011; Meagher and Goodwin 2015; Crespy 2016; Pieper 2018), as have the cultural dimensions of welfare markets (Bode 2008).

Yet, few studies have systematically analysed how welfare markets develop once created, and/or the consequences of different developments for the actual provision of welfare. In this volume, we focus on what *happens after* states initiate welfare markets. Aspers’ phase model of market

development (2011) distinguishes between an initial period of organized introduction of a market and the contraction of a market around a specific set of actors supplying and demanding a good or service defining a specific market and sharing the rules, normative orientations, and understandings of what the market is about and how exchanges are conducted. We argue that an actor-centred focus which includes non-state as well as state actors is key to understanding how welfare markets grow and operate, who gains market access, uncovering the informal as well as formal dimensions of rules governing exchanges, their monitoring, and the sanctioning of misuses. Subsequent and reactive responses of states to re-regulate or alter welfare markets are also part of this focus.

To analyse welfare market dynamics, we first need a set of shared conceptual tools to characterize welfare market institutions and outcomes. The subsequent sections of this chapter describe these tools, used in all contributions in the book, and preview the kinds of dynamics, which can be associated with various institutional set-ups. The shared conceptualizations used throughout the book render the dynamics of highly diverse welfare markets, most of which emerged in the 1990s, and in the subsequent three decades have undergone considerable reform, intelligible and comparable.

1.4 Policy Instruments Structuring Welfare Markets

In his classic welfare regime typology, Esping-Andersen (1990) distinguished between three providers of welfare: the state, the family and the market. When welfare is provided by the state, the state directly provides insurance benefits (such as pensions benefits) or services (such as care services). There is no competition among providers, because the state is the provider. In the two other alternatives, the state is in principle not involved, since welfare is provided either by the family, meaning that families provide income security or care, or by the market, meaning that individuals have to purchase care services or insurance benefits on the market.²

According to the definition we use in this volume, a market becomes a *welfare* market when the state is involved in initiating, regulating, financing, and/or communicating (about) a market where the goods and services exchanged are defined by the actors or researchers as *welfare* goods and services. As such, it can be seen as something in-between ‘pure’ state or market provision of welfare.

With the policy instruments of welfare markets, we refer to the way in which the state organizes welfare markets. We distinguish three key sets of instruments (see Table 1.1 below). First, instruments that regulate the financing of the consumption or production of welfare goods and

Table 1.1 Policy instruments structuring welfare markets

Type of policy instrument	Main options	Explanation
Financial	Demand side: client receives cash allowance	The state finances clients to enable them to purchase welfare goods or services on the market
	Demand side: client receives fiscal benefits (e.g. tax break)	The state creates tax incentives to encourage clients to purchase welfare goods and services on the market
	Supply side: private provider or welfare workers involved in the production of welfare goods/services are subsidized	The state subsidizes the price of services by private providers and/or the wages of welfare workers
Regulatory	Coordinating exchange	These instruments help to make sure welfare goods and services are paid to the seller and provided to the buyer
	Standards	These instruments help to define and evaluate the quality and limit the cost of the welfare goods and services produced
Informational	Communication campaigns, or platforms, administrative agencies	These instruments help to develop a welfare market culture and to legitimize the commodification of welfare goods and services

services; second, policy instruments that aim to secure the exchange and guarantee minimum quality standards, for example, through certification; and third, policy instruments used to communicate information about welfare markets.

1.4.1 Financial Instruments

The financial instruments of welfare markets either remove the state from the provision of welfare goods and services or introduce private provision in addition to, or competing with, state provision. The aim of financial instruments is to stimulate the development of a market for benefits or services. Among the various ways in which states can finance welfare markets, a key distinction is the choice to support either the demand side or the supply side of the market. Both instruments often “blur the lines between public and private” (Gingrich, Chap. 2).

When states finance the supply side, that is, by subsidizing organizations or the costs of service workers, private providers either compete with each other for public orders or receive funding based on the number of clients they serve. To comply with European Union competition law, such competition is often organized through public tenders. The financing of welfare providers requires the development of financial expertise among both public officials and the participating providers. States can also finance labour costs directly, by subsidizing wages or reducing social contribution obligations of employers.

States can finance the demand side by directly subsidizing welfare clients, through cash transfers or tax breaks/credits, with the aim of enabling them to purchase welfare services or goods. A cash allowance means clients receive a cash transfer with which they can purchase a service. In this case, they can easily trace a relation between an outcome (their use of a welfare service or good) and some governmental action. The goods and services that are purchased can vary from a place in a child care centre or home care provided by a care assistant to participation in a voluntary pension scheme. Cash allowances have become prevalent across the home-based services sector (Evers et al. 1994; Ungerson and Yeandle 2007; Da Roit and Le Bihan 2010; Ranci and Pavolini 2013), for