

The Sources of Labour Law

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Editors

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The Sources of Labour Law

Edited by

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Summary of Contents

Editors	v
Contributors	vii
Foreword	xxix
Acknowledgements	xxxii
CHAPTER 1	
Introduction: Recent Trends in the Hierarchy of Labour Law Sources <i>Tamás Gyulavári & Emanuele Menegatti</i>	1
PART I	
Horizontal Issues	15
CHAPTER 2	
Recalling Some of the Historical Roots for Twenty-First Century Approaches to Regulation of the World of Work <i>Alan C. Neal</i>	17
CHAPTER 3	
The Regulatory Function of Collective Agreements in the Light of Its Relationship with Statutory Instruments and Individual Rights: A Multilevel Approach <i>Edoardo Ales</i>	37
CHAPTER 4	
Judge-Made Law in the Common Law World: A Conservative Influence on the Transformation of Labour Law by Statute <i>Joellen Riley Munton</i>	75

Summary of Contents

CHAPTER 5	
Filling the (Increasing) Gaps: The Role of Judges as Substitute Legislators in Labour Law in the Civil Law Countries	
<i>Martin Risak</i>	95
CHAPTER 6	
The Impact of the European Union Economic Governance on the Hierarchy of National Labour Law Sources	
<i>Emanuele Menegatti</i>	115
PART II	
National Reports	141
CHAPTER 7	
Australia's Layered and Evolving System of Labour Regulation	
<i>Andrew Stewart & Mark Bray</i>	143
CHAPTER 8	
The (Once) Radical Continuities of Brazil Labor Regulation	
<i>Jedidiah Kroncke</i>	165
CHAPTER 9	
Multilayers and Complexity of Chinese Labour Laws Sources	
<i>Dong Yan</i>	179
CHAPTER 10	
The Danish Struggle to Maintain the Primacy of Collective Bargaining	
<i>Christian Højer Schjøler</i>	193
CHAPTER 11	
The Tremendous Upheaval in Sources of Labour Law in France	
<i>Isabelle Daugareilh</i>	213
CHAPTER 12	
The Sources of German Labour Law	
<i>Manfred Weiss</i>	229
CHAPTER 13	
The Hungarian Experiment to Promote Collective Bargaining: Farewell to 'Principle of Favour'	
<i>Tamás Gyulavári</i>	245

CHAPTER 14	
The Precarious Balance among Hierarchy, Coordination and Competition in the Italian System of Labour Law Sources	
<i>Iacopo Senatori</i>	261
CHAPTER 15	
Collective Bargaining in the Shadow of Legislation: Labour Law Sources in Poland	
<i>Lukasz Pisarczyk</i>	281
CHAPTER 16	
Law in Transformation: The Evolution of the System of Labour Law Sources in Russia – Tensions and Opportunities	
<i>Olga Rymkevich</i>	299
CHAPTER 17	
Spain: A Lasting Struggle about the Boundaries of Statutory Law and Collective Bargaining	
<i>José Maria Miranda Boto</i>	319
CHAPTER 18	
Sources of Labour Law in Sweden	
<i>Jenny Julén Votinius</i>	335
CHAPTER 19	
Collective Agreements on the Crest of the Legislative Wave, but the Common Law Still Making Ripples: The Sources of Labour Law in South Africa	
<i>Rochelle Le Roux</i>	351
CHAPTER 20	
The Informing Ethos Behind the Sources of UK National Labour Law	
<i>Michael Doherty & David Mangan</i>	369
CHAPTER 21	
Sources of Labor Law in the United States: Contract Supra Omnis	
<i>Paul Secunda</i>	389

Table of Contents

Editors	v
Contributors	vii
Foreword	xxix
Acknowledgements	xxxii
CHAPTER 1	
Introduction: Recent Trends in the Hierarchy of Labour Law Sources <i>Tamás Gyulavári & Emanuele Menegatti</i>	1
1.1 Objectives and Structure of the Book	2
1.2 Horizontal Chapters	3
1.3 The Circle and Issues of National Reports	4
1.3.1 The Constitutional Dimension of Labour Regulation	5
1.3.2 The Relationship Between Statutory Law and Collective Bargaining	6
1.3.3 Decentralisation of Collective Bargaining	8
1.3.4 The Role of the Employment Contract	12
PART I	
Horizontal Issues	15
CHAPTER 2	
Recalling Some of the Historical Roots for Twenty-First Century Approaches to Regulation of the World of Work <i>Alan C. Neal</i>	17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 The Foundation Stone of Something Known as the ‘Contract of Employment’	20

Table of Contents

2.3	A Note on Experience in Socialist Systems of Labour Regulation	23
2.4	Emergence of the Collective Agreement as an Instrument of (Quasi-Autonomous) Regulation	26
2.5	The Rise and Rise of Normative Intervention by the State	29
2.6	Adjustment for the Regulation of Labour Law in a Global Setting	30
	Bibliography	33

CHAPTER 3

The Regulatory Function of Collective Agreements in the Light of Its Relationship with Statutory Instruments and Individual Rights: A Multilevel Approach

	<i>Edoardo Ales</i>	37
3.1	The Recognition of the Regulatory Function	37
	3.1.1 The International Labour Organisation	37
	3.1.2 The European Union	41
	3.1.3 The Council of Europe	54
3.2	Actors and Instruments	55
3.3	Limits to the Regulatory Function of Collective Bargaining and Agreements	60
3.4	Delegated Derogatory and Regulatory Functions	64
3.5	The Individual Rights	66
3.6	Conclusions	68
	Bibliography	69

CHAPTER 4

Judge-Made Law in the Common Law World: A Conservative Influence on the Transformation of Labour Law by Statute

	<i>Joellen Riley Munton</i>	75
4.1	Introduction	75
4.2	Employment	78
	4.2.1 Control	79
	4.2.2 Integration	80
	4.2.3 Economic Reality	80
	4.2.4 Mutuality of Obligation	81
	4.2.5 Multi-Indicia or Multifactorial Test	82
4.3	Implied Terms	83
4.4	Common Law Duty of Care	85
4.5	Duty to Provide Work	86
4.6	Common Law Constraints on Industrial Action	88
4.7	Collective Agreements Made under Statute and Common Law Contracts	89

4.8	Conclusions	91
	Bibliography	91
CHAPTER 5		
Filling the (Increasing) Gaps: The Role of Judges as Substitute Legislators in Labour Law in the Civil Law Countries		
	<i>Martin Risak</i>	95
5.1	Introduction	95
5.2	Employment	99
5.3	Implied Terms	105
5.4	The General Duty of Care	105
5.5	Duty to (Actually) Provide Work	106
5.6	Constraints on Industrial Action	108
5.7	Collective Agreements: Legal Effects and the Relationship Between Different Agreements	110
5.8	Conclusions	113
	Bibliography	114
CHAPTER 6		
The Impact of the European Union Economic Governance on the Hierarchy of National Labour Law Sources		
	<i>Emanuele Menegatti</i>	115
6.1	Introduction	115
6.2	The ‘Ordinary’ and ‘Extraordinary’ Channels of the EU Economic Governance	116
6.3	The Economic Paradigm Underpinning the EEG Intervention on Labour Law Sources	118
6.4	Economic Governance Versus National System of Employment Regulation	121
	6.4.1 The Case of France	121
	6.4.2 The Case of Italy	125
	6.4.3 The Case of Portugal	128
6.5	The Achievements of the EEG	132
	6.5.1 The Legal Changes under the ‘Implicit’ Conditionality	132
	6.5.2 The Changes in Actual Practice: The Resistance of Social Partners	133
6.6	Conclusions	136
	Bibliography	137
PART II		
	National Reports	141

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 7

Australia's Layered and Evolving System of Labour Regulation

Andrew Stewart & Mark Bray

		143
7.1	Introduction	143
7.2	Sources of Australian Labour Law: An Overview	145
	7.2.1 Constitutional Norms	145
	7.2.2 Legislation	146
	7.2.3 Delegated Legislation	146
	7.2.4 Collective Agreements	147
	7.2.5 Statutory Individual Agreements	148
	7.2.6 The Common Law	149
	7.2.7 Soft Law	151
7.3	A Changing Mix of Sources	152
	7.3.1 The Arbitration System, Pre-1993	152
	7.3.2 The Industrial Relations Reform Act, 1993-1996	152
	7.3.3 The Workplace Relations Act, 1996-2006	153
	7.3.4 The 'Work Choices' Regime, 2006-2009	154
	7.3.5 The Fair Work Act 2009	155
7.4	Key Trends	155
7.5	Three Distinctive Features of Australian Labour Law	156
	7.5.1 The Continuing Role of Awards	157
	7.5.2 Non-union Collective Agreements	159
	7.5.3 The Layering of Regulatory Instruments	160
7.6	Conclusions	161
	Bibliography	162

CHAPTER 8

The (Once) Radical Continuities of Brazil Labor Regulation

Jedidiah Kroncke

		165
8.1	The Corporatist Foundations of Brazilian Labor Law	165
8.2	The Progressive Constitutionalization of Brazilian Labor Law	168
8.3	The Enduring Centrality of the CLT in Statutory Labor Law	170
8.4	The Narrowing Scope of Collective Bargaining	172
8.5	The Rise of the Labor Court Precedents	174
8.6	The Emergence of Individual Contracting	175
8.7	The Uncertainty Ahead for Brazilian Labor Law	176
	Bibliography	177

CHAPTER 9

Multilayers and Complexity of Chinese Labour Laws Sources

Dong Yan

		179
9.1	Introduction	179

9.2	Labour Laws Issued by the NPC and the State Council: The ‘Core Laws’	180
9.2.1	The Prominent Role of NPC	180
9.2.2	Administrative Regulations of the State Council	182
9.3	Labour Regulations from Other Sources (‘Peripheral Instruments’)	182
9.3.1	Ministerial Regulations	183
9.3.2	Judicial Interpretations	184
9.3.3	Local Regulations	185
9.3.4	Collective Agreements	186
9.3.5	Code of Conduct	187
9.3.6	Individual Employment Contract	187
9.4	Hierarchy of Chinese Labour Laws	188
9.5	Developments and Challenges on the Sources of Labour Law	189
9.6	Conclusion	190
	Bibliography	191
CHAPTER 10		
	The Danish Struggle to Maintain the Primacy of Collective Bargaining <i>Christian Højer Schjøler</i>	193
10.1	Introduction and Relevant Sources of Labour Law	193
10.1.1	Principles Governing the Hierarchy	193
10.1.2	Historical Background	194
10.1.3	Collective Agreements and Statutory Legislation as Legal Norms in Labour Law	195
10.2	Interplay and Hierarchy Between Legislation and Collective Agreements	197
10.2.1	The Normative Effect of Collective Agreements Without <i>Erga Omnes</i>	199
10.2.1.1	Presumption of Normative Effect Regardless of Membership	199
10.2.2	The Enforceability of Collective Agreements	201
10.3	Where Do Collective Agreements Fit into the Legal Hierarchy?	203
10.3.1	Types of Collective Agreements	203
10.3.2	The Effect of the Hierarchy on the Relation Between the Agreements	205
10.3.3	The Interplay Between Collective Agreements and Statutory Legislation	206
10.4	Collective Agreements as an Opt-In Choice for the Employee?	209
10.4.1	Thoughts on the Novel Approach	210
10.5	Conclusions	210
	Bibliography	211

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 11

The Tremendous Upheaval in Sources of Labour Law in France

<i>Isabelle Daugareilh</i>	213
11.1 Introduction	213
11.2 The Reorganisation of Labour Law Around Agreement-Based Sources	217
11.2.1 The Orchestration of the Legislators' Legal Retreat	217
11.2.2 Limitations Placed on Employment Contracts and the Courts by Legislation	219
11.3 The Key Position of Enterprise-Level Agreements in the New Organisation of Agreement-Based Sources	221
11.3.1 The Confrontation Between Enterprise-Level and Sectoral Agreements	222
11.3.1.1 The End of the 'Most Favourable' Principle	222
11.3.1.2 Sectoral Agreements Superseded	224
11.3.2 A New Era for Professional Sources on Enterprise Level	226
11.4 Conclusion	227
Bibliography	228

CHAPTER 12

The Sources of German Labour Law

<i>Manfred Weiss</i>	229
12.1 Introduction	229
12.2 The Sources	230
12.2.1 Constitution	230
12.2.2 Statutory Law	231
12.2.3 Courts Decisions	231
12.2.4 Collective Agreements	232
12.2.5 Works Agreements	233
12.2.6 The Individual Employment Contract	233
12.2.7 Custom	233
12.3 Problems and Trends	234
12.3.1 Failed Attempts to Codification	234
12.3.2 Experimental and Dispositive Statutory Law	235
12.3.3 The Erosion of Collective Bargaining	236
12.3.3.1 Main Reasons for the Erosion	236
12.3.3.2 Attempts to Stop the Erosion	238
12.4 Relationship Between Different Collective Agreements	239
12.5 Relationship Between Collective Agreements and Works Agreements	240
12.6 The Principle of More Favourable Conditions	243

12.7	Conclusions	243
	Bibliography	244
CHAPTER 13		
The Hungarian Experiment to Promote Collective Bargaining: Farewell to 'Principle of Favour'		
	<i>Tamás Gyulavári</i>	245
13.1	Introduction	245
13.2	Historical Evolution of Labour Law Sources	246
	13.2.1 Before World War II	246
	13.2.2 Socialist Labour Law	246
	13.2.3 Collective Agreements Between 1992 and 2012	247
13.3	Reform on Collective Agreements in 2012	249
	13.3.1 Free Deviation from the Law by Collective Agreements	250
	13.3.2 Decentralization of Collective Bargaining	252
	13.3.3 Normative Works Agreement: Auxiliary Channel of Collective Bargaining	252
13.4	Employment Contract: Rising in Pejius Derogations	254
13.5	Meaning of the 'More Favourable' Rule	256
13.6	Other Sources of Labour Law	256
	13.6.1 Unilateral Sources: Company Statutes	256
	13.6.2 Court Decisions	257
13.7	Conclusions: The Autarchy of Statutory Law	259
	Bibliography	259
CHAPTER 14		
The Precarious Balance among Hierarchy, Coordination and Competition in the Italian System of Labour Law Sources		
	<i>Iacopo Senatori</i>	261
14.1	Introduction and Outline of the Chapter	261
14.2	Before the Republic: The Corporatist Era	264
14.3	A Republic Founded on Labour: The Constitution at the Top of the System	265
14.4	The Domain of Statutory Legislation: A Multi-Level Regulatory Pattern	268
14.5	Collective Agreements: A Private Source Between State Intervention and Horizontal Competition	270
14.6	The Rise of Individual Arrangements	275
14.7	The Neglected Sources: Company Customary Rules and Workplace By-Laws	276
14.8	Conclusions	277
	Bibliography	278

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 15

Collective Bargaining in the Shadow of Legislation: Labour Law Sources in Poland

<i>Lukasz Pisarczyk</i>	281
15.1 Opening Remarks	281
15.2 General Features of the System of Labour Law Sources in Poland	281
15.3 Sources of Universally Binding Law and Its Evolution	283
15.4 Collective Agreements	286
15.5 Internal Acts Issued by Employers	289
15.6 Scope of Application and Legal Character of Autonomous Sources of Labour Law	290
15.7 The Hierarchy of Labour Law Sources	292
15.8 Principle of Employee Privilege	293
15.9 Conclusions	296
Bibliography	297

CHAPTER 16

Law in Transformation: The Evolution of the System of Labour Law Sources in Russia – Tensions and Opportunities

<i>Olga Rymkevich</i>	299
16.1 Introduction	299
16.2 Definition and Classification of the Sources of Labour Law	300
16.2.1 The Constitution	303
16.2.2 Labour Code	304
16.3 Constitutional Federal Laws and Federal Laws	305
16.3.1 Federal Laws of Subjects of the Russian Federation	306
16.3.2 By-Laws	307
16.3.2.1 Decrees of the President of the Russian Federation	307
16.3.2.2 Decrees and Orders of the RF Government	308
16.3.2.3 Acts of the Ministry of Labour and Social Protection	308
16.4 Collective Labour Regulation	308
16.5 Local Normative Acts	311
16.6 Sources of Law Not Officially Recognised: Individual Employment Contracts	312
16.6.1 Court Rulings	312
16.6.2 Customary Law	314
16.7 Conflict Between Normative Acts and the in Favorem Principle	314
16.8 Conclusions	316
Bibliography	316

CHAPTER 17

Spain: A Lasting Struggle about the Boundaries of Statutory Law and Collective Bargaining

<i>José María Miranda Boto</i>	319
17.1 Introduction	319
17.2 Historical Background	320
17.3 Sources of Labour Law: An Enumeration	321
17.4 The Constitution as Cornerstone of Industrial Relations	322
17.5 The Undisputed Central Role of Statutory Law	323
17.6 The Limited Role of Administration	326
17.7 Challenges for the System of Collective Bargaining: Decentralization and General Efficacy	327
17.8 The Role of Case Law	332
17.9 Conclusion	332
Bibliography	333

CHAPTER 18

Sources of Labour Law in Sweden

<i>Jenny Julén Votinius</i>	335
18.1 Introduction	335
18.2 The Structure and Sources of Swedish Labour Law	336
18.2.1 The Swedish Labour Law and Industrial Relations System	336
18.2.2 About Legal Sources in Sweden	337
18.3 EU Law and International Conventions	338
18.3.1 EU Law	338
18.3.2 The European Convention of Human Rights	339
18.3.3 ILO Conventions	339
18.4 Constitutional Provisions and Statutory Legislation	340
18.4.1 Introduction	340
18.4.2 Constitutional Provisions	341
18.4.3 Statutory Law: Mandatory and Semi-Mandatory	341
18.5 Collective Agreements	342
18.6 The Employment Contract	344
18.7 Preparatory Works	345
18.8 Precedents of the Swedish Labour Court	346
18.9 Conclusions and Trends	348
Bibliography	349

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 19

Collective Agreements on the Crest of the Legislative Wave, but the Common Law Still Making Ripples: The Sources of Labour Law in South Africa

<i>Rochelle Le Roux</i>	351
19.1 Introduction	351
19.2 Historical Evolution of Labour Law in South Africa (1652-1994)	352
19.3 The Constitution and the Legislative Landscape	355
19.4 The Courts and Stare Decisis	357
19.5 The Common Law and the Contract of Employment	360
19.6 Collective Bargaining and Collective Agreements	363
19.7 International Law	365
19.8 Conclusion	366
Bibliography	368

CHAPTER 20

The Informing Ethos Behind the Sources of UK National Labour Law

<i>Michael Doherty & David Mangar</i>	369
20.1 Introduction	369
20.2 Collective Laissez-Faire: The Sources of National Labour Law Post-1945	373
20.3 Neoliberal Deregulation: Employment Regulation as a Tool for Economic Stimulus, from 1979 Onwards	376
20.3.1 The 1980s: Aligning Employment Regulation with Economic Stimulus	377
20.3.2 'New Labour' and a Third Way	378
20.3.2.1 The Third Way	379
20.3.2.2 'New Labour' Legislating for Fairness at Work	379
20.3.3 Back to the 1980s: Economic Stimulus Redux	380
20.4 Developing a Common Law Response to Deregulation	382
20.4.1 Why Common Law Redress in the Workplace?	383
20.4.1.1 The Common Law Challenge	384
20.5 Conclusion	386
Bibliography	387

CHAPTER 21

Sources of Labor Law in the United States: Contract Supra Omnis

<i>Paul Secunda</i>	389
21.1 Introduction	389
21.2 Historical Development of Labor & Employment Law	390
21.3 Common Law and Statutory Employment Protections	392

21.3.1	Common Law	393
21.3.1.1	Contract Erosions	393
21.3.1.2	Tort Erosions	394
21.3.1.3	Good Faith Erosions	394
21.3.2	Statutory	395
21.3.2.1	Fair Labor Standards Act	396
21.3.2.2	Title VII	397
21.3.2.3	Family and Medical Leave Act	397
21.4	Arbitration	398
21.4.1	Advantages and Disadvantages of Arbitration	400
21.4.2	Arbitration in the Nonunionized Workplaces	401
21.5	Conclusion	403
	Bibliography	403

CHAPTER 6

The Impact of the European Union Economic Governance on the Hierarchy of National Labour Law Sources

Emanuele Menegatti

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In coordinating national economic policies within the framework of the European Economic Governance (EEG), the Institutions of the European Union (EU) have interfered with the hierarchy of labour law sources of some Member States. In this respect, the EU has challenged the traditional European model of employment regulation, built on a rigid floor of mandatory statutory protections and a centralised system of collective bargaining, endorsing a completely different and more flexible one, that is to say, a model based on decentralised collective bargaining and on a loose application of one of the founding principles of labour law, the so-called favour (or favourability) principle.

The results are tangible. According to a recent report,¹ twelve countries have presented decentralisation tendencies since 2008, from the cross-sector towards the sector or company levels, and/or from the sector towards the company level, most of them under the influence of the EU institutions.

In investigating the impact of the EU economic governance on the hierarchy of national labour law sources, this chapter will provide a preliminary brief description of the functioning of the EEG (section 6.2), followed by a consideration of the economic arguments underpinning the revision of the hierarchy of

1. Paul Marginson & Christian Welz, *Changes to Wage-Setting Mechanisms in the Context of the Crisis and the EU's New Economic Governance Regime*, 24 (Eurofound 2014).

labour law sources promoted by the EU institutions (section 6.3). It will then consider the recommendations addressed to a selection of countries within the framework of the EEG (section 6.4), analysing the results generated by them (section 6.5). Finally, it will focus on a possible and desirable change of course compared to the trend promoted by the EEG so far (section 6.6).

6.2 THE 'ORDINARY' AND 'EXTRAORDINARY' CHANNELS OF THE EU ECONOMIC GOVERNANCE

In the broad context of EU economic coordination, we have witnessed two main channels of the Union intervention which have affected in general work regulations and their sources.

The first, and more dramatic, concerned those countries that received financial assistance under the so-called bailout plans. The assistance came alternatively from the so-called Troika (the European Commission acting in liaison with the European Central Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF)), bilateral loans, but mostly from the European Financial Stabilization Mechanism and its successor, the European Stability Mechanism.² These programmes concerned both Eurozone countries (Ireland, Portugal, Greece and Cyprus) and non-Eurozone countries (Hungary, Latvia and Romania) and even though the money came from various sources, they all shared a same relevant characteristic: the financial assistance was conditioned by satisfactory implementation of reforms formally agreed to by Member States under (binding) memoranda of understanding (MoUs). These reforms, we will see (section 6.4.3), have sometimes involved the set-up of labour law sources.

Semi-bailout received by Spain and Italy in 2011 and 2012 can be included in this first channel of intervention. For both countries, the European Central Bank purchase of government bonds was conditional on policy reforms.

The second and 'ordinary' channel of intervention is that referring to the new version of the EEG, widely reformed in response to the financial and economic crisis of 2008. The present system is a stronger revamped version of the weak and ineffective 'multilateral surveillance', set up under Article 121 TFEU and implemented in the late 1990s through the original Stability and Growth Pact (SGP).³ The most significant amendments to the original system came from the so-called Six-Pack (five regulations and one directive), providing: (i) stricter oversight over annual stability and convergence programmes; (ii)

2. The European Stability Mechanism was designed to become the main and stable way for managing Eurozone Member States financial crisis. Unlike its predecessor, it works outside the EU institutional context, bases on an Intergovernmental Organisation created by the Eurozone countries, similarly to the IMF.

3. Under the former (pre-2008) SGP, Member States could not be compelled to implement responsible fiscal policies, so much so that departures from such policies were never subject to penalty.

semi-automatic sanctions for Eurozone countries in excessive deficit position, not following the direction provided by the Council;⁴ (iii) a brand-new procedure aimed at correcting and preventing excessive macroeconomic imbalances;⁵ and (iv) a single process, the so-called European Semester, merging together the surveillance over budgetary positions, coordination of economic policies, prevention of excessive macroeconomic imbalances and integrated guidelines for growth and employment coming from the Europe 2020 strategy in just one process.⁶

Despite its name, the European Semester basically consists in a yearly cycle where each Member State receives Country-Specific Recommendations (CSRs) drawn up by the Commission on the basis of a detailed analysis of national budgetary and structural policies and macroeconomic imbalances. Once endorsed by the heads of state and governments within the European Council and formally adopted by the Council of the EU, these recommendations are to be transformed into national 'reform programmes' whose effectiveness will again be assessed by the Commission.

Quite often, the recommendations addressing the sources of work regulation, in particular wage-setting mechanisms, have been generated by the procedure for macroeconomic surveillance. This starts with the alert mechanism report, through which the Commission analyses the economic situation of every country using a scoreboard with ten indicators covering the major sources of macroeconomic imbalance. The current scoreboard includes the unemployment rate and the variation of the unit labour cost (ULC).

The ULC has played a central role in the topic we are dealing with. As the European Commission has repeatedly stressed, the increase in nominal ULC corresponds to a rise in labour costs exceeding the increase in labour productivity, which might erode competitiveness.⁷ This has become a problem of major concern after the creation of the monetary union. The increasing differences in competitiveness between EU countries (between so-called surplus and deficit countries) are mainly owed to the divergent trends in wages and ULCs. Many

4. According to Article 6 of Regulation (EU) No. 1173/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 November 2011 on the effective enforcement of budgetary surveillance in the euro area, a fine amounting to 0.2% of the Member State's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in the preceding year can be imposed by the Council on the basis of a Commission recommendation, unless a qualified majority of Member States should vote against such a fine (under the so-called reverse qualified majority voting procedure).

5. Regulation (EU) No. 1176/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 November 2011 on the prevention and correction of macroeconomic imbalances, and Regulation (EU) No. 1174/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 November 2011 on enforcement measures to correct excessive macroeconomic imbalances in the euro area.

6. Regulation (EU) No. 1175/2011 of the European Parliament and of the Council of 16 November 2011 amending Council Regulation (EC) No. 1466/97 on the strengthening of the surveillance of budgetary positions and the surveillance and coordination of economic policies.

7. See European Commission, 'Scoreboard for the Surveillance on Macroeconomic Imbalances,' European Economy Occasional Papers 92, 14 (2012).

countries in the past have been able to circumvent this problem by devaluing their national currencies, but this is obviously no longer possible under the single currency. Nowadays, according to the EU institutions, the same result can be achieved by policies of ‘internal devaluation’, meaning a reduction of labour costs able to increase the competitiveness of deficit countries.⁸

An economic reading of the scoreboard indicators does not lead to any automatic conclusions.⁹ They are just symptoms of probable macroeconomic imbalances subject to a further in-depth Commission review. If on the basis of the in-depth review the situation cannot be considered dramatic, it will be dealt with under the preventive arm of the procedure, leading to recommendations requiring countries to take actions to correct the identified imbalances, which become part of the CSRs. Otherwise, when macroeconomic imbalances are deemed excessive and in need of corrective actions, the Commission may ask the Council to place the country in question under the corrective arm (the excessive imbalance procedure). Here the Council issues a set of policy recommendations to be followed within a deadline. Non-compliant Eurozone Member States will face financial sanctions designed with a high level of automatism.

Sanctions against Eurozone Member States are provided not only for macroeconomic imbalances but also for failure to meet the deficit target set in the SGP under the excessive deficit procedure (EDP) set forth in Article 126 TFEU.¹⁰

6.3 THE ECONOMIC PARADIGM UNDERPINNING THE EEG INTERVENTION ON LABOUR LAW SOURCES

The economic argument promoting a reduction of labour costs and an increase in employment flexibility has played a pivotal role in the framework of the EEG.¹¹ With regard to the sources of employment regulation, it provided the basis for all the recommendations promoting flexible working conditions,

8. K. Armingeon & L. Baccaro, *Political Economy of the Sovereign Debt Crisis: The Limits of Internal Devaluation*, 41 *Industrial Law Journal*, 254-256 (2012).

9. As literally expressed in Article 3(2) of Regulation No. 1176/2011: The Commission’s ‘conclusions shall not be drawn from a mechanical reading of the scoreboard indicators’.

10. The EDP has been revised by Regulation No. 1175/2011 and Council Regulation (EU) No. 1177/2011 of 8 November 2011 amending Regulation (EC) No. 1467/97 on speeding up and clarifying the implementation of the excessive deficit procedure; it was subsequently reinforced by the Treaty on Stability, Coordination and Governance in the Economic and Monetary Union (the so-called Fiscal Compact), providing the golden rule on balanced budgets; and most recently it was amended by the so-called Two-Pack (Regulation Nos 472 2013 and 473 2013).

11. T. Schulten & T. Müller, *A new European interventionism? The impact of the new European economic governance on wages and collective bargaining* (David Natali & Bart Vanhercke, eds), *Social developments in the European Union*, 186 (ETUI 2012).

adaptable to firms' contingent or permanent needs and to the specific characteristics of individual employment relations, such as to enable differentiation across sectors, firms and workers.

In the light of this argument, not surprisingly, a radical change of the relations between the various layers of labour law regulation has been promoted for those European countries experiencing excessive deficits and/or macroeconomic imbalances (i.e., France, Belgium, Italy, Spain and Portugal) and presenting the following common pattern: traditionally quite strict employment protection, largely predominant multi-employer collective bargaining, and, on the top of that, the (explicit or implicit) recognition of the principle of favour. This principle, as is well known, covers the relationship between statutory law, collective bargaining and individual contracting and, less often, the relationship between the different levels of collective bargaining. It stipulates that derogation to the mandatory rules provided by higher-ranking sources is possible only improving them, precisely, in employees' favour.

That model of labour law sources hierarchy has been considered by the EU institutions outmoded with regard to the current economic paradigm.¹² Multi-employer collective bargaining and, in particular, industry-level agreements have traditionally served the purpose of taking wages and employment conditions out of competition. Uniformity of working conditions within the different sectors has limited competitive pricing among entrepreneurs and competition among workers in the labour market. Moreover, the combination with the favour principle has traditionally supported the traditional functions of labour law as a floor of mandatory protections aimed at compensating the asymmetry of bargaining power between the parties of the employment contract, so preventing any derogation to the detriment of working conditions at the firm level, both by individual negotiations and by collective agreements.¹³

Multi-employer bargaining, combined with statutory mandatory protection, provided therefore a common floor of protection and a levelled playfield, based on stable and predictable labour cost, for competition between companies (and workers) within the domestic market. However, when the playfield has started becoming bigger, crossing national borders, 'stability' (and rigidity) of employment conditions, granted by the traditional set-up of labour law sources, turned out to be rather undesirable for companies having to compete on the global market.

12. See the analysis of Isabelle Schömann, *Collective Labour Law under Attack: How Anti-crisis Measures Dismantle Workers' Collective Rights*, 2 *ETUI Policy Brief* (2014), <https://www.etui.org/Publications2/Policy-Briefs/European-Economic-Employment-and-Social-Policy/Collective-labour-law-under-attack-how-anti-crisis-measures-dismantle-workers-collective-rights> (accessed 23 April 2019).

13. M. Pallini, *Italian Industrial Relations: Toward a Strongly Decentralized Collective Bargaining*, 38 *Comparative Labor Law & Policy Journal*, 1, 2 (2016).

In the context of global competition, especially for export-driven companies, wages and other employment conditions could no longer be excluded from competition; on the contrary, they have become key components of competitive strategies.¹⁴ Moreover, the volatility of globalised markets does not affect to the same extent companies belonging to the same sector; therefore, some of them might need to go beyond the uniformity of industry-level agreements and statutory protections. Last but not least, financialisation of the economy has led to short-term strategies, which hardly fit in with changes negotiated only when an expiring contract is to be replaced, every three or four years or so.¹⁵

The ‘stability’ provided by industry-level bargaining combined with strong statutory protections and the favour principle has, in the opinion of many, become at odds with flexible and ‘dynamic’ working conditions requested by the new economic setting. This apparent mismatch has put pressure on models based on centralised collective bargaining. Where social partners have not been able to quickly react, in particular by promoting a process of ‘organised’ decentralisation of working conditions, the system of industrial relations got into a crisis.¹⁶ The outcome varied across countries, leading to: collective bargaining coverage and trade union density decline; proliferation of collective agreements signed by scarcely representative trade unions promoting a race to the bottom of wage and working conditions; the switch to single-employer bargaining by some big companies.

Very often, the absence of any reaction from social partners has been compensated by the interventionism of national legislators. The autonomy of collective bargaining has been frequently invaded by statutory ‘opt-out’ clauses, allowing derogation to the sectoral standards by company-level agreements and even individual negotiations or unilateral regulations.¹⁷ An increasing number of employers decided to move towards single-employer agreements and to get completely rid of employment protection by subcontracting and more in general by replacing employment contracts with civil law and commercial law contracts.

Some economists have welcomed these changes to the traditional model of employment regulation, which has been accused of charging unionised companies with high transaction costs. In their view, the constraints normally posed to managerial discretion by multi-employer agreements represent a sort of union tax on company earnings, leading to slow response to economic shocks and then

14. See J. Visser, *Wage Bargaining Institutions-From Crisis to Crisis*, 488 *European Economy-Economic Papers* (2013), https://ec.europa.eu/economy_finance/publications/economic_paper/2013/pdf/ecp488_en.pdf (accessed 22 October 2019).

15. T. Darcillon, *How Does Finance Affect Labor Market Institutions? An Empirical Analysis in 16 OECD Countries*, 13 *Socio-Economic Review*, 477 (2015).

16. P. Marginson, *Coordinated Bargaining in Europe: From Incremental Corrosion to Frontal Assault?*, 21 *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 97, 99 (2015).

17. See the analysis of Maarten Keune, *Wage Flexibilisation and the Minimum Wage*, in *Industrial Relations in Europe*, 127 (Publications Office of the European Union 2010).

poor performance¹⁸; something difficult to accept in the current competitive and dynamic economic environments.

Similar arguments have been shared also by the EU institutions, clearly supporting, in the framework of the EEG, the trend promoted by market mechanisms.¹⁹ In this respect, we are going to see into detail how the European Semester has, in a selection of countries (France, Italy and Portugal), implicitly and sometimes rather explicitly, forced national legislators towards the promotion of decentralised collective bargaining – especially ‘uncoordinated’ decentralisation – and towards the overcoming of the principle of favour.²⁰

6.4 ECONOMIC GOVERNANCE VERSUS NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EMPLOYMENT REGULATION

6.4.1 The Case of France

The French case is a very good example of the effective vertical relationship between the EU and Member States created by the reinforced EEG. France was under EDP since the launch of the European Semester until 2018, systematically failing to meet the SGP requirements. In the same period, it presented macro-economic imbalances, which became excessive from 2015 to 2107. The country has therefore been constantly under the Commission specific monitoring, just one step away from the corrective arms of the EEG.

As far as labour regulation is concerned, the issue of main concern for the union has constantly been the exaggerated level and pace of the minimum wage, not in line with productivity gains, and the excessive labour market rigidity. It is exactly on this latter point that the European Commission has challenged the French hierarchy of labour law sources and in particular that ‘internal’ to collective bargaining.

France belongs to the group of the above-mentioned countries, where: the relationship between statutory law – namely the *Code du Travail* (Labour Code)

18. B.T. Hirsch, *Sluggish Institutions in a Dynamic World: Can Unions and Industrial Competition Coexist?*, 22 *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 153, 154 (2008); ‘In dynamic economic settings, the high transaction costs of union governance result in sluggish response to shocks, placing union companies at a competitive disadvantage.’

19. L. Bordogna & R. Pedersini, *What Kind of Europeanization? How EMU Is Changing National Industrial Relations in Europe*, 146 *Giornale di Diritto del Lavoro e di Relazioni Industriali*, 184-187 (2015).

20. J. Cruces, I.A. Francisco Trillo & S. Leonardi, *Impact of the euro crisis on wages and collective bargaining in southern Europe – A comparison of Italy, Portugal and Spain* (Guy Van Gyes & Thorsten Schulten, eds), *Wage bargaining under the new European economic governance*, 93, 100 (ETUI 2015); F. Bergamante & M. Marocco, *New European Economic Governance and Decentralisation of the Collective Bargaining Structure in Italy: Did It Work Out?*, 4 (2018), <https://ssrn.com/abstract=3228590> (accessed 23 April 2019).

– collective agreements, individual contracting, as well as the collective bargaining ‘internal’ hierarchy used to be based on the application of the favour principle; sectoral agreements represented the core level of employment regulation and they can be provided of universal application throughout the whole sector by the Ministry of Labour.

Things started changing from Auroux reform of 1982. From this point on, the relevance and spread of company-level collective bargaining have been increasing, currently covering more than half of the workforce.²¹ This growth has been achieved mainly thanks to the obligation to negotiate at the company level certain items: initially just referred to wages, working time and work organisation, then extended during the 2000s to many other subjects such as gender equality, employees’ participation in company profits and employment of senior workers.

The process of overcoming the traditional relations between the various layers of regulation was then accelerated in 2004 by the loi Fillon. It introduced consistent room for company collective bargaining to derogate to working conditions established at the sectoral level, with the only exception of some protected areas (i.e., minimum wage and classification). However, it was not a disruptive change in the hierarchy of sources yet. Social partners had the power to ‘lock up’ conditions provided at the sectoral level, so preventing company derogations or cancelling it *ex post*, as they often did.²² In any case, the 1982 and 2004 reforms paved the way to further and more radical changes.

Since the inception of the EEG, the EU institutions immediately noticed that the level of decentralisation of employment regulation achieved by France was not enough. Starting from 2015, the Commission has insisted that more flexibility for the employers to depart from industry-level agreement should have been granted.²³ To this end, the favourability principle should have been repealed for topics such as minimum wages, job classifications, supplementary social protection and multi-company and cross-sector vocational training funds²⁴; furthermore, a priority should have been given to company-level agreements in establishing the rules governing working time, wages, working conditions and

21. On the development of decentralised bargaining in France see U. Rehfeldt & C. Vincent, *The decentralisation of collective bargaining in France: an escalating process* (Salvo Leonardi & Roberto Pedersini, eds), *Multi-employer bargaining under pressure – Decentralisation trends in five European countries*, 151 (ETUI 2018).

22. Rehfeldt & Vincent (n. 21) 155. Jean-Marie Pernot, *France and the European Agenda: an Ambiguous Impact on Industrial Relations*, in *The New EU Economic Governance and Its Impact on the National Collective Bargaining Systems: Final Report* 100 (2014), https://www.fondazionevittorio.it/sites/default/files/content-attachment/GOCOPA_Final%20report.pdf (accessed 23 April 2019).

23. European Commission, *Country Report France 2015. Including an In-Depth Review on the prevention and correction of macroeconomic imbalances* 16, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file_import/cr2015_france_en_0.pdf (accessed 23 April 2019).

24. *Ibid.*

employment.²⁵ The Commission's view was completely endorsed by the Council of the EU in the 2015 CSRs: 'recent reforms have created only limited scope for employers to depart from branch-level agreements through company-level agreements', therefore, recommending accordingly to 'facilitate take-up of derogations at company and branch level from general legal provisions'.²⁶ The same recommendation was then repeated in 2016.²⁷

The reaction of France to the stimulus coming from the EU has been quite fast, prompted by the so-called Combrexelle Report of 2015.²⁸ It proposed to prioritise the regulative role of collective bargaining, over that of the Labour Code, and in particular to give to company-specific collective agreements a larger role, according to a desirable 'proximity regulation'. The subsequent El Khomri reform of 2016 drove forward the project of reversing the hierarchy of sources.²⁹ In this respect, it has created a new shared competence between statutory law and collective agreements in specific areas, such as working time, overtime pay, paid holidays and weekly rest. Without prejudice of the fundamental principles of labour law provided by peremptory statutory norms, related to constitutional principles, sectoral or company agreements can freely regulate the working conditions in the mentioned areas. Company agreements have a priority over sectoral regulation, apart from matters not open to derogation established by the latter. Statutory protections beyond and above the 'minimum legal framework' apply only in the absence of collective agreements.

One year later, the process of reform made another significant step forward. The so-called Enabling Act, adopted by the French Parliament on 2 August 2017, allowed the Government to pass the legislation by decrees (so-called *ordonnances*), giving birth to the so-called Macron reform of the Labour Code.

The Macron reform was aimed, among other things, at enlarging the field of collective bargaining and reinforcing sectoral agreements. To this purpose, it has reserved to industry-level collective bargaining thirteen topics, including jobs classification and appropriate minimum wages, probation period, some

25. European Commission, *Country Report France 2016. Including an In-Depth Review on the prevention and correction of macroeconomic imbalances* 58, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/cr_france_2016_en.pdf (accessed 23 April 2019).

26. Council Recommendation on the 2015 National Reform Programme of France and delivering a Council opinion on the 2015 Stability Programme of France (2015/C 272/14), <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A32015H0818%2815%29> (accessed 23 April 2019).

27. Council Recommendation on the 2016 National Reform Programme of France and delivering a Council opinion on the 2016 Stability Programme of France (2016/C 299/27), https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=uriserv%3AOJ.C_.2016.299.01.0114.01.ENG&toc=OJ%3AC%3A2016%3A299%3ATOC (accessed 23 April 2019).

28. Jean-Denise Combrexelle, *La négociation collective le travail et l'emploi* (2015), <https://www.ladocumentationfrancaise.fr/rapports-publics/154000638/index.shtml> (accessed 23 April 2019).

29. Rehfeldt & Vincent (n. 21) 161.

aspects concerning working time and restrictions to temporary employment. Company agreements are not allowed to regulate this reserved area unless they provide ‘at least equivalent guarantees’.

At a closer scrutiny, according to some commentators, the reinforcement of sectoral agreements turns out to be only at the expense of statutory law, which can now be changed *in peius* for employees by collective agreements.³⁰ In a matter of fact, the Macron reform has taken the priority given until then to company agreements to the next level. In this connection, the sectoral ‘lock-up’ – unlimited under the 2004 law – has been reduced to only four specific areas (i.e., disabled workers). Company agreements, for their part, have acquired a competence on everything that does not fall into the sectoral agreements and legislative ones. This has created a considerable room for negotiating at the company level worse working conditions concerning, for example, remuneration, without prejudice to the minimum wage.³¹

The outcome has been a significant and unprecedented primacy of company agreements, the parallel decline of the regulatory capacity of sectoral agreements, and the restriction of the favourability principle, even with regard to the relationship between statutory law and collective bargaining.

Obviously, less favourable employment conditions should be collectively negotiated and accepted by bargaining actors representing employees. However, this has been facilitated by the Macron reform itself in workplaces where trade unions are not present. Thus, in small companies employing less than twenty employees, the employer can propose a draft agreement made by himself, which should be approved by 2/3 of the staff. In non-unionised bigger companies, elected representatives or employees delegated by trade unions can be the signatory parties of the agreement. By these rules, the French Government clearly wanted to give access to company-level collective bargaining to all employers as a means to achieve more flexibility (that is to say, weaker employment conditions, including lower wages).

As anticipated, all the considered changes in the hierarchy of labour law sources have been recommended in the framework of the EEG. It is therefore not surprising that these actions have been finally well received by the European Commission, which in the 2018 Country Report highlighted that ‘recent reforms are expected to improve the functioning of the labour market over time’ and contributing to ‘the competitiveness of the French economy’.³²

30. Rehfeldt & Vincent (n. 21) 163.

31. *Ibid.*

32. European Commission, *Country Report France 2018. Including an In-Depth Review on the prevention and correction of macroeconomic imbalances* 11, <https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/2018-european-semester-country-report-france-en.pdf> (accessed 23 April 2019).

6.4.2 The Case of Italy

Similar targets – in particular, decentralisation of collective bargaining – but in a rather different context of industrial relations have been pursued by the EU with regard to Italy. Differently from France and from other Mediterranean countries, Italian industrial relations, with the exception of the Fascist period, have always been scarcely institutionalised, mostly based on voluntarism. A statutory regulation of collective bargaining process, structure and efficacy is completely missing. Nonetheless, despite the absence of a mechanism for the extension of collective agreements to non-members, coverage of industry-level collective bargaining has constantly been quite high – around 80% according to Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) data³³ – mainly because labour courts and some legislative prescriptions have managed to force employers towards the application of sectoral agreements.³⁴

As for the hierarchy between the different levels of collective bargaining, the current framework has been moving from that established by a 1993 tripartite economy-wide collective agreement.³⁵ This was based on a two-tier bargaining structure providing a strict subordination of company and territorial-level agreements (second level) to sectoral agreements (first level). Second-level agreements were not only prevented from *in peius* modifications, but also from any regulation of employment other than those expressly allowed by industry-level. According to the *ne bis in idem* principle, the former cannot deal with topics already regulated by the latter. As a matter of fact, company collective bargaining was almost exclusively entrusted of setting additional wages related to productivity gains. This framework has remained pretty untouched for nearly two decades, even if it turned out to be sometimes unstable: being not supported by statute, it could only rely on voluntary compliance of bargaining players at the firm and territorial level.³⁶

The change of economic paradigm and eventually the ‘Great Recession’ jeopardised the functioning of the 1993 framework. In particular, the employers’ side challenged the centrality of industry-level collective bargaining, deemed to be inappropriate. Export-driven companies advocated more room for adapting the rules negotiated at the industry level to their specific needs. That was, in particular, the case of FIAT-FCA, one of the most important and iconic Italian company. FIAT-FCA set up in 2010 its own single-employer collective agreement

33. OECD, Collective Bargaining Coverage, <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?DataSetCode=CBC> (accessed 19 April 2019).

34. See Gaetano Zilio Grandi, *Collective bargaining* (Franco Carinci, Emanuele Menegatti, eds), *Labour law and industrial relations in Italy*, Chapter XV (Wolters Kluwer 2015); Pallini (n. 13) 16-17.

35. Zilio Grandi (n. 34) 309-310.

36. G.A. Recchia, *The Future of Collective Bargaining in Italy Between Legislative Reforms and Social Partners’ Responses*, 23 *Transfer: European Review of Labour and Research*, 457, 458 (2017).

with a view to achieve more flexibility with regard to working time and shift work than that allowed by the sectoral metal workers agreement.

The pressure towards decentralisation managed to be successful for the first time in 2009, when a new tripartite agreement, not signed by the largest Italian trade union, opened up a breach in the centralisation of the system of collective bargaining. Industry-level remained the central level of negotiation, but, differently from the 1993 rules, company-level agreements were allowed to derogate *in peius* to sectoral agreements, only under sectoral agreements permission (opening clauses). A subsequent economy-wide agreement, signed in June 2011 by all the major trade unions, went further, increasing the room for derogation in favour of company-level agreements, which can now worsen the working conditions provided by sectoral agreements even in the absence of opening clauses, if justified by a situation of crisis or in order to improve companies economic performances.³⁷

When the EU institutions decided in 2011 to step in and influence the way Italy was addressing the crisis, they found therefore a fertile sole, already prepared by internal players. The first intervention was that of the European Central Bank, which told in a ‘secret’ letter sent to the Italian Government on 5 August 2011 that, among other things, the system of industrial relations had to be reformed, in order to ‘allow enterprise-level agreements to cut wages and working conditions to the specific needs of companies and make these agreements more relevant than other negotiating levels’.³⁸

The purchase of hundred millions of Italian Government bond was at stake. Therefore, not surprisingly, the Government reacted very quickly, approving in August 2011 a law decree entitled ‘support for proximity collective bargaining’. By this act, company or territorial-level agreements can derogate not only from industry-level agreements but also from statutory law, outside of any principle of favour, on most of the employment matters. The deviation should respect the constraints deriving from constitutional provisions, international conventions and EU law. It shall also be justified on the ground of company objective needs, such as managing crisis, increasing employment or productivity and new investments. Differently from the just considered economy-wide agreement of a couple of months before (June 2011), here company agreements are totally disconnected from any delegation and control of industry-level agreement and statutes. A form of ‘disorganised decentralisation’ has made its appearance in Italy for the first time in recent decades.³⁹

37. See the detailed reconstruction by Pallini (n. 13) 3-5.

38. Recchia (n. 36) 459.

39. S. Leonardi, M. Concetta Ambra & A. Ciarini, *Italian collective bargaining at a turning point* (Salvo Leonardi & Roberto Pedersini, eds), *Multi-employer bargaining under pressure – Decentralisation trends in five European countries*, 185, 193 (ETUI 2018).

The European Semester moved in this same direction since its inception. In 2012 the Council addressed to Italy the recommendation, similarly repeated also in 2013, of reinforcing ‘the new wage setting framework [that provided by mentioned economy wide agreement of 2011] in order to contribute to the alignment of wage growth and productivity at sector and company level’.⁴⁰ This implicitly included the request for further decentralisation of collective bargaining, as it turned out in the subsequent 2013 country report: ‘The dominant level of collective bargaining in Italy remains the national level ... This hampers a better alignment of wages to firms or local economic and competitiveness conditions.’⁴¹

The 2014 Commission Country Report on Italy complained about the fact that company-level agreements still covered a minority of workers and firms.⁴² The 2015 Council CSRs required explicitly to Italy to ‘promote, in consultation with the social partners and in accordance with national practices, an effective framework for second-level contractual bargaining’.⁴³ Again the 2016⁴⁴ and 2017⁴⁵ CSRs reported the insufficient use of second-level bargaining which, in the opinion of the Council, made it difficult to develop innovative solutions at firm level that could improve productivity and foster the response of wages to labour market conditions.

A response from the Italian Government came in the framework of a major reform of Italian labour law, the so-called Jobs Act. Legislative decree No. 81 of 2015 specified that anytime statutory law delegates the regulation of employment relations to collective bargaining, and the reference shall be intended to any level of it (industry, local, company level). Even if this rule does not directly deal with the relationship between different levels of collective agreements and to its contents, it contributes to an alteration of it, conferring company-level

40. Council Recommendation on the National Reform Programme 2013 of Italy and delivering a Council opinion on the Stability Programme of Italy 2012-2017 (2013/C 217/11), <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2013:217:0042:0046:EN:PDF> (accessed 22 October 2019).

41. European Commission, *Assessment of the 2013 national reform programme and stability programme for ITALY* 10, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file_import/swd2013_italy_en_0.pdf (accessed 23 April 2019).

42. European Commission, *Assessment of the 2014 national reform programme and stability programme for ITALY* 20, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file_import/swd2014_italy_en_0.pdf (accessed 23 April 2019).

43. Council Recommendation of 14 July 2015 on the 2015 National Reform Programme of Italy and delivering a Council opinion on the 2015 Stability Programme of Italy, <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A32015H0818%2817%29> (accessed 23 April 2019).

44. Council Recommendation of 12 July 2016 on the 2016 National Reform Programme of Italy and delivering a Council opinion on the 2016 Stability Programme of Italy, https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=uriserv%3AOJ.C_.2016.299.01.0001.01.ENG&toc=OJ%3AC%3A2016%3A299%3ATOC (accessed 23 April 2019).

45. Council Recommendation on the 2017 National Reform Programme of Italy and delivering a Council opinion on the 2017 Stability Programme of Italy (2017/C 261/11), <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/PDF/?uri=CELEX%3A32017H0809%2811%29> (accessed 23 April 2019).

agreements the same regulative power which used to be of industry-level agreements, outside of any principle of favour. Thus, it is a significant step towards equalisation of the different levels.⁴⁶

Social partners, for their part, have confirmed the importance of second-level bargaining in 2018, by a new economy-wide framework agreement.

At the end of the day, the internal pressure coupled with the external coming from the EU has been able to achieve a certain degree of decentralisation, along two parallel tracks: one drafted by the legislator, heading towards uncoordinated decentralisation; the other governed by collective autonomy, where industry-level collective bargaining still keeps the control over territorial and company-level agreements.

6.4.3 The Case of Portugal

Portugal used to have a centralised system of collective bargaining, mostly at the industry-level. Differently from France and Italy or even from the Spanish neighbours, company-level agreements have historically been very rare in Portugal since very rare have always been the workers' representatives presence at workplace level. Not surprisingly, given the peculiarity of the Portuguese productive fabric, which presents an overwhelming prevalence of very small companies. In this context, mechanisms to articulate collective bargaining have remained very weak, since they never received particular attention by the social partners and the legislator.⁴⁷ Nevertheless, coverage of collective bargaining used to be quite high. It was the result of two main factors: the legal extensions of the scope of industry-level agreements, which was almost automatically granted by the Ministry of Labour; and the 'after-effect' rules, allowing expired collective agreements to remain valid until renegotiated.⁴⁸

The Portuguese collective bargaining system has been criticised because it did not grant the necessary flexibility to companies. Moreover, the after-effect rule attracted a great deal of disapproval. It was accused of being a major factor of rigidity, because it took away from trade unions the pressure normally caused by expiring collective agreements, making them less prone to make concession to employers.⁴⁹

46. M. Magnani, *The Role of Collective Bargaining in Italian Labour Law*, 7 *Labour Studies*, 13 (2018); Recchia (n. 36) 466.

47. See L. Fulton, *Worker Representation in Europe* (2015), <http://www.worker-participation.eu/National-Industrial-Relations> (accessed 23 April 2019).

48. M. do Rosário Palma Ramalho, *Portuguese Labour Law and Industrial Relations During the Crisis*, ILO Working Paper 54 (2013), https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/--ed_dialogue/--dialogue/documents/publication/wcms_232798.pdf (accessed 24 April 2019).

49. I. Távora & P. González Tabora, *Labour Market Regulation and Collective Bargaining in Portugal During the Crisis: Continuity and Change*, 22 *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 251, 256 (2016).

Things started changing when an important process of reform was undertaken during the first decade of the 2000s. The 2003 revision of the Labour Code eliminated the favour principle related to the relations between statutory law and collective agreements, then partially reinstated by a subsequent 2009 revision of the Labour Code for some ‘core’ areas like non-discrimination, wage, working time limitations, protection of worker’s ‘personality’. The same 2009 Labour Code revision set an eighteen months ceiling to the after-effect rule, provided that any of the bargaining parties have requested the expiration of the agreement.

Following the bailout, Portugal entered the Economic Adjustment Programme, which covered the period 2011-2014. The MoU of 17 May 2011 proposed the usual target of promoting ‘coordinated decentralised bargaining’. This led to a couple of changes by the 2012 revision of the Labour Code: reduction of the threshold required for non-union workers’ representatives to conclude collective agreements – from company employing at least 500 employees to 150 – and the introduction of the possibility for sectoral agreements to provide opening clauses admitting the derogation by company agreements on some topics.

These were just marginal adjustments.⁵⁰ The real target of the MoU was instead the mechanism for the extension of collective agreements. The definition of ‘clear criteria to be followed for the extension of collective agreements’, taking into close consideration not only ‘the representativeness of the negotiating organisations’ but also ‘the implications of the extension for the competitive position of non-affiliated firms’ deemed necessary by the Troika.⁵¹

As a result, the extension of collective agreements was first suspended in 2011 and 2012, waiting for the definition of the new criteria, then approved by the Government in October 2012. According to these, only collective agreements signed by an association representing 50% or more of the employees in the respective sector could be extended. The outcome was a sharp restriction of the extension mechanism and, of course, a huge reduction of extended agreements.⁵² However, because of the protests of social partners, the rule has been relaxed in 2014, admitting as an alternative to it, the possibility of extension if at least 30% of the members of the signatory employers’ association were small

50. Since the overwhelming majority of Portuguese corporations is very small, the reduction of the threshold from 500 to 150 had a very limited impact. As for the opening clauses, they were already enabled by former legislation. See Cruces, Álvarez, Trillo & Leonardi (n. 20) 108-109.

51. Memorandum of Understanding on specific economic policy conditionality, Portugal, 17 May 2011, 23-24, § 4.7.

52. According to the data provided by União Geral de Trabalhadores (UGT), Relatório Anual da Negociação Coletiva – 2014, https://www.ugt.pt/NC_relatorioanual2014.pdf (accessed 24 April 2019) the number of extended agreements collapsed from 296 in 2008 to 85 in 2012, slowly recovering to 94 in 2013.

and medium enterprises. Which is a very likely condition, given that 99.9% of Portuguese companies belong to this category.⁵³

Still, the 2012 reform of the Labour Code led to the erosion of the application of the favourability principle, covering the relations between statutory law and collective and individual contracting, for the purpose of reducing labour costs. Some examples are the statutory reduction of overtime payments and abolition of paid compensatory time off, with the neutralisation of better regimes provided by collective agreements. Overtime payment higher than that provided by collective agreements was suspended and clauses on compensatory time off declared null and void. Provisions have then be declared unconstitutional.⁵⁴ Another significant example is the ‘time bank’ scheme, allowing some work after normal working time not to be considered as overtime, and then paid the regular hourly wage. This working scheme, which worsens statutory conditions, used to be permitted only if regulated by collective agreements. After the 2012 reform, it can be adopted by individual negotiation, which will therefore prevail over statutory regulation.

Once the bailout programme was concluded in 2014, Portugal entered the ordinary cycle of economic governance. The European Commission noted immediately the significant decline of collective bargaining under the bailout programme.⁵⁵ The number of sectoral agreements reached the lowest point ever in 2012,⁵⁶ as well as that of firm-level agreements, but in a measure proportionally less adverse.⁵⁷ Measures to ‘foster collective bargaining’ were then considered necessary.⁵⁸ This had nothing to do with the traditional ‘equity’ and ‘stability’ provided by sectoral agreements. On the contrary, the target the Commission had in mind was that of inducing ‘greater dynamism and make wages more flexible’ passing through the promotion of ‘a more effective decentralisation of wage bargaining’.⁵⁹ Here it comes again, the switch from the old economic model based on patient capital and the new one based on shareholder value and short-term profits (*see supra* section 6.3).

53. Távora & González Tabora (n. 49) 256.

54. Decision of the Portuguese Constitutional Court No. 602 of 2013, <https://dre.pt/pesquisa/-/search/502979/details/maximized> (accessed 24 April 2019).

55. European Commission, *Assessment of the 2014 national reform programme and stability programme for PORTUGAL* 18, https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file_import/swd2014_portugal_en_0.pdf (accessed 23 April 2019).

56. *See above* (n. 52).

57. Above (n. 52). *See also* Maria da Paz Campos Lima, *EUROFOUND in Portugal: Decline in Collective Bargaining Reaches Critical Point* (2014), <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/publications/article/2014/portugal-decline-in-collective-bargaining-reaches-critical-point> (accessed 24 April 2019).

58. European Commission (n. 55).

59. *Ibid.*

Still in the 2014 Country Report, the Commission went on to propose ‘the introduction of a mutually agreed temporary opt-out from the collective agreement, when a firm is facing economic difficulties’.⁶⁰ This policy was considered so important that it was included in the CSRs for 2014, connected to a specific deadline: ‘By September 2014, present proposals on mutually agreed firm-level temporary suspension of collective agreements and on a revision of the survival of collective agreements.’⁶¹ One year later, in the 2015 CSRs, the Council decided to put forward the ‘classic theme’ of wage bargaining decentralisation, for the usual purpose of promoting ‘the alignment of wages and productivity ... taking into account differences in skills and local labour market conditions as well as divergences in economic performance across regions, sectors and companies’.⁶²

Portugal has been extremely reactive to all the above-mentioned recommendations. The 2014 Act (No. 55/2014) has made it possible to suspend collective agreements when companies are in crisis. The request for a ‘greater dynamism’ has been addressed by reducing the after-effect period from eighteen to twelve months and the validity of successive renewal clauses from five to three years.

As for the results of the reform process undertaken, when collective bargaining recovered from the decline recorded during the adjustment programme, it presented nearly half of the number of sectoral agreements in force in 2008, and almost the same small number level of firm-level agreements (not exceeding a hundred).⁶³ At the end of the day, the degree of decentralisation of collective bargaining, achieved by the extraordinary measures put in place under the bailout programme and then the ordinary cycle of EEG, has not been as pronounced as the growth of individual arrangements of working conditions.⁶⁴ In practice, rather than just simply prompting a decentralisation of collective bargaining – probably an unrealistic target considered the limited capacity of Portuguese firms to engage in collective bargaining⁶⁵ – the unstated objective, or

60. *Ibid.*, 28.

61. Council Recommendation on the National Reform Programme 2014 of Portugal and delivering a Council opinion on the Stability Programme of Portugal, 2014 (2014/C 247/20), <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A52014DC0423> (accessed 22 October 2019).

62. Council Recommendation on the 2015 National Reform Programme of Portugal and delivering a Council opinion on the 2015 Stability Programme of Portugal (2015/C 272/25), <https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=CELEX%3A32015H0818%2826%29> (accessed 24 April 2019).

63. Compare data included in UGT, Relatório Anual da Negociação Coletiva – 2014 above (n. 52) and UGT, Relatório Anual da Negociação Coletiva – 2018, <https://www.crlaborais.pt/documents/10182/13326/CRL+-+Relatório+Anual+NC+-+2017+-+%28versão+atualizada+em+08.08.2018%29/2f65f793-0178-4a7a-8bed-2a01d01e0b85> (accessed 24 April 2019). In 2008, 173 industry-level and 95 company-level collective agreements were concluded, whereas in 2018 only 98 industry-level and 96 at the firm-level agreements.

64. Távora & González Tabora (n. 49) 262.

65. Fernando Rocha & Alan Stoleroff, *The Challenges of the Crisis and the External Intervention in Portugal*, in *The New EU Economic Governance and Its Impact on the National Collective*

maybe just unintentional, of the State intervention under the auspices of the EEG has been that of jeopardising collective autonomy and its regulatory capacity in favour of managerial unilateralism.⁶⁶

6.5 THE ACHIEVEMENTS OF THE EEG

6.5.1 The Legal Changes under the ‘Implicit’ Conditionality

The description of the reforms undertaken by France, Italy and Portugal in response to the recommendations coming from the EU has shown a high commitment of national governments and legislations to the EEG. Under the EU guidance, national legislations have intervened to steer collective bargaining and more in general the hierarchy of sources towards a more desirable, in the opinion of the EU, configuration. This has given rise to ‘uncoordinated’ priority to the company-level agreement, out of any principle of favour, for the purpose of providing companies with the ability to deviate from general standard of employment protection provided by higher-level agreements and even by the statutes.⁶⁷ The switch to a new institutional set-up of the sources of employment regulation took place even where the system of industrial relations was historically based on strong voluntarism, like in Italy.

The system of ‘ordinary’ economic governance has therefore proven to be very effective. Its reinforcement undertaken with the so-called 2011 Six-Pack has worked, thanks, probably, to the spectre of sanctions for the case Member States under the ‘corrective arms’ persistently departed from the course indicated by the EU institutions.

A mechanism, therefore, based on ‘implicit’ conditionality.⁶⁸ Whereas ‘explicit’ conditionality is related to the case of bailout countries, for which expected behaviours and related sanctions for non-compliance were expressly formalised in the MoUs, ‘implicit’ conditionality is otherwise based on the understanding that in case of non-compliance with certain expected behaviours there may be consequences. The precondition is an underlying asymmetry of power, created by the mentioned threat of sanctions or by the promise of financial support, in order to avoid the strict ‘explicit’ conditionality which the

Bargaining Systems: Final Report 158 (2014), https://www.fondazionedivittorio.it/sites/default/files/content-attachment/GOCOPA_Final%20report.pdf (accessed 24 April 2019).

66. Cruces, Álvarez, Trillo & Leonardi (n. 20) 107-108.

67. R. Perdersoni, *Conclusions and outlook. More challenges and some opportunities for industrial relations in the European Union* (Salvo Leonardi, Roberto Pedersini, eds), *Multi-employer bargaining under pressure – Decentralisation trends in five European countries* 291 (ETUI 2018).

68. S. Sacchi, *Conditionality by Other Means: EU Involvement in Italy’s Structural Reforms in the Sovereign Debt Crisis*, 13 *Comparative European Politics*, 77 (2015).

IMF (or Troika) assistance would require.⁶⁹ This has made the EEG a sort of 'hybrid' legal system, 'a step away from ... a purely soft law mechanism'.⁷⁰

6.5.2 The Changes in Actual Practice: The Resistance of Social Partners

While it is true that the economic governance has permitted to the EU institutions to achieve the desired change of national institutional frameworks, nonetheless it has not always been able to achieve the desired results in practice, because of the resistance of national social partners. In the wake of the mentioned shifting economic paradigms (above section 6.3), social partners, to a different extent in the different countries, have tried to govern the stream of change. In doing so, they sometimes opposed their solutions to that put forward by the legislation under the control of the EEG.

That was the case of the recent legislative reforms in France, aimed at stimulating company-level derogation to standards established by sectoral agreements, negotiable even without the involvement of trade unions. They have not produced the expected results. Trade unions kept being involved in negotiations at the firm level, and the worsening of employment standards provided by industry-level agreements, including a reduction of labour costs, has not normally taken place.⁷¹ So far, the actors of collective bargaining, including employers, have decided not to take advantage of the tools made available by the new legislative framework, probably because they do not really need them.⁷²

This is clearly confirmed by data collected by the French Ministry of Labour.⁷³ The large majority of company agreements are still signed by union delegates or employees mandated by trade unions. As for the number of company agreements, after the significant increase between the 1980s and the 2010s, boosted by the Auroux Law of 1982, imposing for the first time mandatory company negotiation in unionised companies, and by the Aubry laws of 1998 and 2000, allowing company bargaining on working time reductions, the

69. *Ibid.*, 83. See also A. Steinbach, *EU Economic Governance after the Crisis: Revisiting the Accountability Shift in EU Economic Governance*, A Gwilym Gibbon Centre for Public Policy Working Paper (2018), <https://www.nuffield.ox.ac.uk/media/2664/2018-07-eu-economic-governance-after-the-crisis.pdf> (accessed 24 April 2019).

70. P. Pecinovsky, *EU Economic Governance and the Right to Collective Bargaining. Part 1. Standard and Extreme Governance and the Indicators and Limits of the Right to Collective Bargaining*, 9 *European Labour Law Journal*, 274, 388 (2018). On the de fact binding nature of CSRs see also E. Menegatti, *Challenging the EU Downward Pressure on National Wage Policy*, 33 *International Journal of Comparative Labour Law and Industrial Relations*, 195, 210-213 (2017).

71. Rehfeldt & Vincent (n. 21) 182-184.

72. That is the assumption of Jean-Marie Pernot (n. 22) 101.

73. See the report produced by the Ministère du Travail – Direction de l'animation de la recherche, des études et des statistiques, *Bilans de la négociation collective par la Commission nationale de la négociation collective* (2018), https://travail-emploi.gouv.fr/IMG/pdf/bnc_2018-hd-web.pdf (accessed 24 April 2019).

number of collective agreements signed from 2012 to 2017 is similar to that of 2000.

National legislation has opened up to ‘uncoordinated’ decentralisation also in Italy, fostering ‘proximity’ collective bargaining as an open alternative to statutory and industry-level regulation outside of any delegation and favour principle. However, the (most representative) social partners have managed to resist the pressure coming from the EEG, still keeping a certain degree of coordination over company-level bargaining.⁷⁴ To this end, they expressly and quite successfully committed all their structures, at any level, not to take advantage of the potentially disruptive ‘proximity’ agreements.⁷⁵ The industry-level agreements signed after 2011 respected this instruction when they regulated the opening clauses, maintaining a coordination over decentralised collective bargaining.⁷⁶

The action of the social partners, embracing their own decentralisation process parallel to that of the legislator, has therefore helped to reduce the impact of the mentioned and unprecedented legislative intrusions in industrial relations. Since the model of coordinated collective bargaining provided by social partners has been able to grant to companies a fair degree of flexibility, company-level collective agreements have rarely resorted to the harsh flexibility admitted by legislations.

However, the main current problem regarding the layers of employment regulations in Italy does not concern the process of decentralisation of collective bargaining. If we look at the figures provided by a recent survey,⁷⁷ the coverage of the second-level agreement has actually decreased from around 34% in 2005 to 27% in 2015, whereas the coverage of industry-level agreements is around 93%, higher than that usually estimated by OECD.⁷⁸ Behind this apparently reassuring figures is hidden the most striking problem for the Italian framework of employment regulation sources: the increasing number of industry-level collective agreements signed by scarcely representative organisations (so-called pirate agreements), aiming at making available to companies wages lower and employment conditions weaker than those provided by ‘mainstream’ collective

74. Leonardi, Ambra & Ciarini (n. 39) 200-201.

75. This clause has been included in an amendment to the Economy-Wide agreement of June 2011. Apparently they have been of their words, since il ricorso alle deroghe ex Article 8 risulterebbe finora molto contenuto (Cisl 2013; Tomasetti 2015; Banca d’Italia 2013).

76. Leonardi, Ambra & Ciarini (n. 39) 197. However, Massimo Pallini, cit., 4 has a totally different opinion, believing that despite the efforts, the ‘chaos reigns’.

77. See INAPP (National Institute for Public Policy Analysis) – RIL (Longitudinal Detection on Labour and Enterprises) survey, <https://inapp.org/it/dati/ril> (accessed 24 April 2019), analysed by Bergamante, Marocco (n. 20).

78. OECD, *Collective Bargaining in OECD and accession countries*, <http://www.oecd.org/employment/collective-bargaining.htm> (accessed 24 April 2019).

agreements.⁷⁹ A very effective instrument for achieving cost competitiveness, even more disruptive for the industrial relations system than uncoordinated company-level collective bargaining.

Even in Portugal, despite the legislative reforms undertaken under the extraordinary adjustment programme and the ordinary cycle of economic governance, company-level agreements have not much increased their presence. They were really rare before the crisis and they are still very rare in 2018.⁸⁰ In a productive fabric where very small companies are hugely overrepresented, the activation of firm-level bargaining is just unrealistic. But even the number of sectoral collective agreements signed in 2018, after reaching their historic lows in 2003, has been only around one-third of that it used to be before the crisis. As for their coverage, estimates are rather conflicting.⁸¹ Anyway, it looks like the drop in the number of sectoral collective agreements has not affected by the same proportion the share of workers covered. That probably because those workers not covered by new agreements are still covered by existing agreements, relying on the mentioned after-effect rule. Even if after the 2009 reform the expiration of agreements is an option that one of the parties of collective agreements may trigger, this has not happened very frequently because also employers are normally reluctant to let agreements expire.⁸²

As anticipated, rather than promoting any sort of decentralisation of collective bargaining, the real effect of the changes in Portugal has been that of weakening collective bargaining at any level. This probably might depend on the already highlighted lack of a clear articulation between the different levels of collective bargaining and, more in general, on the characteristic of the Portuguese industrial relations system too reliant on institutional protections. Differently from France and Italy, social partners have not been able to control the centrifugal pressures, gradually moving the main source of employment regulation, from centralised collective bargaining and statutory law to individual contracting and managerial unilateralism.

79. Magnani (n. 46) 13, quotes the CNEL (National Council for Economics and Labour) census, which reports that in September 2017 there were 868 national level collective agreements, whereas in 2013 there were 561 and 396 in 2008. Not surprisingly, the increasing number of 'pirate' agreements goes hand in hand with the that of companies withdrawing from employers' associations, as confirmed by the survey quote above in n. 77. This has been made possible by the continued absence in Italy of a mechanism for the selection of bargaining players, notwithstanding the effort recently made by the most representative social partners.

80. See n. 63.

81. According to UGT, Relatório Anual da Negociação Coletiva – 2018, cit. above nt. 65, the number of workers covered by valid agreements had a slight decline during the crisis: from 83.5% to around 80%. OECD, Collective Bargaining in OECD and accession countries, <http://www.oecd.org/employment/collective-bargaining.htm>, embraces a more pessimist view, reporting that coverage dropped from 86% in 2008 until reaching 72% in 2015.

82. Távora & González Tabora (n. 49) 258.

6.6 CONCLUSIONS

Changing economic models have put the traditional hierarchy of labour law sources under stress. This is particularly true for those countries where employment regulation used to rely on strong centralised collective bargaining and the favour principle providing little room for derogation at the company level and even less for individual contracting and managerial unilateral decision.

Against this background, in some countries social partners have completely or partially lost the control of the undergoing transformation. National governments, supported (or forced) by the EEG, big companies and even 'non-mainstream' trade unions have successfully achieved disorganised decentralisation and individualisation of employment regulation.

This is clearly placing in jeopardy the purpose of labour law and even its very existence. The increasing room for derogation to protections afforded by statutes and multi-employer collective bargaining might lead to the end of labour law itself, replaced with a general freedom of contract regime. We are not there yet, and probably not even close. National systems of industrial relations have demonstrated to be rather resistant to the external pressure, especially in France and Italy. By and large, the traditional set-up of the hierarchy of labour law sources has not been disrupted hitherto. In particular, industry-level collective bargaining seems still barycentric and many companies, especially small, seem willing to rely on the 'stability' which sectoral agreements are able to provide.

However, if we look at the overall trend, we can appreciate that the medium long-term trajectory is a neo-liberal convergence between the different systems. Industrial relations are reducing 'the constraints – in the form of labor law or collective regulation – acting on employers ... increas[ing] their ability to manage the workplace and their relationship with their employees as they please'.⁸³ This trend of 'marketisation' is inevitably leading to negative externalities: i.e., market forces are very keen on getting rid of Employment Protection Legislation and public pension schemes, not considering that these create workers anxiety about the future and people failing to acquire pensions, eventually leading to reduced consumptions and a lot of old people in extreme poverty situation.⁸⁴

Collective bargaining has the capacity to mitigate these negative externalities by establishing arrangements which are able to provide substantive and procedural certainty for both workers and employers, and in particular greater

83. L. Baccaro, C. Howell, *A Common Neoliberal Trajectory: The Transformation of Industrial Relations in Advanced Capitalism*, 39 *Politics & Society* 521, 549 (2011) who gave particular emphasis to the decentralisation of collective bargaining, concluding that the resilience of national institutions to common challenges and trend is just surface.

84. C. Crouch, *Introduction: Labour Markets and Social Policy after the Crisis*, 20 *Transfer: European Review of Labour and Research*, 7, 9 (2014).

security for workers.⁸⁵ However, in order to ensure the sound functioning of collective bargaining, and more in general the maintenance of the traditional hierarchy of labour law sources based on the principle of favour, the social partners should be capable of a quick response to shifting economic paradigms, by governing the change, rather than opposing a counterproductive defence.

The best way of doing so is probably that of pursuing the trend, opened in the 1990s by the collective autonomy in many countries, towards ‘organised’ decentralisation.⁸⁶ According to empirical analysis, where the relationship between the different levels is coordinated by well-defined articulation mechanism, the labour market is more efficient⁸⁷ and the outcomes of collective bargaining are also consistent with the EU target of cost competitiveness.⁸⁸ This might require the intervention of the legislature, especially where systems based on strong voluntarism are no longer able to work properly, as in the case of Italy, in order to support the social partners’ choices. Or where, again in the case of Italy, but also Portugal, mechanisms for stimulating second-level collective bargaining (at the territorial or firm-level) under trade unions’ control are required in order to avoid managerial unilateralism.

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85. P. Marginson, M. Keune & D. Bohle, *Negotiating the Effects of Uncertainty? The Governance Capacity of Collective Bargaining under Pressure*, 20 *Transfer: European Review of Labour and Research*, 37, 39 (2014).

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