Change and Diversity in the Future of Work: From Challenges to Opportunities

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To my Brother
CONTENTS

Acknowledgments 7
Preface 9
Introduction 13

Chapter 1
Drivers of Change Shaping the Future of Work

1.1. Demography 16
  1.1.1. The ageing of the workforce
  1.1.2. The increase of racial, ethnic and linguistic diversity in the workforce
1.2. Technology 28
  1.2.1. Changing working time
  1.2.2. Changing workspaces
  1.2.3. Changing the way the work is done
1.3. Economic trends of the future 36
  1.3.1. Globalisation
  1.3.2. The transition towards a green economy

Chapter 2
Company of the Future: New Challenges

2.1. The new workforce 58
  2.1.1. New challenges in terms of: work organization
  2.1.2. ...Health and safety
  2.1.3. ...Learning and training
2.2. The new work office 92
  2.2.1. Flexible time and labour
  2.2.2. Flexible space
  2.2.3. New communication
2.3. The evolving employment relationships 105
  2.3.1. Between Employer, employee and trade unions
  2.3.2. Rewarding work not time
Appendix I: Delphy methodology 111
Chapter 3

How companies can thrive in the new world of work

3.1. Change and diversity management 172
   3.1.1. Change management
   3.1.2. Diversity management

3.2. Evidence from some Italian companies 187
   3.2.1. The contract catering sector
   3.2.2. Diversity management in a young and homogeneous company: the case of Leroy Merlin Italia S.r.l
   3.2.3. The future of labour relations: analysis of the three case studies

3.3. Guidelines for shifting from the old to the new world of work 196

Appendix I: Questionnaire 200
Appendix II: Companies’ questionnaires 204

Literature Review 223
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Finally, and most importantly, my special word of thanks goes to my family, a unique source of encouragement, patience and love during the long months of studying.
Preface

The present research project is the result of three years of investigation in the field of demographic changes and the future of labour relations. In February 2011, I won the competitive examinations for admission to the Doctoral School in “Human Capital Formation and Labour Relations” at the University of Bergamo (Decreto prot. n. 2203/IV/009) with a research project aimed at investigating how the increased ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity of the Italian workforce, which is mainly the consequence, among the others, of the increase in migration flows within the EU and from countries outside the EU, is affecting labour relations within Italian companies. The main reason behind this research project stemmed from the acknowledgement that, while there are several studies and research that frame the current working and social conditions of migrant workers in Italy – covering topics such as (un) employment and (in) activity rates, sectors of employment, level of education, wages, entrepreneurship, etc. – no much information is available on how this diversity is managed at company level in our national context. The research project aimed therefore to fill this gap also in consideration that this ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity is projected to increase in the coming decades and therefore must be soon tackled by the Italian companies. The research project intended to adopt a qualitative method enriched with comparative and interdisciplinary approach, which are core features of the Doctoral School in “Human Capital Formation and Labour Relations” (University of Bergamo, Italy).

I started the first year by reviewing the existing literature on how the increase in cultural, linguistic, and ethnic diversity in the workforce affects labour relations within the companies in Italy and abroad. The review of the existing literature on this demographic change lead me to consider another important demographic trend taking place at national level: the ageing of the population. Then, I started to focus on this topic for three main reasons. First of all, the importance of managing a more ethnic, cultural and linguistic diverse workforce cannot be fully understood if the consequences of the ageing of the population are not taken into consideration. The decrease in the share of the national working age and young population can be partially compensated by migration flows that bring young and new workforce. Therefore, the pool of foreign people available to work can partially compensate all those critical issues – such as shortages in labour supply, sustainability of the welfare system, occupational level in key economic sectors for the national economy etc. – posed by the increasing share of older people in the labour market. Secondly, the ageing of the workforce acquired increasing importance in view of the 2012 European Year on “Active Ageing and Solidarity between Generations”. Thus, I deepened the main implications that an older workforce poses at company level in terms of work organization, training, health and safety. This in-depth analysis has been possible not only for the number of studies that have been published in that year, but also for my personal involvement in the Eurofound Foundation Seminar Series 2011-2012 “Improving working conditions:
Contribution to active ageing”. This participation allowed me to get closer to those initiatives adopted by governments and social partners at national and European level to improve working conditions of older workers and contribute to their full participation in the labour market. Thirdly, I focused on the ageing of the workforce because, together with the increase of ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity it has been indicated by the literature as one of the main drivers of change shaping the future of work. This lead me to consider the remaining drivers of change that are affecting work, working environment and employment relations, namely technological innovation and some economic trends which, being interconnected and interdependent or mutually reliant on each other, are equally important when the objective of a research project is to investigate how companies are managing diversity and change in view of the future scenario.

As a consequence of the several topics touched during my first year of investigation, which is a feature of the qualitative research where the investigation pathway is open and dynamic, at the beginning of the second year I started to adopt a more comprehensive approach: I tried to investigate how businesses can better manage demographic changes without forgetting the other inter-connected drivers of change in view of the future scenario. My original research question changed into the following two questions: “How the work of the future will look like given a set of drivers of change?” and “How companies can better prepare themselves for the future scenario?”. The review of the existing literature was further enriched by the re-organization of the existing theories formulated in the field of diversity and change management, which represent the theoretical framework, on the basis of which I elaborated a semi-structured questionnaire to submit to companies in order to better know how they are preparing themselves to the future scenario and whether some best practices can be identified in order to draft some common general guidelines that might help companies to shift from the old to the new world of work. This took place during the first half of my third year thanks to the research period I spent abroad at the Institute for Research on Labour and Employment based at the University of California at Los Angeles (UCLA-IRLE). During my stay at UCLA-IRLE, I reviewed those studies and researches previously carried out in the field of diversity and change management that, having their roots in the U.S. context, which had already started to experience these changes in the past decade, are not fully available in our national scenario. Furthermore, the mix of cultures, races, ethnicities that characterizes the city of Los Angeles enabled me to get closer to the reality in which most of U.S. companies are already operating: the management of a diverse workforce. Thus, I could become acquainted about something that in my national context is not yet fully known.

The submission of the questionnaire and the interviews began at end of the second year and continued during the third year. In this framework, it is worth mentioning that this process revealed to be quite difficult. For several reasons, companies hardly gave their availability to participate in the questionnaire/interview, which of course goes to the detriment of the research findings and possible research developments. Therefore, I
really appreciate and thank those companies that spend their time to answer to the questionnaire or gave their availability for the interview, but I admit that further research is required in order to get the whole picture. Given my starting point in my first year of research, demography certainly occupies a central place in the main analysis and also in the questionnaire. However, it occupies a central role also because it is about people. It is about the set of individuals that make up the workforce of an organization. Therefore, it is strongly correlated to human resources, a core area of each company. It is by successfully managing people and enabling their full human capital deployment that a company can remain highly competitive in the future. Thus, my research project aims at contributing to the investigation on how the future of work will look like and how companies can prepare themselves to the future changes by starting with their employees and collaborators.
Introduction

Workplace relations and business environments will be significantly different in the coming decades. Several drivers of change – among which demographic trends, technological progress, economics and climate change – are transforming the way people live and work.

These factors pose new challenges for companies, in front of which they are called to review their own organizations and react in order to transform the current challenges into opportunities for growth, development and competitiveness. The change is not something new: it has always been a constant in the working life of people and in the organizations’ evolution. However, the novelty lies in the speed, limitless and interdependence of these drivers of change. Therefore, there are no doubts that work, working environment and workplace relations will be significantly different in the future. In order to tackle these drivers of change, it is thus fundamental for companies to, first of all, fully understand which challenges and opportunities these drivers of change entail; secondly, foresee how the world of work is likely to evolve in the coming decades and, finally, identify those management practices able to guarantee the competitive permanence of enterprises. Failing to promptly consider and tackle them, companies risk worsening their level of competitiveness and productivity and remaining out of the global market.

Given this framework, the current research project intends to answer to two main research questions: “How the future of the work will look like given some drivers of change?” and “To what extend companies are preparing themselves for the future scenario?”.

To answer to the first question, the desk research – which analyses the drivers of change (Chapter 1) and the projections on how the company of the future will look like in the coming decades (Chapter 2) – is further enriched with the investigation carried out through the Delphi Technique (1), a method that involved a structured discussion of a specific thematic area with the purpose of moving beyond the limitation of “what is” (present situation) to a “what could be” (future scenario).

Regarding the second research question, the current research project undertakes a qualitative method, which has the special value for investigating complex and sensitive issues rooted in the reality, such as the change of the workforce, working environment and workplace relations. Therefore, after having analysed the current drivers of change (Chapter 1) and how they are likely to affect the future of work, working environment and workplace relations, and on the basis of the desk research and Delphi Technique’s results (Chapter 2), the dissertation re-organizes the already existing theories formulated in the field of change management and diversity management – that represent the theoretical framework (Chapter 3) – and, through the elaboration and submission of a

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1 The Delphi technique is an established, accepted method for achieving a broad convergence of opinion from a diverse group of subject specialists who are posed questions on a certain topic area (see Chapter 2).
semi-structured questionnaire, the research project tries to assess to what extent Italian companies are preparing themselves to react to these changes in order to remain competitive in the future. The final aim is to outline some guidelines to better support companies in the shift from the old to the new world of work.

The current research project can be considered a contribution to the existing state of art of research in this field for at least three main reasons. First of all, the future of work is a topic mostly investigated at an international level rather than at the Italian one. In our national context there are just few attempts to investigate the issue of the future of work. Therefore, the current research project aims at contributing to the progress of the national research in this field. Secondly, there are few studies that consider the several forces shaping the future of work all together. Studies mostly concentrate just on one of them. However, due to the higher level of connectivity and interdependency among these factors, it is advisable to adopt a comprehensive approach, and few studies do so. Thus, the current research project aims at partially filling this gap with particular reference to our national context. Finally, the results of the Delphi technique and the case studies indicate that, despite being aware of the current on-going changes, not all Italian companies are fully and promptly tackling them and preparing themselves for the future scenario. The present research project, therefore, tries to help companies to get prepared to the future of work and workplace relations.
Chapter 1
Drivers of Change Shaping the Future of Work

Summary: 1.1. Demography – 1.1.1. The ageing of the workforce – 1.1.2. The increase of racial, ethnic and linguistic diversity in the workforce – 1.2 Technology – 1.2.1. Changing working time – 1.2.2. Changing workspaces – 1.2.3. Changing the way the work is done – 1.3. Economic trends of the future – 1.3.1. Globalisation – 1.3.2. The transition towards a green economy.

«The future is now [...] and failing to anticipate the future opportunities damages companies, economies and nations»
(Hamel and Prahalad, 1999)

One of the most critical questions companies are facing today is how the future of work will develop and the impact it will have on their organizations. Several drivers of change have emerged as forces shaping the future of work. Among those identified by the literature, the current research project takes into consideration the following ones: demographic change, technological innovation, new economic trends and climate change (Donkin, 2011; Gratton, 2011; Maitland and Thompson, 2011; Giarini and Liedtke, 2006; McDonald and Kippen, 2001; Judi and D’Amico, 1999; Johnston and Packer, 1987). The understanding of these forces appears to be the preliminary step to foresee the developments of companies are likely to undergo in the future and, therefore, those strategies they can implement to successfully shift towards the future labour market and economic context.

Demography is the force that determines the size and the composition of the current and future workforce. In particular, two demographic changes are relevant for the future of work and workplace relations: the “greying” and the “browning” of the workforce (Johnson, 2006). The first one refers to the ageing of the population that, consisting in higher life expectancy rates and lower fertility rates, will significantly change the age structure of the workforce. The second one concerns the increasing mix of ethnic groups, languages, religions, beliefs and cultures within the population as a consequence of a higher mobility of workers (or job seekers) around the globe. This second demographic change particularly affects the workforce because the migrant population is younger compared to the national one and therefore it collocates itself within the current and future working-age group of most industrialized countries in the world.

Technological innovation is visible in the renewed way people communicate, live and therefore work. Improved Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs), widespread use of mobile technological devices, and a larger extension of the Internet network have compressed time and space. Due to this global connectivity, much of the world has become more joined in terms of trade in goods and services, mobility of
labour, and exchange of information. In other words, it enabled globalisation, an additional driver of change. These trends have undoubtedly blurred the boundaries of what is commonly understood as “workplace” and “working hour”. Indeed, given the extended use of the new technologies and the higher level of global connectivity, most of the work can be now performed everywhere and at anytime. As a result, many of the ways of working taken for granted during the last thirty years are now disappearing.

Finally, the transition towards a low carbon economy, dictated by the global need of reducing the levels of pollution and CO2 emissions, is influencing current and future labour markets in terms of employment levels, jobs profiles and skills. With respect to the workforce, this change does not directly imply the creation of new jobs and specific skills (as it will be demonstrated in Paragraph 1.3.2), but rather the “greening of existing jobs” and the up-skilling of their present skills-portfolio with the integration of a more sustainable behaviour in the daily working practices.

All these forces are changing the future of work and workplace relations. The change is not something new: it has always been a constant in the working life of people and businesses. However, the novelty lies in the speed and the limitless of these drivers of change. The importance of considering them stems from the fact that it is no longer possible to imagine the future by simply extrapolating it from the past.

Starting from the available literature (see the Literature Review at the end of this dissertation), the current chapter, through a comparative and interdisciplinary approach, aims at better analysing the main drivers of change in order to fully understand which implications they have at macro and micro level for the Italian companies. The resulting framework will enable the author’s point of view on how the world of work will evolve in the coming decades (Chapter 2) and therefore identify and suggest some effective change management practices able to guarantee the competitive permanence in the labour market given also some evidence from real businesses’ case studies (Chapter 3).

1.1. Demography

1.1.1. The ageing of the workforce

The phenomenon of ageing is a consequence of people living longer than even before but with fewer children being born. In 1950-1955, life expectancy at the world level was 48 years but it had reached 68 years by 2005-2010. On the contrary, total fertility rate at the world level declined in the last forty years. In 2005-2010 it was 2.52 children per women while in 1970-1975 it was 4.45 (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2011c). As a result, in 2012 there were 810 million people aged 60 years or over in the world, 178 million more than in 2002, accounting 11% of the total world population (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2012).

Population ageing has been advancing in the most developed countries, but in the future
the developing countries will enter in a period of rapid population ageing too. In particular this trend will affect the Asian continent (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2011c).

At the EU-27 level, over the past 50 years the life expectancy at birth has increased by about 10 years for both men and women (European Commission and Eurostat, 2011) while the total fertility rate has declined steeply between 1980 and 2000-2003 falling far below the replacement level of 2.1. This translated into, first of all, a larger share of people aged over 65: the EU-27 population stood at an estimated 501.1 million person on the 1 January 2010 and, of these, some 87.1 million were aged over 65 (Eurostat, 2012). Secondly, a higher EU-27 old age dependency ratio: in 2010 it was 28.4% meaning that there were around 3.5 persons of working age for every person aged 65 years and over (Eurostat and European Commission, 2011). Within the EU-27 context, Italy, after Germany, is one of the oldest countries. According to the most recent census, as for 31th December 2011 the Italian population was estimated to be 59,433,744 people that is 4.3% more than the previous ten years (2001) (Istat, 2013). This increase mainly resulted from the migration flows from foreign countries. For instance, in 2010 the share of foreign people represented 7.5% of the overall population, on increase compared to 2009 - since the natural change considering the domestic population followed a negative trend (between 2009-2010 the number of births decreased by – 6,913 units). Indeed, in 2010, the Italian birth rate was 9.3 while the mortality rate was 9.7 (Istat, 2011). The lower number of births can be attributed to the fall in fertility rate among Italian women starting from 2009 (1.33) and lasting over 2010 (1.29). This means that the contribution given to the rate of birth on the part of immigrant women, about 18.8%, cannot compensate the negative trend reported among the Italian ones, who are also postponing the age at which they usually have children (it rose from 27.5 in 1980 to 31.3 in 2010) (Istat, 2011a). The most recent data indicate a slight change of the Italian demographic situation. Between 2010-2011 immigration flows towards Italy decreased compared to the previous two-year period. On 1st January 2012 foreign citizens living in Italy were more than 3.600.000, 100.000 more than 2011. In 2011, the fertility rate among Italian women was 1.39, while the age at which they have children was almost the same (31.4 years) (Istat, 2013).

Graph 1. Natural change in Italy: births, deaths

![Graph 1. Natural change in Italy: births, deaths](source: Istat, 2011)
The ageing of the Italian population results not only from the lower fertility rates but also from people living longer than before. Life expectancy at birth has increased for both men and women: in 2010, life expectancy was equal to 79.1 for men (74.6 in 1993) and 84.3 for women (81.0 in 1993) (European Commission and Eurostat, 2011). In 2011, it was equal to 79.4 for men and 84.5 for women, recording therefore an increase compared to the previous year. The increase from 2001 to 2011 is of 2.4 years for men and 1.7 years for women (Istat, 2013). For what life expectancy at age 65 concerns, in 2010 it was 18.3 for men and 21.9 for women (Istat, 2011a), with both figures reporting an increased if compared to 1993, when they were 15.6 for men and 19.5 for women, respectively (European Commission and Eurostat, 2011).

Due to the increase in life expectancy, the fall in fertility rates, and the large cohort of baby boomers entering their 60s, the age structure of population in Italy is becoming older. In the last ten years, the percentage of people over 65 has increased by 1.8 million (from 18.4% in 2001 to 20.3% in 2011). In the same period, the number of young people under 15 years old has increased (+ 348,000 people), yet decreasing in percentage terms: in 2010 they amounted to 14% of the total population (14.3% in 2001). The working age population (15-64 years old) also shrank: from 67.3% in 2001
to 65.7% in 2011. The increase of the population over 85 has been particularly high. In 2001, the “oldest-old” were 1,234,000 – 2.2% of the total population – whereas they were 1,675,000 (2.8%) in 2010 (Istat, 2011a).

Graph 4. Population distribution by age, Italy, 2001

Source: Istat, 2011a

Graph 5. Population distribution by major age groups, Italy, 2011

Source: Istat, 2011a

These demographic changes – together with the effects of the recent financial economic crisis such as the lower employment rates and the restructuring processes – have resulted in additional pressure for the sustainability of the European social schemes: increases in spending on public pension, long term-care as a proportion of GDP, and on public health. Pensions already represent a very large and rising share of public expenditure: more than 10% of GDP on average today, possibly rising to 12% in 2060 in the EU as a whole (European Commission, 2012). For what public expenditure on health care and long-term care concerns, the Commission stated that, due to the ageing of the population, it is projected to grow respectively by $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{1}{4}$ percentage points of GDP in the EU by 2060 (European Commission, 2009). Therefore, the decline in the size of the working age population, with probable labour and skills shortages and higher economic dependency ratios – which are of real concern since the European labour market cannot currently count, for instance, on the participation of young people (1 out of four was unemployed in 2012) and women (in 2013 the female employment rate was 46.8%) – risk implying slower rates of economic growth per capita. This situation, if not properly tackled, can even worsen if we consider that the population in the EU-27 and Italy is predicted to become older. According to Eurostat
2008-based population projections, the EU’s population will be slightly larger by 2060, while the age structure of the population will be much older than it is today. The share of the population aged 65 or over is projected to increase from 17.4% in 2010 to 30% in 2060. The old age dependency ratio is projected to more than double from 28.4% in 2010 to 58.5% in 2060 with the result that there will be almost one person of working age for every dependent person aged under 19 or over 65 years in the EU-27 (European Commission and Eurostat, 2011). In Italy, the young-age dependency ratio is predicted to decrease from 21.6% in 2011 to 20.6% in 2030, and then to increase to 23.1% in 2065. However, the old-age dependency ratio is a major concern: it is predicted to increase from 31% in 2011 to 61% in 2055. By 2056, in Italy the young population (under 14 years old) will account for 12.5%, the population in the working age (15-64) for 54.3% while the population over 65 for 33.2% (Istat, 2011b).

The possible future scenario consisting in higher level of public expenditure with slower rates of economic growth, can be avoided by various means – including increases in labour productivity, higher levels of immigration and increased fertility – but increasing labour market participation of older people is undoubtedly a crucial element of any policy response. This is particularly true in the European context where, despite the EU Institutions’ initiatives dating back to the Lisbon Strategy (2000), the participation of this age group in the labour market still remains a key challenge. As illustrated in Figure 1, in 2010 the EU employment rate of older workers (55-64) was 46.3% – therefore below the EU Lisbon target of 50% – with large differences across Member States, ranging from 30.2% in Malta to 70.5% in Sweden.

**Figure 1.** Employment rates of older people (55-64) in the EU-27 in 2010

On the basis of most recent data (Eurostat, 2011b), 57.5% of people aged 50-64 years
old, which are approximately 58.1 million persons (Eurostat, 2012), are employed in the EU-27. Those countries that have the highest employment rates for this age group are Sweden (76.4%), Norway (74.5%) and Germany (68.2%) while those performing worst are Malta (40.1%), Slovenia (46.8%) and Hungary (47.2%). Taking into consideration those people aged 65-74 years old, the EU member states that in 2011 showed the highest employment rates are Romania (21.8%), Portugal (19.3%) and Norway (18.6%), while those with the lowest employment rates are Hungary (3.6%), Belgium (3.1%) and Slovakia (3.0%). Italy doesn’t collocate itself among the most better performing countries. Indeed, the employment rate of people aged 50-64 is 46.9%, while the one of those aged 65-74 is 5.4% (see Table 1).
Table 1. Employment rates by age groups in the EU-27, 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEO/AGE</th>
<th>From 15 to 24 years</th>
<th>From 25 to 49 years</th>
<th>From 50 to 64 years</th>
<th>From 65 to 74 years</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Union (27 countries)</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>78.0</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>8.0</td>
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<td>Euro area (17 countries)</td>
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<td>77.5</td>
<td>57.5</td>
<td>6.1</td>
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<td>80.5</td>
<td>51.6</td>
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<td>73.5</td>
<td>53.8</td>
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<td>59.0</td>
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<td>82.3</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>85.1</td>
<td>76.4</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>80.2</td>
<td>65.1</td>
<td>14.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>82.9</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>84.9</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td>76.1</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>71.6</td>
<td>46.5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>56.5</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Eurostat, 2011a*
Pension systems undoubtedly represent one of the main factors affecting the supply of labour and the economic dependency ratio. Normal and early pension eligibility ages are furthermore key parameters for participation rates. This explains the Commission’s recommendations to, on the one side, restrict early retirement schemes and, on the other side, to increase pension eligibility ages and therefore support longer working lives (European Commission, 2012). The pensions reforms already approved in the European Member States follow this direction. Hungary and Sweden, indeed, abolished early retirement schemes (respectively in 2011 and 2003) while Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Italy, Poland, Portugal and Spain restricted access to early retirement. The most common measure adopted by almost all European countries, always with the aim of increasing employment rates, has been the raising of the pensionable age and linking it to gains in life expectancy insomuch as “67 – or higher” has become the new “65” (OECD, 2012a). However, what has become more evident is that improvements in labour market participation of older people – and therefore higher employment rates – can be reached not just by acting on the quantitative aspect of the problem – such as rising the statutory pension age – but also focusing on the quality of their working conditions. The two things, indeed, are interwoven: the success of reforms aimed at increasing pension eligibility ages depends on the real possibility for older women and men to stay active in the labour market. In this sense, all those policies aimed at improving work arrangements for older people, enhancing lifelong learning and skills updating, and promoting an healthy and safety ageing at the workplace (Chapter 2) – which generally come under the umbrella of active ageing policies (European Parliament and the Council, 2011) – are fundamental for enabling European and Italian workers not just to «live longer, work longer» (OECD, 2006) but to «living longer, working better» (Eurofound, 2011).

1.1.2. The increase of racial, ethnic and linguistic diversity in the workforce

The increase of ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity of the population – which, in the late 1990s, has been indicated as the “browning” of the population (Johnson et al., 1997) but from now the following “colouring” expression will be used (\(^2\)) – is a demographic change stemming from several factors among which, in particular, the increase in migration flows at global (OECD, 2012; United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2011; United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2011a), European (Eurostat, 2012a; Eurostat, 2011; European Commission and Eurostat, 2011) and at Italian level (Istat, 2013).

\(^2\) During several conferences I participated as a speaker on the topics of demographic changes and the effects on labour law and relations, the word “browning” received some criticisms. This expression is often negatively seen because it appears to reinforce some racist thoughts. However, since the term has
By 2010, the estimated number of international migrants was 214 million, an increase of 58 million since 1990. International migrants represented 3.1% of the total world population in 2010, with the more developed regions hosting about 60% of the total migrant stock. The largest number of international migrants lived in Europe (70 million), followed by Asia (61 million) and Northern America (50 million). Oceania had the highest percentage of international migrants relative to the total population (16.8%) followed by Northern America (14.2%) and Europe (9.5%). Female migrants, which are relevant considering for instance their higher fertility rates compared to native women (see the previous Paragraph), represented almost half of the total international migrant stock in 2010: they outnumbered male migrants on Europe and Oceania (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2011b).

In the EU-27, the “colouring” of the workforce is mainly the consequence of the increase in migration flows within and from outside the EU. Free movement of workers within the EU was achieved in 1968 as one of the four pillars of the EU Single Market. Since then, this free movement enabled the increase of workforce’s diversity in terms of culture, language and beliefs, further accentuated by the EU enlargements of 2004 and 2007. As for the migration from outside the EU, it dates back to the decade following the Second World War. During the 1950s and particularly the 1960s, the number of foreign workers recruited into the North-western European economies grew rapidly, mainly into low-skilled jobs. During the 1966-67 recession, as well as during the oil crisis in 1973-74, recruitment slowed but soon resumed. By 1980, stocks of foreign-born population were higher in most countries than in 1973. A predominant young, single and temporary foreign population had become a settled one, as more married migrants arrived and were joined by spouses and children. By the mid-1980s Europe had a population of foreign origin substantially different from that of ten years before. In the aftermath of the fall of the Iron Curtain in 1989, in Europe growing flows from the countries of the South were creating a new “migration frontier” along the northern shores of Mediterranean. Italy, Greece, Spain and Portugal, traditionally countries of emigration, become one of net immigration. Furthermore, thanks to the opening of Central and Eastern Europe and to the economic growth in Asian countries, in the 1990s there was the recognition of a new feature of migration: globalisation, as the numbers of countries involved in migration grew. By the turn of the millennium, migration tended to gather pace in 2000 and 2001 resulting primarily from labour migration and, secondly, from international student mobility which attracted increasing attention (OECD, 2011). It is possible to affirm that between 1980 and 2008, the majority of immigrants to Europe came from developed countries, especially other European countries. In absolute numbers, the inflow of immigrants from less developed countries was high in France, Germany and the United Kingdom. The number of immigrants to

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itself some limits – it just remind the black colour while today the increasing mix of cultures also derives from Asian and Latin American people who are not black – I coin the term “colouring” of the population, which, from my perspective, is more suitable for this research project.
Italy and Spain from less developed regions also increased (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2011b).

As a result of these flows, in 2011 there were 33.3 million foreign citizens resident in the EU-27 (foreign population), representing 6.6% of the total population. The majority, 20.5 million, were citizens of non-EU countries (foreign-born population), while the remaining 12.8 million were citizens of other European member states (Vasileva, 2012). According to the same source, in the same year in Italy there were 4,570,300 foreign citizens, representing 7.5% of the total population. The majority, 3,235,500, were citizens of non-EU countries, while the remaining 1,334,800 were citizens of other EU member states. In general, foreign people resident in Italy were mainly born in Romania (16.9% equal to 904,000), Albania (7.9% equal to 421,400) and Morocco (7.3% equal to 392,100). On 1st January 2012, the foreign population resident in Italy was about 4.9 million people (Istat, 2013). In absolutes terms, Italy has one of the most diverse populations in the EU-27, after Germany (7,189,900) and Spain (5,654,600).

The change is particularly evident in the current and future working-age population since the foreign population resident in the EU and in Italy is younger than the national one. In 2009 the median age of the EU-27 national population was 41.2 years, while the one of non-nationals living in the EU in the same year was 34.3. In Italy the age difference in the median age was even more visible in that year: 43.9 for nationals versus 32.3 for foreigners (European Commission and Eurostat, 2011). The age difference in the workforce is further highlighted in the data reported by the Italian Ministry of Labour: in 2011 the working age group between 15 and 34 years old in Italy was represented by 44.2% of EU-citizens, 35.7% of non EU-citizens and finally just by 25% of Italians. The contrary can be said for the working age group over 55 where 25% are Italians, 7% non-EU citizens and 4.8% EU citizens (Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali, 2012). As for the future working-age population, another demographic indicator might be considered as driver of this diversity: the birth rate of the foreign population. For instance, in 2011 in Italy there were 546,606 of births, 15,000 less than 2010. This decrease can be mainly attributed to a decline of births among Italian couples and those among one Italian and one foreign parent. On the contrary, the birth rate of foreign parents living in Italy has increased (79,000 in 2011), representing 14.5% of total births registered in that year (Istat, 2012). Therefore, there are no doubts concerning the future increase of diversity in the composition of the European and Italian population and workforce. If in 2008 12.7% of the EU residents aged 15-74 were foreign-born or had at least one foreign parent, according to a research study in 2060 this group may more than double and exceed 25% of the population across all the ages (Lanzieri G. in European Commission and Eurostat, 2011). At Italian level, by 2065 the foreign population will account for 22%-24% of the total population (Istat, 2011b). Thus, in the future, employers will be able to gain from a larger share of foreign – or at least with foreign origin and background – workforce which presence is already significant in some sectors.
In order to fully understand how the “colouring” of the workforce will affect the future of workplace relations, it is important to frame the current working conditions of the foreign workforce. At EU-27 level, in 2008, the activity rate of foreign-born persons was five percentage points lower than that of native-born persons: 80% versus 85%. In this group, the non EU-27 born people have a lower activity rate (78%) compared to that of EU-27-born (84%). The lower overall participation rate of foreign-born persons in the labour market was due to the significantly lower activity rates of foreign-born women (69% versus 78%) rather than that of foreign-born men (92% versus 92%) and again, the group which was affected by the lowest activity rate was the one of non-EU-27 born women (67%). Labour market disadvantages for non-EU-27 born people are more visible when unemployment rates are analysed. Indeed, in 2008, the unemployment rates of foreign people were higher than for native (10% versus 6%) and in this group, the non-EU-27 born people were the most affected: 12% against 7% for EU-27-born population. Again, non-EU-27 born women registered the highest unemployment rates: 12% versus 9% for EU-27 born women and 6% for native born. The inequality between foreign citizens and nationals could be observed also when the overqualification rate – the share of people with tertiary education working in a low or medium skilled job among employed persons having achieved tertiary education – is taken into consideration. In 2008, the overqualification rate for third-country nationals was 46% compared to 31% for EU-27 citizens and 19% for nationals. Third-country women again are the most affected by this rate: 49% compared to 33% of EU-27 citizens and 20% for nationals. Fortunately, data report better labour market conditions for the second-generation migrants – those people both with one parent or two parents born abroad – living in the EU-27. In 2008, in the age group 25-54, the activity rate of the second-generation migrants was almost identical to the activity rates of persons with a native background (86%). Only in Belgium, Greece and Spain did the second-generation migrants with a foreign background have considerably lower activity rates, whereas in Italy and Slovakia they reported considerably higher activity rates (differences of around five percentage points or over) (Eurostat, 2011).

In Italy, about 2,250,000 foreign people – including EU citizens and non-EU citizens – over 15 years old were employed in 2011. The employment rate of EU citizens living in Italy was 65.3% and the one of non-EU citizens was 59.5%. In both cases, the employment rate was higher than the one registered among the Italian population over 15 years old (43.0%). Most recent data confirmed the increase of diversity in the workforce. In 2012, the foreign workforce represented 9.4% of the total workforce. The employment rate of foreigners was higher than the one of Italians (67% versus 60.6%) and the same can be said for the unemployment rate: 11.6% for foreign people and 8.1% for natives (Istat, 2013). The first three foreign ethnic groups employed in Italy are from Albania, Morocco and Ukraine. Taking into consideration the activity rate of 2011, it appears that it is higher in the EU foreign population (75.4%) and in the non-EU foreign population (68.9%) resident in Italy, while the national’s activity rate was of 61.4%. This trend is confirmed also by most recent data. In 2012 the inactivity rate of
foreigners (28.6%) is lower the one of Italians (38.6%) (Istat, 2013). When the level of education of the working-age population is taken into consideration, the panorama is different. In 2011, 11.3% of the employed EU-citizens (which represent 3.2% of the total employed population in Italy) have a degree (ISCED 5), 62% a diploma (ISCED 3). In case of non-EU citizens (which represent 3.2% of the total employed population in Italy), 10.2% have a degree (ISCED 5), 36.4% a diploma (ISCED 3). The percentages about the Italian citizens are 18.6% (ISCED 5) and 46% (ISCED3). Therefore, with reference to the highest level of education, the benchmark is in favour of the Italian group of employed people. When analysing the distribution among the sectors, it noticeable that foreign people – both EU citizens and non-EU citizens – are equally distributed. The latter are more employed in the agriculture and industry sector than in the service sector (see Table 2) (Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali, 2012).

Table 2. Employed people (over 15) per sector and citizenship, Italy, 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic sector</th>
<th>Absolute terms</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Italians</td>
<td>EU citizens resident in Italy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>747,238</td>
<td>38,508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industry</td>
<td>5,750,720</td>
<td>257,598</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>4,241,015</td>
<td>114,811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>1,509,705</td>
<td>142,787</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other activities</td>
<td>14,217,804</td>
<td>444,435</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>11,118,641</td>
<td>39,432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>20,715,762</td>
<td>740,541</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali, 2012

73% of foreign workers have a no fixed term contract and they are mostly concentrated in Emilia Romagna, Lombardy and Veneto. Altogether, these three Regions host 56.7% of foreign workers, 30% of which is located in the sole Lombardy Region (Aifos, 2012).

Table 3. Placement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blue-collar workers</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third countries</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White-collar workers</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third countries</td>
<td>8.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Istat in Aifos, 2012
Despite this certainty about the demographic future of the country, and the significant presence of foreign workers in some economic sectors, diversity management, deeply analysed in Chapter 3, appears to be not fully considered by the Italian companies (Riccò, 2008).

In general, to increase labour force participation of foreign and migrant workers, several steps are required. A first step will involve removing the legal, administrative and cultural barriers to promote greater intra-EU labour mobility. Key instruments in this regard include the full portability of welfare and pensions rights, improved language training, full recognition of foreign academic degrees as well as professional skills throughout the EU (Reflection Group on the Future of the EU 2030, 2010). A second step will include the creation of a more inclusive working environment, through adequate working arrangements, health and safety measures and learning programmes (see Chapter 2). In this regard, Europe has much to learn from countries such as Australia, Canada and the United States, with which, furthermore, it is in direct competition for talented and skilled immigrants.

1.2. Technology

Technological progress has always been a constant in the evolution of our societies and economies and often initiated with technological revolutions, namely eras of technological progress characterized not only by technical innovations but also by their widespread application and diffusion, bringing new changes in management, learning, social behaviours and interactions.

The literature identified several technological revolutions that occurred in the modern era – such as the Industrial Revolution (1780-1840), the Second Industrial Revolution (1880-1920) and the Scientific-technical Revolution (1940-1970) – and there are no doubts that, since the beginning of the new millennium, we are witnessing a new revolution characterized by information and telecommunications, which is rewriting economic trends, social behaviours, work, workplaces and workforce in multiple and contradictory ways. Technology, indeed, is gradually overcoming the barriers of time and distance that have organized work through the last decades. It is increasingly enabling employers and workers to choose when, where and how the work is to get done. Technological change is also introducing change and turbulence into every industry and every job, requiring, on the one side, a process of constant adaptation and rethinking on how a task need to be performed, and, on the other side, a continuous process of learning and skills updating.

All these implications are interconnected, bringing both winners and losers among industries, companies and individuals. The accelerating pace and multifaceted dimensions of this new wave of technological change, however, are something new. Therefore, the understanding of the implications of this new technological revolution is
crucial for anticipating and managing changes in view of a different future working environment. This is even more important considering that most of labour market institutions and policies do not keep up with the changes in business practices and technology that are defining the future.

1.2.1. Changing working time

Working time has always been a central element in the working conditions of all workers and in the work organization of all employers. The issue, indeed, can have significant consequences for business competitiveness and work-life balance. Let’s consider, for instance, the higher number of women joining the workforce in the 1970s and 1980s. This new phenomenon fostered, among the others, an extended use of “part time” work. This new working time, not only enabled a better conciliation between working and domestic responsibilities for women (raising at the same time new issues such as female compensation, wage rates, child rearing etc.) but also helped companies to deal with a more complex and globalized world, where employers were increasingly obliged to respond to customer demands with both flexibly and a more efficient use of human resources. Part time work became soon one of the most widespread form of the new “flexible working” arrangements, useful not only for women but also for the whole workforce. According to findings of the Eurofound Fifth European Working Conditions Survey, while there has been an ongoing decline in the number of hours worked per week in Europe (from 40.5 in 1991 to 36.4 in 2010 in the same 12 former EC Member States), the proportion of people working part time (fewer than 34 hours per week) has steadily increased, from 17% of the in 1991, to 27% in 2010 in the same group of countries (Eurofound, 2012). In the EU27 the average part-time employment as a share of the total employment was 19.2% in 2012. In Italy, 16.8% of the total employment worked part time last year (Eurostat, 2013).

A part from part time work, flexible working time arrangements include: the ability to start or leave work earlier or later, the ability to take whole days off without using holidays or special leaves, job-sharing and shift swapping. In 2009, more than half of all companies with 10 or more employees in the EU (57%) used some type of these flexitime arrangements. This reflects a substantial increase from 2004, when the average was 48% of companies (Eurofound, 2012).

Nowadays, the widespread use and diffusion of the new information and communication tools (smart phones, laptops, tablet etc.) are bringing a new change in the conventional working time. “Conventional” usually refers to working patterns of 8 hours per day distributed over 5 days per week. If until the late 1990s the above-mentioned flexible working arrangements consisted in various flexible hours options implying the shift of the time that the work is performed (as mentioned above), the new information and communication tools enable to choose a working time going beyond the conventional assumptions and shifts of time. Given their higher level of ICTs’ mobility and connectivity, employees can work during unusual hours (early in the
morning, late in the night, during lunch breaks etc.) and employers can enjoy more freedom in modulating the workload distribution. Working a certain amount of hours per day and from Monday to Friday is no more the sole common rule, especially for certain jobs (mostly connected with the tertiary sector and restricted to administrative and management positions), where the conventional distribution and notion of working time is altered. Eurofound data affirm these considerations. For instance, half the European workforce works at least one Saturday per month, with 23% working at least three Saturdays a month. About 18% work at least one night per week. Around 17% of (mainly younger) workers do shift work, while 21% work on call (Eurofound, 2012). More interestingly, this trend is likely to persist in the future: in 2011 more than half of world students (54%) – who represent the future workforce – declared they would like to work unconventionally based on schedules, convenience and lifestyle (Cisco, 2011). This prediction is reinforced by the fact that new ICTs better reply to the needs and reasons originally identified for introducing more flexible arrangements in order to benefit both workers and employers. On the workers’ side, flexible working time arrangements are often introduced to better facilitate work-life balance and the reconciliation between work and caring responsibilities, which are of great importance nowadays considering other growing trends such as increasing commuting times and rising housing and childcare costs. On the employers’ side, flexible working time arrangements have the advantage of creating a system of working hours that is more readily adapted to variations in the workload and unforeseen events. Studies and research use to mention other advantages for employers: the retention and attraction of staff; increase in productivity and reduction of operating costs. For instance, at EU level, both managers and employee representatives reported that flexitime brought concrete benefits to their organisations. Indeed, over 60% of managers and over 70% of employee representatives felt that it resulted in greater job satisfaction; and around 50% of managers and over 65% of representatives believed it enabled the organisation to better adapt to variations in the workload (Eurofound, 2012). However, there are also some drawbacks: on the employer’s side, there is a higher risk of provoking work related illnesses and stress, while on the workers’ side, the distinction between private and working life is blurred and participation in collective, leisure, cultural or political activities is reduced.

In addition to these issues, there is another significant implication deriving from the extended use of the new information and communication technologies: work is less dependent on time. The amount of time is put in achieving the result is becoming more irrelevant. Achievements and results-based working count more: they are becoming the core element of future work and remuneration (Maitland and Thompson, 2011). This means that in the future work will be rewarded not according to the time but to the result, leasing people to have more than one job and employers to introduce more flexible rewarding patterns (see Paragraph 2.3.3.).
1.2.2. Changing workspaces

Technological changes have gradually overcome not only the barriers of time but also distances that have organized and characterized work through the centuries. This firstly appeared with the possibility to perform work in remote. Telework and virtual work, indeed, have experienced a rapid increase since 1996 in the U.S. – when the Clean Act amendments required companies with over 100 employees to encourage telecommuting – and then around the world. Whereas telework generally involves working a portion of the work week away from the traditional office (therefore the worker maintains a desk in the centralized office) and communicating by computer-based technology, virtual work instead entails working nearly full time away from the office place, often in a different geographic region, while interacting with others through communication technology (Golden and Fromen, 2011). These work mode practices began to become part of the corporate landscape in most of the countries as they enabled managers to meet flexibility and employees to satisfy their own needs. In the U.S., approximately 10% of workers telecommuted in the mid-1990s. This rate increased slightly to 17% in the early 2000s and then remained constant to the mid-2000s. In the U.S. context there are no significant differences between younger and older cohorts of workers but college-educated workers and those in managerial and professional occupations are significantly more likely to telework than the population as a whole (Noonan and Glass, 2012). In the EU the number of teleworkers was estimated at 4.5 million employees in 2002, the year of the European framework agreement on telework concluded by the European social partners (BusinessEurope, the European Association of Crafts, Small and Medium size Enterprises, the European centre of Enterprises with Public Participation of Enterprises of General Economic Interest and the European Trade Union Confederation). Since then there are no significant comparable cross-border data to measure its development (Eurostat, 2009). Eurofound report more recent data about the incidence of telework in the EU27. According to this source, the EU27 average of employees involved in telework at least “a quarter of the time or more” is 7%, while the percentage of those involved in telework “almost all of the time” is 1.7. The highest percentages are recorded in Czech Republic where 15.2% of employees are involved in telework at least “a quarter of the time” and 9% “almost all of the time”. Italy is one of the EU countries with the lowest percentages: 2.3% of employees are involved in telework at least “a quarter of the time” while very few (0.5%) are involved in telework “almost all of the time” (Eurofound, 2010). The overall data indicate that “part-time” telework is mostly used than “full-time” telework in order to make employment relationship more flexible, while, at the same time, avoiding possible difficulties that arise when employees are separated from the working environment.

Today, the new ICTs bring the “remote work” to a further evolution: the “ubiquous work” – something that can be performed everywhere and at anytime. It is no more about working partly or totally from home or some other dislocated office, but it is about the possibility to freely choose the place (and the time) of working given the
higher level of mobility and connectivity entailed in these new communication technologies. This not only enables employees, mostly engaged in corporate headquarters functions (such as administration, finance, human resources) and in specific sectors (such as real estate, financial intermediation and education and telecommunication), to choose work routines that suit their lifestyle preferences (and gives employers access to employees they may not otherwise engage), but it also provides employers unprecedented flexibility in how they use labour. The advantages and drawbacks, already pointed out by the literature in the field of telework and virtual work, are likely to persist with the “ubiquous work”.

Among the advantages for businesses, scholars usually identify the following: a more flexible and efficient use of the workforce; a higher possibility to internalize competences; reduction of labour costs in favour of a wider occupation of specific working groups; reduction in time, energy consumption and traffic congestion; reduction of absenteeism and increase in productivity. Indeed, various studies and research emphasize that companies tend to use the new flexible and mobile technological tools to be more precise in planning their activities, therefore when and how they engage labour – moving closer to making labour a variable cost, rather than a fixed one. In fact, companies can now choose to employ workers on a spectrum of work arrangements (from traditional full-time workers who come to the office every day to contingent remote workers) bringing talent and highly specialized expertise when needed. This can have also the advantage to reduce total labour costs and offer employment opportunities to people who might not want to work full-time (for instance parents of young children, post-secondary students, or people in retirement). Having fewer workers indoor and going everyday to the workplace has undoubtedly the advantage of reducing the waste of time and money in commuting as well as reduction in the working spaces dedicated to offices and in the related energy costs (heating, light, telephone etc.). Furthermore, some empirical studies (for instance Thomson, 2010) have highlighted that the vast majority of people working for part of their time at home are more productive. This happens because they are able to gain a benefit from not having to travel to work and use some of this saved time to increase their output; they could choose the time that they worked and concentrate better with few interruptions that, on the contrary, often occur in the work office. Workers’ assumptions reported in 2011 confirm this: around 47% of end users declared that office is important for special meetings, but unnecessary for everyday job routines since working from home/remotely allow more mobility and flexibility (Cisco, 2011).

From the worker’s point of view, the “ubiquous work” has the advantage of bringing greater freedom and enhanced discretion in how the work has to be accomplished in addition to the well-acknowledged contribution to work-life balance, in particular for those with caregiving responsibilities. However, some studies report that these advantages are more likely to occur when managers and subordinates (or colleagues) have the same work modes, because they have the same basis for developing mutual shared understandings, trust and implicit endorsement leading to a greater empathy and
therefore stronger relationship. When there is no congruency in work modes between manager and subordinate or among colleagues, more debateable aspects related to the “ubiquous work” are observed. For instance, in the traditional office, workers can easily locate their colleagues or managers and stop them for clarification or sharing information, ideas, knowledge and experiences etc. In the “ubiquous work” the physical proximity is lacking undermining the possibility to exchange mutual opportunities. The lack of daily face-to-face interaction has other additional implications for traditional work experience. First of all, it has effects in terms of feedback. Studies and research (among the other Golden and Fromen, 2011) report that employees with a manager who teleworks or works virtually are likely to experience a degraded quality in their exchanges in the form of reduced feedbacks. Those feedbacks that occur are less rich than interacting face to face. Secondly, distance has implications in terms of clarity. Due to the physical separation and increased reliance upon electronic communication media, workers may have greater difficulty in understanding the precise nature of instructions received, with a subsequent higher risk of conflict between individuals. In third place, evidence suggests that subordinates whose managers telework or work virtually are less prone to receive the same level of professional development compared to if their manager worked in a traditional work mode. Without physical collocation, development activities are less likely to take place. Fourthly, the absence from the office appears to introduce greater ambiguity into the assignment of work tasks and the misappropriation of subordinate workloads. As a consequence of these implications, those that work in remote (or have colleagues/managers working in remote) feel less satisfied and not fully able to separate private from working life. For instance, in the U.S. teleworkers work between 5 and 7 total hours more per week than non-telecommuters and are more likely to work overtime, regardless of how overtime is defined (i.e., as working more than 40, 50, or 60 hours per week) (Noonan and Glass, 2012). In the European context other issues arise in relation with over time. Under the labour code in the Czech Republic and Slovakia, for example, teleworkers cannot claim bonuses compensating for working overtime, at night, on weekends or on public holidays. In Denmark, to cite another example, the collective agreement for the financial services sector stipulates that teleworkers are not entitled to receive extra supplements if they organise their working hours outside the normal working hours specified in the collective agreement (Eurofound, 2010). Therefore these new ICTs tools are likely to generate additional challenges for the companies of the future. In addition to over time, the following ones are often mentioned: reduced participation to collective representation mechanisms and rights; reduced access to training; reduced possibility to career development; monitoring of health and safety of the chosen place of work.

The continued popularity and rapid growth of this new virtual and ubiquitous work – in the future, nearly 2 in 3 students expect to be able to access their corporate network using their home computer while about half expect to do the same using their personal mobile devices (Cisco, 2011) – suggests that in the future the working place will be less
the place where everyday workers go to perform their job. Laptops are likely to become the “real office” while what is today conventionally meant by “working place” will be more a “meeting place”. Aspects of Web 2.0 such as collaboration technologies, universal access, and social networking (see Figure 2) are already beginning to transform business as usual, with traditional hierarchies starting to give way to democratized work styles and looser leadership styles that are more collaborative and less authoritarian (Cisco, 2011a). Organizational decision makers may need to construct work units with such potential impacts in mind and possibly identify boundaries and rules of this new work mode in order to reduce negative impacts and foster productivity.

**Figure 2.** The use of social networks for job/work reasons

By connecting different places, times and set of workers (not just employees, but also partners, competitors, customers and freelancers), the recent technological change, occurred with the widespread use of Internet (see Graph 6) and the massive introduction of new mobile tools in our daily life, has altered, first of all, the way people get information and news; secondly, they way employees perform their jobs; and thirdly, how workers behave with colleagues and superiors.

**Graph 6.** World Internet Users Distribution by World Regions – 2012Q2

*Source: Internet World Stats – www.internetworldstats.com/stats.htm*
Concerning the first aspect – way people get information and news – the change is already visible in the new generations who represent the future workforce. In 2011, at global level, the largest proportion of college students indicated that their laptop is their primary way of getting information and news, and more than half of them indicated they could not live without the Internet. This has an implication for the future company as 94% of them also affirmed that, because work time often blends with personal time, company-issued devices should be available for both work and play. In other terms, any company-issued device can and should be used for accessing any information at any time from any location. It is the way it is today and the way it will be in the future. Indeed, they also declared that, once they join the workforce they would prefer their organization give them a set of budget to purchase their own laptop, smartphone and other devices of their choice (Cisco, 2011).

In addition to this change, the wider use of online collaborative platforms, networks, web devices, services, applications and channels have gradually made labour relations less hierarchical and more horizontal and facilitate knowledge work in a way that was simply impossible previously. Hierarchical structures are gradually replaced by more flexible and flat networks, which, in turn, rely more on knowledge and good ideas rather than physical labour. Indeed, the success of blogs and wikis has been explained by the fact that they cumulate and share content (and therefore knowledge) that, if continuously and properly updated, can create new knowledge within the group of users. The shift is from current platforms (such as intranets) where users are just informed and have little opportunity to influence, to online applications, services and spaces where all users can equally contribute. As a result, work and labour relations are changing. Collaborative and social work (and organizations) appear to be the predominant trend of the future (further analysed in Paragraph 2.3.). However, to foster productivity and competitiveness, technology and the new ICTs tools alone are not enough. They must go together with other assets, in particular with skills (at individual level) and organizational culture (at company level). Indeed, several studies (among the others Ibm, 2010) report that, in the future, workers should have, on the one side, interdisciplinary skills able to deal with ever changing business dynamics and, on the other side, the so-called “e-skills” able to go beyond traditional boundaries. In terms of information-related capabilities, this implies integrating data sources and using real time information for decision making topped executives’ agenda. In terms of processes, this means reconfiguring them as conditions change. Whether using newer social software tools (such as blogs, wikis and multimedia), or more traditional collaborative technologies (such as instant messaging and collaborative spaces), the key is embedding these tools into day-to-day business processes through corporate culture and a set of interdisciplinary and e-skills. This is because it is not automatic that those people that are using Internet today are willing and able to use blogs, wikis, social networks and online platforms. Technology is clearly a major enabler of smarter working practices but, to this aim, organizations should align it with workforce’ skills and capabilities. Furthermore, leaders have to play a crucial role in terms of
organizational culture. They have to encourage and stimulate use of the new tools as a long-term objective and refrain from intervening too much on this. When these requirements are met, some benefits already observed can be reached: knowledge sharing and transfer; collective intelligence and memory, and identifying new opportunities and ideas.

1.3. Economic trends of the future

1.3.1. Globalisation

The term “globalisation” denotes the most extended, growing scale and faster impact of interregional relations and patterns of social interactions. It refers to a real transformation in the scale of the way societies organize themselves. Although the term has spread in the last twenty years, the development of the concept goes back much earlier. Its origins can be traced in the studies of many intellectuals of the 19th and early 20th century – such as Saint-Simon and MacKinder – who emphasized how the modernization was leading to the progressive integration of the world (Held and McGrew, 2002). However, it is during the 1960s and 1970s that the term “globalisation” was actually used. These are the years of rapid expansion of political and economic interdependences that revealed the inadequacy of traditional approaches in understanding the issues. The gradual improvements in transportation and communication technologies created a global market with fewer and fewer internal boundaries. National economies started to be integrated and form an international market where products, services, capitals and people move at a pace and extension that was not possible before. The information and communication revolution – described in the previous paragraph – intensified the public awareness of globalisation and made more evident its implications. As stated by Theodore Levitt, «gone were accustomed differences in national or regional preferences, gone were the days when a company could sell last year’s models and gone were the days when prices, margins and profits abroad were generally higher than at home» (Levitt, 1984). Since then a large number of indicators show that globalization has accelerated. For example, from 1980 to 2007 the index of the number of international financial transactions taking place daily increased from 100 to 943. During the same period of time, the number of exports per capita of the world population increased from a level of 437 billion dollars to a volume of 2.353 billion dollars (Simon and Zatta, 2011). These and other changes affect labour markets and for this reason globalisation has been identified as an economic force shaping the future of world.

One of the most visible effects of the integrated global economy and labour markets has been the increase in international migration flows of workers. Greater access to global information and cheaper transport mean that geography pose less of a barrier to movement, in particular that from developing countries to the industrialized ones. This
trend became more predominant in the last two decades. In 1998 migrants represented no more than 4.2% of the industrialized countries’ total workforce. The U.S. absorbed the bulk of the increase (more than 81% of the new migrants from developing countries). In the EU migrants were mostly concentrated in France, Germany, Italy and the United Kingdom (International Labour Conference, 2004). Throughout the 1990s the number of those coming from developing countries grew significantly faster and around 2000, the stock of immigrants amounted to 84 million in OECD countries. In the U.S. there were almost 35 million (Jean et al., 2007). In the last decade, the worldwide stock of international migrants has risen significantly to an estimated 214 million in 2010 (OECD, 2012).

Due to widening demographic imbalances between developing and industrialized countries, coupled with diminishing transport and information costs, international migration flows are likely to continue at a sustained pace in the coming decades, bringing changes in employment patterns, skills and wages. Indeed, as reported by the OECD, the differences in skills between immigrants and natives influence relative wages among workers in the host economy. The magnitude of the impact on relative wages depends on the changes in the relative supply of different categories of workers, and on the degree of substitutability among them. If relative wages do not adjust, immigration may also influence the distribution of unemployment rates by skill category (Jean et al., 2007). The challenge confronting the global community is to manage migration so that it can serve as a force for growth and development, while respecting labour standards.

A second evident effect deriving from globalisation has been the increase in competition within labour markets. As reported by Johnston and Packer, the integration of global markets, excess of production capacity, the rapidly growing of the world workforce, the introduction of trade liberalization measures, and the emergence of new markets in China, India and Brazil, are all contributing to the competitive trend (Johnston and Packer, 1987). For firms, increased competition means that there will be an additional pressure to change and adapt to new markets while maintaining high productivity levels. This will induce companies to reduce fixed costs and, in particular, labour cost. According to European commission data, 72% of all firms in the EU with offshoring activities stated that labour costs had triggered their offshoring decision. In addition to this main reason, other motivations can be added but they vary greatly according to the region. For instance, low transportation costs and access to knowledge are motives related to offshoring to the EU-15, while offshoring to North America is significantly related to the need to be close to important customers (European Commission, 2012b). For these and other reasons firms try to enrich themselves by specializing in what they do best, and outsource those activities in which they have no comparative advantage. In globalization, it is not only what you produce, but also what segment you produce during what part of the product life cycle that matters (Evans, 1995). This will place increasing importance on innovation.

It has long been acknowledged that the way goods and services are produced and
distributed affects competition between workers and jobs and whether workers could form labour unions. Concerning the first aspect, it has been observed that globalisation gradually increased the competition between native and foreign workers with similar set of skills: workers who produce goods that can be imported or produced elsewhere more cheaply find their wages under downward pressure and their jobs increasingly at risk. Firms undoubtedly outsource those activities in which they can gain from lower wages (and other lower costs) and greater flexibility, or they will contract with another firm to perform specific tasks instead of hiring their own workers. As reported by the European Commission, around 20% of all firms – mostly of large size – in the product, process, service and organisational innovation manufacturing moved part of their production offshore to their own or independent firms abroad in the period from 2007 to mid-2009. Firms in the electrical and optical equipment industry and automotive and transport equipment manufacturers are particularly active in production relocation (25% and 24% respectively), followed by machinery and equipment manufacturers (18%) and the chemical industry (14%) (European Commission, 2012b).

Regarding the second aspect, the literature has expressed its own views since the 18th century. As reported by Mark Anner (Anner, 2011), Adam Smith envisioned how the capitalist division of labour would spur workers to organize (Smith, 1976 [1786]), while Karl Marx reflected on how capital brought labour together into ever-large factories (Marx, 1977 [1887]). Much of the post-World II literature shifted the emphasis from class conflict to an analysis of conditions that made a labour capital compromise possible through more stable production systems such as Fordism (Katzenstein, 1985), that was later undermined by the breakdown of the Bretton-Woods system and the first and second oil crisis. As a consequence, the labour-capital compromise was slowly eroded in favour of a system of global supply chains designed to keep firms competitive in part by keeping production costs – including labour costs – low. These new systems, which rely on subcontracting and outsourcing, have been detrimental to labour movements since the segmentation of the work process weakened labour’s collective strength. Labour in internationally restructured industry is now often dispersed and divided by language, culture, and distance. This undermines the ability of workers to communicate and organize across borders. In fact, where corporations have numerous factories producing largely identical products across the globe, the ability of workers to leverage for higher wages through strike or other collective actions appears to be greatly reduced. At the same time, the growing trend of outsourcing has weakened centralized bargaining in some industrialized countries – such as Sweden, New Zealand, Australia and the U.K. (Ostry, 1997). This situation poses new challenges for social partners that, if unable to adequately respond to them, risk having a marginal role in the future. Ever-increasing globalisation will extend our living and working dimensions, add new markets, intensify competition both for companies and workers. The central issue for companies and workers – and their representatives – will be the understanding of how to benefit from globalisation and its main effects.
1.3.2. The transition towards a green economy

With a population of 7 billion, the world is facing economic and social challenges – as described in the previous paragraphs – that are putting additional pressure on production and consumption patterns in a context where protecting the environment and conserving natural resources became key priorities of many countries. In fact, the serious implications deriving from climate change – a lasting change in the distribution of weather patterns caused by natural and human-induced factors – have persuaded governments to think about a deep cultural shift towards more sustainable source of growth. Inadequate attention to climate change could indeed have significant social consequences for human wellbeing, hamper economic growth and heighten the risk of abrupt and large-scale changes to the world climatic and ecological systems. The Stern Review estimated the current cost of addressing climate change to be around 1% of GDP – compared to a cost equivalent of 5–20% of GDP if action is delayed. Progress has been made in developing national and international strategies – such as adaptation and mitigation policies – for reducing those factors enabling climate change and diminishing its consequences, but a lot still remain to be changed, above all in the production and consumption processes. Governments and businesses will need to be – and be seen as – committed in addressing climate change through investments in environmental sustainability, waste reduction, changes in the products produced, processes and materials used. All these changes gradually came under the umbrella of the need of a transition towards a green economy, an economy that is low carbon, resource efficient and socially inclusive (UNEP).

This need is not a new issue. At international level, the matters of sustainability and sustainable development – defined by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (1987) – started to be at the core of the main political, economic, and environmental debates already thirty years ago, in view of fighting climate change and at «fostering economic growth and development, while ensuring that natural assets continue to provide the resources and environmental services on which our wellbeing relies» (OECD, 2011a). In 1986, the Council of the European Union set the promotion of renewable energy among its energy targets in order to fight greenhouse effect and contribute to the security of energy supply. Ten years later, in 1997, with the signature of the Kyoto Protocol (United Nations, 1997), the main industrialized economies recognized the need to elaborate and adopt policies – among which the improvement of energy efficiency, the promotion of new forms of sustainable farming and the use of alternative sources of energy – in order to promote sustainable development. Three years later, in 2000, the United Nations included the environment protection and the need to change in consumption and production patterns among the Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2000). After some years of silence, the green economy started again to receive greater attention. The main reason of this lies in the fact that, as a consequence
of the severe economic crisis that started in August 2008, attention has been placed on the employment potential deriving from a more sustainable economy. The green economy started to be seen as the main lever not only to meet the environmental targets and fight climate change but also as a mean to meet the jobless growth challenge.

The origins of the “sustainability-labour market” formula can be found in the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009. At that time, the U.S. President Barack Obama allocated a significant share of investments to the “clean energy” to the benefit of firms and workers. This idea was then imported overseas in the Europe 2020 strategy through which the European Commission aimed at fostering its economy thorough an intelligent (based on knowledge and innovation) sustainable (more resource energy efficient) and inclusive growth (with higher employment rates and better social cohesion) by means of both environmental and social objectives. Indeed, the European Commission set 75% of the employment rate of people aged 20-64 years old by 2020, and simultaneously, the Climate and Energy Package set the reduction of greenhouse gases emissions by 20% before 2020, ensuring a level of 20% renewable energy in the total EU energy consumption before 2020 as well as increasing the proportion of renewable energy in the transport sector by 10% before 2020 (Council of the European Union, 2008). The production of energy from renewable sources, in particular, was expected to have an exponential occupational potential. The European Commission estimated an increase in the new energy jobs of up to 2.5 million in 2020 only in the EU. Of this, 60-70% of the workforce will be engaged in manufacturing, engineering and installation services, while the remainder in agriculture (D’Orazio, 2009). Sustainability and labour market can – and shall – go together, as it has been further stressed later by the European Parliament in its resolution on developing the job potential of a new sustainable economy in which the Commission is invited to develop an employment strategy including legislative and non-legislative measures to encourage green jobs that are a source of growth and prosperity for all (European Parliament, 2010). In March 2011 the European Commission adopted “A roadmap for moving to a competitive low carbon economy in 2050”, in which it is proposed a 80%-95% reduction in greenhouse gas emission by 2050 from a 1990 baseline (European Commission, 2011a). This target put more emphasis on the need of a coordinated action from all actors in creating and implementing the instruments and investments necessary to promote the transition to a low-carbon economy.

More recently, the green economy issue has been at the core of the Rio+20 Conference (June 2012) where, in pursuance of General Assembly Resolution 64/236, world leaders, along with thousands of participants from governments, the private sector, NGOs and other groups, renewed the commitment to sustainable development and to ensuring the promotion of an economically, socially and environmentally sustainable future for present and future generations. In the final document of the Conference, the strong link between sustainable development and productive employment is further underlined. Indeed, the final statements recognize the importance of job creation by: (i) investing in and developing sound, effective and efficient economic and social
infrastructure for sustainable development and sustained, inclusive and equitable economic growth; (ii) adopting forward-looking macroeconomic policies that promote sustainable development. Furthermore, the final document further recognize that job creation can be generated through, inter alia, public and private investments in scientific and technological innovation, public works in restoring, regenerating and conserving natural resources and ecosystems, and social and community services (UN General Assembly, 2012). In this way the prevalent myth about an inescapable trade-off between environmental sustainability and economic progress has no more reason to exist. According to UNEP, there is now substantial evidence that the greening of economies neither inhibits wealth creation nor employment opportunities. On the contrary, many green sectors can provide significant opportunities for investment, growth and jobs. For this to occur, however, action by policy makers is required at international and national level (UNEP, 2011). At the national level, an active role for the state emerges as critical in ensuring an accelerated and fair transition through policies, regulation and incentive-based instruments, information and dissemination campaigns.

The transition to a green economy will vary considerably among nations, as it depends on the specifics of each country’s natural and human capital and on its relative level of development. However, in any case labour markets will be affected worldwide: in some cases, additional jobs will be created (as in the manufacturing of pollution-control devices added to existing production equipment), some employment will be substituted (as in shifting from fossil fuels to renewables, or from truck manufacturing to rail car manufacturing, or from landfilling and waste incineration to recycling), certain jobs may be eliminated without direct replacement (as when packaging materials are discouraged or banned and their production is discontinued) or it would appear that many existing jobs (especially such as plumbers, electricians, metal workers, and construction workers) will simply be transformed and redefined as day-to-day skill sets, work methods, and profiles are “greened” (UNEP et al. 2008). For instance, it has been predicted that, if an additional 0.16% of the global GDP is invested in green agriculture per year between 2011 and 2050 an increase in employment is likely to take place: from 1,075 million people (2011) to 1,703 million people (2050). Investing almost the same amount of GDP over the same period (2010-2050) in the fishery sector, it is possible to achieve a higher employment: from 27% to 59%. The production and trade of fuel wood is also important for employment. UNEP suggests that nearly 30 million people worldwide may be involved in the commercial production, transport and trade of biomass-energy products, generating around US$ 20 billion annually. According to the same source, the contribution of the greening of the forest sector to global GDP and employment is projected to grow at 0.3 per cent per year between 2010 and 2050 to reach US$ 0.9 trillion and 25 million jobs by 2050 (UNEP, 2011). Perhaps the most interesting case is represented by the new employment opportunities offered by investments in the renewable energy sector. In 2010 more than 3.5 million people worldwide were estimated to be working either directly or indirectly in the sector. A
small group of countries currently account for the majority of jobs, especially Brazil, China, Germany, Japan and the United States (Table 4). China accounts for the largest number, with total employment in renewable energy in 2010 estimated at more than 1.1 million workers (Institute for Labor Studies et al., in UNEP 2011). In Germany, the industry employed 278,000 people in 2008, with 117,500 new jobs having been created since 2004 (UNEP, ILO, IOE and ITUC 2008, in UNEP, 2011). Among technologies, wind energy generation has undergone particularly rapid growth, jobs having more than doubled from 235,000 in 2005 to 550,000 in 2009 (WWEA 2010 in UNEP, 2011). The most dynamic growth took place in Asia, where employment grew by 14% between 2007 and 2009, followed by North America (see Table 4). Further growth in employment in renewable energy generation will depend on factors such as the size of investment, the choice of available technologies to invest in, overall progress in economic development, market size, national regulation, and the quality and cost of the labour force. The Green Jobs Report (UNEP et al., 2008) estimated that, with strong policy support, up to 2.1 million people could be employed in wind energy and 6.3 million in solar PV by 2030.

Table 4. Employment in renewable energy, by technology and by country

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Technology</th>
<th>Estimated employment worldwide</th>
<th>DK</th>
<th>DE</th>
<th>IT</th>
<th>JP</th>
<th>ES</th>
<th>US</th>
<th>BR</th>
<th>CN</th>
<th>IN</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biofuels</td>
<td>&gt; 1,500,000</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>730</td>
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<tr>
<td>Wind power</td>
<td>~ 630,000</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solar hot water</td>
<td>~ 300,000</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>250</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solar PV</td>
<td>~ 350,000</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>120</td>
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<tr>
<td>Biomass power</td>
<td></td>
<td>120</td>
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<td>66</td>
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<td>Hydropower</td>
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<tr>
<td>Geothermal</td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
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<tr>
<td>Biogas</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Solar thermal power</td>
<td>~ 15,000</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>&gt; 3,500,000</td>
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However, these optimistic predictions and positive evidence are counterbalanced by more recent sectorial surveys that show that the recent economic and financial crisis has
weakened the anticipation and management of green change. For example, job losses in green sectors, which could be linked to the impacts of the crisis, could so far amount to 1%-2% of the 4 million (net) jobs lost in the EU in 2008-2009 (that is 40,000-80,000) (Cambridge Econometrics et al., 2011). A less positive scenario emerges also from the OECD projections (OECD, 2004) and from one research carried out by G. Calzada from the University Juan Carlos of Madrid, according to which the green economy destroys more jobs of those that it is supposed to create. For instance, in Spain, 2.2 of traditional jobs have been eliminated for every green job created (Calzada et al. 2009). There are two main explanations for these sceptical assessments and evidence about the employment potential deriving from the greening of the economy. Firstly, it must be mentioned that the lack of a shared definition of «green jobs» (UNEP et al., 2008) that persisted for long time, and the coexistence of different approaches to data analysis, have hampered a reliable quantitative or qualitative assessment of the occupational effect of the green economy. For instance, the definition reported in the UNEP et al. report - «activities to measure, prevent, limit, minimize, or correct environmental damage to water, air, and soil, as well as problems related to waste, noise, and ecosystems […] activities, cleaner technologies, products, and services that reduce environmental risk and minimize pollution and resource use» (UNEP et. al., 2008) – was firstly criticized by Cedefop according to which such a broad definition does not allow the full distinction between those polluting activities from clean activities since the majority of activities are improving the efficiency in the use of energy resources (Cedefop, 2010). OECD also recognized the risks of meaning green jobs as “one-size-fits-all”, which in turn can bring misunderstandings and to too optimistic projections about growth opportunities created by the new regulation framework (Martinez et al., 2010).

Secondly, the crisis diminished the resources available to finance green business practices. A lot of countries had to reduce or cancel various public support measures – such as government subsidies, tax incentives and feed-in tariffs – aimed at promoting the greening of the sectors. This is the case, for instance, of Belgium and Italy, where subsidies for insulating rooftops and installing photovoltaic have been significantly reduced (Eurofound, 2013).

Implementation of green business practices – with also lower financial resources – may impact not only the quantity of jobs, but it may also affect the quality of jobs. As pointed out by Eurofound, this refers to four dimensions. First of all, in terms of skills development, including requirements for qualifications, training, learning activities and career development issues. Secondly, in terms of employment security. This aspect includes issues such as employment status, wages, workers’ and social protection. Thirdly, the implementation of green business practices should guarantee health and well-being of workers, which encompass psychological and physical health problems, risk exposure, work organization and ageing-related issues. Finally, it concerns the conciliation between working and private life (for example, flexibility of working time, the availability of social infrastructure such as day care centres) (Eurofound, 2013).

Greening business practices mainly deal with energy saving and greener products or
services. In the first group it is possible to include the optimisation of logistics routes, introduction of more efficient production methods, improvement in the energy efficiency, and reducing energy use in the workplace. The second group refers to, for instance, production of electric vehicles or provision of sophisticated recycling services. The evidence suggest that the introduction of these new green business practices do not directly create new jobs but rather transform those already existing. The important question about the future of employment is less the gross creation of net green jobs but the incremental and broad greening of the whole economy including the transformation of many professions that will need a new skills composition. For this reason it is better to speak about the “greening of jobs” rather that of “green jobs” (Comitato economico e sociale europeo, 2010).

This process of transformation has some implications also in terms of skill updating and development, as several studies underline the alarming skills mismatch when speaking about the greening of jobs. The timely supply of relevant and quality skills is indispensable for successful transformations that boost productivity, employment growth and development (Strietska-Illina et al., 2011). In this connection the political debate that characterized the last years enriched itself with the issue of “green skills”. This expression has received many definitions – according to some studies green skills are traditional skills already in possession by the vast majority of workers, while according to other researches, green skills are new skills, such as the ability to value the environmental impact or the knowledge of eco-materials (C. Martinez et al., 2010) – but at the end, it became clear that these skills already exists, they just need to be upgraded, further developed or enriched with the “sustainability” element (Ecorys, 2010 and Cedefop, 2010a). Therefore, skills updating strategies need to be formulated and implemented in coordination with economic and social policies in order to successfully enable the workforce to access to the new labour market. Skill development needs to include requirements for employees’ qualifications, demand for training activities, and patterns of career development-related issues.

To conclude, the transition to a low-carbon economy, dictated by economic, political and environmental targets, is a process that affects several dimensions of the world of work – quantity of jobs and quality of jobs (health and safety, skills development, reconciliation etc.). For this reason, for a better anticipation and management of the green change, it is required a collaboration between public authorities, social partners and companies. This collaboration is even more important if we consider that nowadays companies tend to manage rather than anticipate the green change; they are likely to use conventional approaches and not to make use of eco-innovation practices (Eurofound, 2013). In particular, social partners can play a key role in the economy as a whole and in the transition towards a low-carbon economy since they proved to be able to: act, alone or jointly, as special interest groups; influence policymaking through lobby activities; regulate employment relations themselves through binding agreements or “softer” guidelines; be involved in the implementation of policies at national and company level; and more important, to support training and counselling, campaigns,
research, environmental labels and others (See Table 5).

**Table 5. Some social partners’ initiatives in greening the economy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influencing policy</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Many elements of the Austrian environmental and economic action plans originate from joint social partners proposals, such as the Masterplan Sustainable Energy and the Energy and Climate Protection Fund.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>In 2009 a joint declaration of five (out of six) nationally representative employer associations was able to set alternative energy as a key priority in the economy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>The United Federation of Danish Workers (3F) and the Danish Metalworkers Union (Dansk Metal) appealed to government to invest in alternative energy, collective transport, or renovation of old public buildings in order to reduce the impact of the crisis.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>The Irish Business and Employer’s Confederation (IBEC) has compiled an environmental policy to “ensure that the Irish economy moves towards the goal of balanced and sustainable development and that environmental objectives are met in the most efficient and cost-effective manner”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>The General Confederation of Italian Workers (CGIL) and Legambiente presented a joint document putting forward proposals on how to cope with the crisis by using the employment potential of the green economy (2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Netherlands</td>
<td>The Dutch Trade Union Federation (FNV), Christian Trade Union Federation (CNV) and Federation for managerial and Professional Staff (MHP) published a Social and Green Investment Plan to cope with the crisis. According to this plan, the economy should be stimulated by investments among others in greener production, reduction of energy use, increase in wind energy, green VAT rates etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>The Swedish Trade Union Confederation (LO Sweden) has been promoting investments in CO2 reduction and supporting green investments mainly in technology development and formulated its own energy policy programme in 2007.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Autonomous regulation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>In 2009 the National Labour Council concluded an agreement on the introduction of ecocheques as a form of pay increase in the context of the economic crisis. The ecocheque is a wage premium, which has been exempted from social security contributions, for the purchase of environmental-friendly and sustainable consumer goods.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>In 2004, the employers’ organization PolskieSzkło (Polish glass industry), the Federation of Trade Unions in Chemicals, Ceramics and Glass, and the Secretariat of the Glass Industry NSZZ Solidarność signed a framework agreement on autonomous dialogue in the glass sector. The agreement provides for two annual meetings between representatives of employers and employees at which the major problems affecting the glass sector are discussed. This agreement has enabled common positions to be developed on environmental legislation and CO2 quotas allocated to the sector. The social partners have created a Glass industry Social Dialogue Centre.</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Initiative at workplace level</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>From 2006 to 2008, the TUC ran two “Green Workplaces” projects which focused on energy saving and reduction of emissions in the workplace and on raising awareness of climate change. Through this initiative TUC also intended to explore how environmental action at work could contribute to the organizational efficiency.</td>
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<tr>
<th>Training and awareness raising</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>The Belgian region Wallonia has established a dedicated environmental training centre with social partners’ involvement that includes energy management and renewable energy and has started to include environmental aspects in the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
curricula of all training centres (http://www.formation-environment.be). At sectoral level, the Multisector Federation for the Technology Industry (Fédération belge multisectorielle de l’industrie technologique) has set up a campaign on green companies highlighting the job potential of the industry specializing in “green” technology.

**Table:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>During the last few years, priority has been given to training related to green construction. An example for an innovative construction training method is the “R&amp;D concerto project in Lyon”, which aims to promote energy savings and the development of renewable energies. This will be passed on to the entire OPCA network.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Since 2008 the DGB and the German Ministry of Environment, Nature Conservation and Nuclear Safety (BMU) have been running a project called “resource efficiency in firms” where members of work councils and employees are trained to recognize and implement ways to improve energy efficiency. The training is part of a programme leading to a certified degree as “efficiency expert”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>The Euroeneff project, launched in 2008, is a transnational initiative dedicated to training the construction industry workforce in energy-efficiency techniques. The Romanian partner in this project is the Vocational Institute of Builders (CMC) and the National Trade Union Federation in Construction and Erection Works</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Author’s elaboration on the basis of European Commission, 2013; European Commission, 2011; Eurofound, 2011a.*

Transition to a low-carbon economy is both a necessity and an opportunity for governments, business and people. It will have a profound impact – in terms of employment, skills needs and working conditions – that needs to be managed. The State, by providing the framework, remains the main actor, but social partners have a key role to play taking into account that the transition differently affects sectors. Some workplace social dialogue initiatives on energy efficiency and other green issues are already observable but they have to be reinforced in the future considered the clear trend of an increased attention to the transition towards a green economy.
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Chapter 2
Company of the Future: New Challenges

Summary: 2.1. The new workforce – 2.1.1. New challenges in terms of: work organization – 2.1.2. …Health and safety – 2.1.3. …Learning and training – 2.2 The new work office – 2.2.1. Flexible time and labour – 2.2.2. Flexible space – 2.2.3. New communication – 2.3. The evolving employment relationship – 2.3.1. Between employer, employee and trade unions – 2.3.2. Rewarding work not time.

«Change is happening fast, faster than any other major changes in the history of work, [...] future work will not wait for those who fail to seize the opportunity now»
(Maitland and Thomson, 2011)

The analysis of the drivers of change shaping the current world of work carried out in Chapter 1 represents a fundamental step to foresee the main challenges the Italian companies are likely to face in the coming decades (current Chapter) and identify those management practices that businesses can implement in order to transform challenges into opportunities for growth and competitiveness (Chapter 3).

To explore how the company will look like in the future the desk research has been implemented with the Delphi technique, which is an established method for achieving a broad convergence of opinion from a diverse group of specialists who are posed questions on a certain topic area (see Appendix I). This method seeks to move beyond the limitations of “what is” to begin a conversation of “what could/should be”. With reference to the evolving demographics of the workforce, the research has identified three areas in which companies are likely to face changes and challenges: work organization, health and safety, training and skills development. Through the Delphi technique, the research tried to identify what challenges are likely to prevail and characterize the future working environment. As for the working place, the research investigated the changing notions – and realities – of time and space and how these affect the working environment and the way employees perform their job. Finally, the last paragraph explores the evolution of the traditional employment relationship that is likely to take place in the coming decades.

It is worth mentioning that, since «the future is not a fixed state» (Gratton, 2011), this chapter does not pretend to anticipate how the future will certainly look like. It rather represents a tentative attempt to map some of the most likely implications of the evolving Italian modern labour market in order to encourage reflection and further research on these issues.
2.1. The new workforce

There is a degree of certainty over the future composition of the Italian workforce. According to the current and predicted demographic trends (see Chapter 1), it can be safely assumed that it will be older than it is today and if current migration flows continue – from other EU member States or non-EU countries – the workforce will be more ethnically and culturally diverse. This diversity will be more evident in the pool of workers companies will draw on and, in turn, it will be increasingly significant at company level. This diversity is not just about age and nationality; it also concerns different generations (and therefore different ways of valuing and approaching to work), cultures (and therefore different ways to conceive time, leadership, hierarchy, business etc.), languages, religions and beliefs. CEOs and managers will therefore have to acknowledge that their workforce has become less homogeneous than in the past and rethink about their practices regarding work organization, health and safety, training and skills development. Failing to do so, companies risk missing an important opportunity to improve individual and organizational performance. Indeed, the key to diversity does not lie so much in its existence but rather on how to manage it (De Anca and Vazquez, 2007).

2.1.1. New challenges in terms of: work organization

Work organization is a broad concept that refers to the choices made within organizations on issues such as the structure of the production process, the relationship between staff and production departments, the responsibilities at different hierarchical levels and the design of individual jobs (Valeyre in Eurofound, 2012). The literature (see, among the others, Eurofound, 2009) has identified four main forms of work organization – the discretionary learning, lean production, Taylorist and traditional or simple structure forms – which differ according to the following variables:

- Autonomy of work: methods of work, speed or rate of work, order of tasks;
- Cognitive dimensions of work: learning new things, problem-solving activities, complexity of tasks;
- Quality: self-assessment, quality norms etc.;
- Task rotation, team work: with/without control over task division;
- Monotony of tasks, repetitiveness of tasks, work pace constraints: automatic, norm-based, hierarchical, horizontal, demand-driven;
- Assistance: from colleagues or hierarchy.

The discretionary learning form is characterized by the overrepresentation of the variables measuring autonomy in work, learning and problem solving, task complexity, self-assessment of quality of work and autonomous teamwork. Conversely, the variables reflecting monotony, repetitiveness and work pace constraints are underrepresented. This form appears to correspond to what is generally understood as
“learning organization” and, within the EU-27, it is most developed in Denmark, Sweden and the Netherlands, and well represented in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany and Luxembourg.

The lean production form is mainly defined by an overrepresentation of teamwork, job rotation, self-assessment of quality of work, just-in-time production, strong learning dynamics and employees’ contribution to problem solving. This form has been described as “controlled autonomy” in work, reflecting employers’ concern to balance the needs of exercising control over employees while encouraging their creativity (Coutrot, Edwards et al. in Eurofound, 2009). It is predominant in the Northwest countries (Ireland and the UK), many Eastern countries (Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Romania and Slovenia) as well as Finland, Luxembourg, Malta and Portugal.

The third form – the Taylorist one – is characterized by a mechanistic bureaucratic form of work, placing itself at the opposite of the learning organization. Indeed, in this form it is possible to find the following variables: stronger constraints on the pace of work and repetitiveness and monotony of tasks. Team working and workers rotating tasks are developed with a low level of self-organization. Taylorist forms of work organization are most diffused in the Southern countries (above all in Portugal and Spain) and many Eastern countries (mainly Bulgaria, Romania and Slovakia).

Finally, in the traditional form (or simple structure form) methods are largely informal and non-codified and variables of work organization are poorly described. It is primarily found in Cyprus, Czech Republic, Greece, Lithuania and Spain.

This short introduction about these four forms of work organization is important in this framework because these classifications depend on some specific factors, which include, among the others (i.e. the economic sector, company size, occupational category etc.) the demographic characteristics of the workforce. Therefore, the demographic changes described in Chapter 1 undoubtedly pose new challenges in terms of work organization. An established body of the literature emphasises this link between demographic change and the form of work organisation. For instance, the discretionary learning forms of work organization appear to increase with age, meaning that the Taylorist forms mainly concern younger employees. On the contrary, working in lean production forms is more frequent among junior and senior employees (See Table 1) (Eurofound, 2009).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Discretionary learning</th>
<th>Lean production</th>
<th>Taylorist</th>
<th>Traditional or simple</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;25</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-39</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>28.7</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-54</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;55</td>
<td>42.1</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>15.0</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Eurofound, 2009*
The marked presence of older and foreign people in the future pool of workers, and therefore in the future workforce, poses new challenges. In fact, as anticipated in Chapter 1, the real possibility of fully integrating “older workers” (3) within the work organization of a company cannot directly result from reforms aimed at rising retirement age and restricting early retirement schemes. This can rather derive from better worker conditions for older workers, which, in turn, help retaining them at the workplace and therefore benefiting from their full and active participation. The same can be said for foreign workers or those with a foreign background. Affirmative actions or equal employment opportunities are not sufficient to guarantee the deployment of the potential embodied in their diversity. To reach this aim, diversity needs a linkage to business goals and objectives, the existence of a flexible environment and the support of the organizational culture (Thomas and Ely, 1996).

Having a look at the variables characterizing each form of work organization, it is possible to see where improvements need to be done, at EU and at national level, for a better balance between, on the one side, a higher level of productivity and competitiveness for the company, and, on the other side, a better quality of employees’ working life.

A first important tool for improving the work organization for older people lies in awarding more autonomy, variety in tasks and greater challenges, which in turn, may increase job satisfaction and encourage older workers to stay at work for longer. In this regards, the results of the Fifth European Working Condition Survey might help to see whether there is a correlation between more autonomy/variety in tasks and a higher level of satisfaction and longer stay at work. People over 50 are able to choose or change the order of tasks more in Malta (88.6%) Finland (86.8%) Denmark (85%) Sweden (84%) and Norway (83.4%). Malta (89.1%) Finland (85.7%) Denmark (85.4%) rank among the first three positions for the ability of people over 50 to choose or change their methods of work. To the question “are you able to choose or change your speed or rate of work?” most positive answers come from people +50 living in Malta (90.2%), Lithuania (89.0%), Finland (88.0%), and Denmark (87%). This age group can always/most of the time take a break when it wishes in Romania (69.4%), Finland (68.4%), and Denmark (68.1%). These countries, together with the Netherlands are at the top of the list for people over 50 having the possibility to influence decisions that are important for their work. In terms of level of team autonomy, people over 50 answered in positive way in Romania (48.8%), Sweden (47.2%), Finland (45.8%), and Norway (41.4%) (Eurofound, 2012). These data support the assumption that where a

3 The terms ‘older workers, ‘senior workers’ and ‘silver workers’ occur frequently to indicate those who are in the second half of their working life, who have not yet reached retirement age and who are still employable. However, there is no common definition on what is “old” as illustrated by Birgit Luger and Regina Mulder in Cedefop, 2010 where the authors argue that the definition of ‘old’ has to depend on the country, profession and on other variables such as motivation to learn or opportunity to learn. More confusion is created when statistics are taken into consideration. Indeed, as reported by Eurostat, most statistics do not concern the process of ageing per se but rather they may analyse age classes that can vary from one statistical survey to another (and from one country to another one).
great level of autonomy and variety of tasks is awarded, older people feel encouraged to stay longer in the labour market: Nordic countries, such as Finland and Denmark, have indeed the higher employment rates of this age group (see Table 1 in Chapter 1). In Italy, in 2010, 66.7% of people aged over 50 declared to be able to choose or change their tasks order, and 73.9% of the same age group said to be able to choose or change their work arrangements, and 78.7% to be able to choose or change the speed of work, which usually decreases with age. Considering the EU-27 context, the situation is usually better than in Italy as regards the first case (69.4%) but worst with respect to work arrangements (70.4%) and in speed of work (71.8%) (Eurofound, 2012).

A second key variable affecting work organization is represented by the cognitive dimensions of work: learning new things, problem-solving activities, and complexity of tasks. In the EU27, 62.7% of people over 50 declare that his/her work involves learning new things. The highest percentages can be found in Finland (89.8%), Sweden (89.8%) and Denmark (88.4%). In Italy, the share of people over 50 that declares to learn new things at its workplace is equal to 64.5%. To the question “does your work involve solving unforeseen problems on your own?” most positive answers come from people +50 living in Sweden (97.5%), Denmark (94.6%) and Norway (94.0%) while Italy (74.8%) ranks below the EU27 average (83.1%). People +50 have to deal with complexity of tasks more in Austria (83.3%), Denmark (79.4%) and Hungary (72.2%). The Italy’s percentage is again far below the EU27 average – 46.6% versus 57.9% – and almost the half of the best performing EU member states.

The possibility to self-assess the quality of work is a third variable affecting work organization. In the EU27, an average of 73.1% of people over 50 affirms that they assess the quality of their own work. The largest shares can be found in Norway (91.8%), Denmark (91.4%) and the Netherlands (88.6%) while Italy the percentage is below the EU27 average: 70.1% (Eurofound, 2012).

Data concerning these three variables for the older workforce show that improvements are needed in Italy in order to gain a full and satisfactory participation of people +50. Companies of the future will have to rethink their work organizations in order to fully benefit from the marked presence of older workers at macro and micro level.

With reference to migrant and foreign workers, no data are available on these variables. However, many studies show that wages and work shifts are of major concern when speaking about working conditions and work organisation. These studies report that wages are significantly lower for migrant than natives, which might be partly due to lower levels of education or the lack of full recognition of titles gained in a foreign country. Furthermore, migrants are more likely to do shift work, weekend work and overtime work than natives. It is also reported that migrant workers do heavier, more monotonous and more dangerous work (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2007).

The fourth variable affecting work organization is task rotation, which is one of the new modes promoted in the last fifteen years as an instrument able to contribute learning and development of new skills and productivity. It is argued that task rotation can increase
productivity for several reasons: workers are able to carry out more tasks; coordination between workers is easier as all workers know the tasks to be performed; workers can be allocated to different tasks according to production needs. Task rotation can also benefit to the employees’ well being as it can mitigate the effects of repetitiveness – and therefore prevent strain disorders deriving from repetitive movements – and can increase learning opportunities and skills development (Eurofound, 2012). Generally speaking, management-controlled multiskilling task rotation is the most common form of task rotation (30%) while the “innovative practice” of autonomous multiskilling task rotation is practised by 10% of employees in the European workplaces with 10 or more of employees (Eurofound, 2012). The latter, however, can be further promoted in the future as it proved to be associated with higher performance for companies as well as motivation for workers.

Considering the collaboration effects that technology will have on the way the work will be performed – as described in Paragraph 1.2.3. – teamwork is another way of working that is likely to continue in the future. Today, nearly half of employed European workers (48%) always belong to the same team. Some (19%) work in several teams, while 32% do not work in a team or group (Eurofound, 2012). In the future, these shares are likely to increase, as teamwork is associated with positive benefits for both employers and employees: on the one side, it has been observed an increase in expertise of the team members as a consequence of sharing of knowledge, information, skills and expertise; on the other side, it has been reported an increase in creativity and collaboration.

As stated at the very beginning of this Paragraph, relationship staff issues are also important elements in the work organization. To this regards, it is worth mentioning that another relevant tool for improving work organization is combating discrimination, which is a widespread practice likely to persist also in the future (see Figure 1).

**Figure 1.** Age discrimination

*Source: Author’s data processing on the basis of the Delphi study (see Appendix I)*
For older people, at least at labour market level, this is represented by policies and legislations combating age discrimination. Two Nordic countries have this kind of legislation in force. In Norway, the Working Environment Act affirms that «direct and indirect discrimination on the basis of political views, membership of a trade union, sexual orientation, disability or age is prohibited» and mostly important to avoid the expulsion of older people from the labour market is the provision stating that «dismissal before an employee reaches 70 years of age due solely to the fact that the employee has reached retirement age pursuant to the National Insurance Act shall not be deemed to be objectively justified» (Norwegian Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, 2009). In Sweden, the older employee, who has the right «to remain in the employment up to the end of the month when he or she attains the age of 67» is protected in case of notice of termination on the grounds of shortage of work. Indeed, the Employment Act obliges the employer to observe specific rules in the order of termination according to which «employees with longer employment times shall have priority over employees with shorter employment times. In the event of equal employment times, priority shall be given to the older employee» (Employment Protection Act (1982), Section 32a). The UK’s Equality Act also protects people against discrimination at both the younger and the older ends of the age spectrum. Since 2006 the equality legislation has emphasised for employers the need to focus on competencies when making selection decisions and the need to avoid making stereotypical judgements about people’s capabilities according to their age (Foot and Hook, 2011).

For what race discrimination at workplace level concerns, little information is available because when there is the possibility of filing ethnic or racial-based discrimination complaints related to the labour market, in most European countries these complaints in general seldom lead to juridical cases or verdicts. The nature of those complaints for which there is information is mostly employment access (recruitment and selection), career opportunities and working conditions (Eurofound, 2011).

Italy is one of the most discriminatory countries in the EU: one migrant worker as four times higher probability not to be recruited by an Italian company compared to an Italian citizen (ILO, 2004). In Italy, most of discriminations on the ground of race are reported by blue collars and domestic workers coming from North Africa, East Europe and the Balkan region. These workers mostly belong to the Muslim religion and work in the North of Italy (PCM/Dipartimento per le Pari Opportunità – Fondazione per la sussidiarietà, 2010). According to the panel’s opinion, race discrimination will continue to characterize our future scenario (see Figure 2).
To conclude, work organization in companies is a factor that is managed in very different ways, according to various elements such as: national legislation, size of the company, the sector/market of reference, and the internal business practices. So, the measures adopted may vary according to specific circumstances. Solutions can be effectively reached through company’s initiatives and agreements with trade unions at company/sectorial level. In any case, awarding greater flexibility to workers in terms of work schedules, variety of task, level of autonomy and responsibility etc., represents a good way for sustaining their full satisfaction and therefore participation into the work organization. This is fundamental for the company of the future.

2.1.2. …Health and safety

European countries have achieved major gains in population health in recent decades, as demonstrated by the significant reduction in premature mortality and the increase in life expectancy at birth (OECD, 2012a). Gains in life expectancy can be explained by improved living and working conditions, but data show that much more effort is needed, above all in consideration of the growing share of older people and immigrant workers in the workforce, two changes that pose additional challenges at labour market and company level.

Poor health is one of the main reasons for retirement at an early stage – 19.8% of inactive persons aged between 55-64 claim illnesses or disability as the main reasons for not looking for employment – which is not a desirable situation considered the pensions reforms recently introduced in many EU countries consisting in raising retirement ages. Therefore, maintaining the autonomy and independence of the elderly generations has become a goal for governments, as better health has the potential to, first of all, improve the well-being of individuals; secondly, extend their working lives – thus providing a stimulus for economic growth; and finally, reduce the overall strain on health and social care systems (Eurostat, 2011).
Age-related decline affects mainly concern physical and sensory capacities (reduced movements, reduced capacity to carry out heavy tasks, reduced sight and hearing etc.), which are most relevant to heavy physical work. This does not directly imply a higher number of accidents among older people – in fact, several studies prove the opposite (among the others Neuhauser et al., 2011; Rogers and Wiatrowsky, 2005; Salminen, 2004; Root, 1981) – but rather the higher seriousness, longer period of recovery and higher probability of mortality. According to the results of the Fifth European Working Conditions Survey, in 2010 about one fourth of people over 50 living in the EU-27 believed that their health or safety was at risk because of their work. The proportion is larger in Latvia, Greece and Romania where respectively 49.0%, 45.4% and 43.5% of people over 50 thought their work was worsening their health and safety (Eurofound, 2012). In addition to physical health problems, older workers also face a range of different pressure that can result in mental illness problems, for example, isolation, decreasing functional capacity and personal insecurity. The age-related changes in functional capacity, however, are not uniform because of individual differences in lifestyle, nutrition, fitness, genetic predisposition to illness, educational level, and work. This means that there are considerable inter-individual differences, which, in turn underline that workplace has a key role to play in promoting a healthy lifestyle and supporting activities that prevent the decline of functional capacity, thus helping maintaining work ability. This could be achieved through a combination of: improving the work organization and working environment; promoting the participation of workers in the whole process if Workplace Health Promotion (WHP) – which is the combined efforts of employers, employees and society to improve the health and wellbeing of people at work – and enabling healthy choices and encouraging personal development. Thus, national legislations and company’s initiatives are fundamental. Both kinds of initiatives should be in place in order to successfully enable older workers to stay healthier and safer – and thus longer – in the labour market.

Taking into consideration the national health and safety legislations, it is difficult to identify countries in the EU-27 that specifically have the legislation in place which provides an excellent context to improve working conditions of older workers. For instance, Portugal, Ireland and Slovakia have strategies to improve working conditions but do not necessarily focus on older workers. The importance of raising awareness of health issues and giving access to information, advice and guidance on how to monitor and improve things in the workplace with particularly reference to older people, prevail in programmes and actions operated at company level, where age-appropriate ergonomics and preventive health programmes that promote physical, mental, and social health are becoming increasingly important. In addition to this, placing ageing workers in roles with tasks where they use their crystallized abilities for the organization’s benefits or in positions that better suit to their changing capabilities and needs (Cedefop, 2012), together with changes in ergonomics, reveal to be important strategies to retain this age group into employment (this is further analysed in Chapter 3). Some evidence comes from France, Germany and Norway. In France, since 2010,
companies employing between 50 and 300 people must adopt an agreement to implement a company action plan relating to employment of older workers or else pay sanctions amounting to 1% of total wages (European Commission, 2012b). In Germany, the programme of the Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs called Perspektive50plus supports regional pacts for the employment or re-employment of older people that are unemployed or have health and mental problems. In this programme health promotion is identified as a core element to enable older people to come back to employment. In Norway, measures to prevent health problems and burnout are adopted mostly by those enterprises that have signed the IA-agreement in which government and social partners committed themselves to make efforts to include more older people in working life through initiatives at company level (European Commission, 2012b).

In Italy, 86.7% of the population over 50 said to be aware of work-related risks in terms of health and safety. This age group appeared to be more informed than the youngest groups (under 30, and 30-49), particularly in consideration of the relevant figures (respectively 82.4% and 86.3%). Data for the year 2010 are also higher than the figures in the past decades, meaning that some improvements have been made over the last years in raising awareness of the issue. In consequence, the share of people over 50 thinking that their health or safety is at risk because of their job decreased from 31.7% in 1991 to 21.8% in 2010, which is lower than the percentage in the EU-27 (25.9%). Always remaining in the Italian context, 24.4% of people over 50 said to have their health negatively affected by their working activity, three percentage points higher than the two other working groups (19.1% of those aged under 30 and 19.3% of those aged between 30 and 49 years old) but almost three percentage points lower than the EU-27 average (27.3%). Indeed, 27.7% of the people over 50 declared to be exposed to vibrations from tools or machinery at least for a quarter of working hours – more than double of the time of those aged under 30 (13.5%) – and 25.3% of the same age group argue to be exposed to loud noise for at least a quarter of the total hours worked. Furthermore, 16.8% of them stated that they were exposed to chemicals – almost five percentage points higher than those aged under 30 (11.5%) – and 6.8% declared to be exposed to materials that can be infectious. In addition, almost one fifth of the workers aged over 50 reported that their work involved tiring or painful positions. Thus, it is not surprising that one fourth of the population over 50 perceived that their health is negatively affected by their work. It is worth adding that, in 2010, 62.1% of people over 50 declared not to ask for leave for health reasons, reporting a decrease from 2005 (81.5%) (lower than the EU-27 59.9%). However, 22.5% of people over 50 say that they worked when sick. At EU-27 level, the portion of people over 50 who are not absent from work for health reasons is smaller than the Italian one (59.9%) but the share of those aged over 50 that worked when sick is larger (37.6%) (Eurofound, 2012).

These data stress the need for effective policies to promote healthy ageing and prevent diseases and injuries at the workplace level. Italian companies constantly promote initiatives going beyond legal obligations, which are aimed at improving the quality of the working environment and of work itself. This companies’ commitment is either
developed through one-sided initiatives, undertaken by the management of the single company, or through bipartite initiatives (this is the case of agreements executed by companies and trade unions). All these initiatives play an important social and economic role in the wider welfare system run by the State. The State has no direct role in the management of these initiatives. A national intervention is limited to the relevant legislative provision enacted in 2008 (Dlgs. n. 81/2008 Testo Unico della Salute e Sicurezza sul Lavoro).

Among the examples of actions and initiatives being undertaken by single companies in this field, the following can be mentioned: reconciliation of working and family life (e.g. flexibility in working time arrangements, services to persons); measures aimed at improving the working environment (e.g. fitness-centres within the company); services of preventive and diagnostic medicine for employees (e.g. promotion of vaccination, screenings etc.); transport benefits; individual shopping cards.

In addition to these actions promoted by the single company, companies and trade unions very often agree the establishment of complementary health plans for the employees. To this regard, the Italian legislative provisions (the 2008 Financial Law and two other Ministerial Decrees issued in 2008 and in 2009) have confirmed the central role played by the industrial relations system in the establishment of complementary health plans, meanwhile regulating the tax regime applicable to the plans. So, since 2008, complementary health plans in Italy have recorded a significant development in the national entrepreneurial system, and have presently acquired great importance from both the economic and health aspect. For instance, in the industrial sector, the establishment of complementary health plans is, in some cases, promoted by national collective agreements; in other cases, by bipartite agreements executed at company level between the company and the relative trade unions. The funding of these schemes derives from contributions paid partly by the company and partly by the employee. The variety of services provided to the employees through these complementary health plans operating in the industrial sectors is quite wide, and can be resumed as follows, just to mention some examples: hospitalization, surgery operations, long-term assistance, dental care, diagnostic controls, sunglasses and lenses reimbursements, home-based medical assistance, physical therapy, check-ups, etc. Furthermore, benefits may consist in reimbursing fees paid by the employee for diagnosis and medical services provided by the National Health Care Service or other private providers. These measures are generally applied to all workers employed in the company, regardless their age and category. In some cases these measures are temporary, in some others they are structural: there is no fixed rule as regards their duration. For example, some measures provided by complementary health plans can be temporary, meaning that the single plan has an expiration date, even if the plan can be later renewed with a subsequent agreement. All these measures – both deriving from one-sided initiatives (companies) and by complementary health plans – do involve a positive impact on older workers’ health.
For what migrant workers concerns, health and safety is becoming of specific interest because of the high employment rates of migrant workers in high-risk sectors, the persistence of language and cultural barriers (which require a stronger communication and training approach) and the fact that migrant workers often work overtime and/or are in poor health and thus more prone to occupational disease and injuries (Ilo, 2004a). However, studies on health of the migrant workers and those combining work-related health and migration are rarely encountered (European Agency for safety and Health at Work, 2007). Still today, health of the migrant is often an own specific theme in the studies, therefore no much data are available to draw founded argumentations at the EU level. The available studies only suggest that the working conditions of migrant workers are often less favourable than those of native workers: work is more often physically demanding and monotonous, working hours longer, wages lower and migrant workers tend to do more shift work than native workers. Furthermore, those studies on health consequence of work environment and working conditions on migrant workers evidence that: hearing problem and musculoskeletal problems appear to be more common among migrant workers than among native workers; a higher level of accidents at work is reported by foreign workers rather than natives during the first years after arriving in the country; and finally, higher rates of stress and burnout have been reported by non-white or migrant workers than by white or native workers (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2009).

These general statements made at EU level find some evidence in Italy. According to the most recent INAIL (4) data, the total number of injuries reported in 2011 by foreign people working in Italy was 115,661, which represents 15.9% of the total number. In general, injuries and fatal accidents have declined in the last years for both Italian and foreign workers although in not a continuing way, as reported by Table 2 and Table 3. However, in 2011 the injury incidence rate among foreign workers was 51,4 accidents every 1,000 employed people, which is higher comparing to that of Italian employees (29,4 injuries every 1,000 employed people). The difference is even more significant when the fatal accident incident rate is considered: 0,06 fatal accidents every 1,000 foreign employees versus 0,04 every 1,000 Italian employees. In other words, for a foreign worker the risk to die at the workplace is double than that for an Italian one. The main reason for this difference lies in the fact that foreign people are generally employed in the mostly risky sectors, such as in the building, metalworking and agricultural sectors, where they are not sufficiently trained and prepared for the tasks they have to perform. In 2011, the building sector reported almost 13,300 injuries among foreign people, followed by the metalworking one with more than 9,000 injuries (see Table 6) (Anmil, 2013).

4 Istituto Nazionale per l’Assicurazione contro gli infortuni sul Lavoro (The Workers Compensation Authority).
Table 2. Injuries in Italy, 2007-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italians</td>
<td>772,471</td>
<td>732,020</td>
<td>671,633</td>
<td>656,703</td>
<td>609,513</td>
<td>-21.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreigners</td>
<td>139,908</td>
<td>143,327</td>
<td>118,764</td>
<td>119,396</td>
<td>115,661</td>
<td>-17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>912,379</td>
<td>875,347</td>
<td>790,397</td>
<td>776,099</td>
<td>725,174</td>
<td>-20.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INAIL data in Anmil, 2013

Table 3. Fatal accidents in Italy, 2007-2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italians</td>
<td>1,033</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>909</td>
<td>832</td>
<td>782</td>
<td>-24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreigners</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>-20.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1,207</td>
<td>1,120</td>
<td>1,053</td>
<td>973</td>
<td>920</td>
<td>-23.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INAIL data in Anmil, 2013

Taking into consideration the two-year period following the crisis (2009-2010) the number of injuries reported by Italian workers decreased (-2.3%) compared to that of foreign workers, which on the contrary increased (+0.8%). In particular, data show an increase by 2 percentage points for people coming from another EU member state and by 0.4 percentage points for those of third-country citizenship. Most of EU-27 injured people working in Italy come from Romania (more than 60% of the total cases), while third-country injured are mostly from Morocco and Albania (which in total make 35% of all cases). For what fatal accidents concerns, Romania ranked first (31 deaths in 2010), followed by Albania (25 deaths) and Morocco (14) (see Table 4). Loss of control of machineries and equipment, falls, painful and stressful body movements are the main causes of the accidents reported among foreign workers. This might confirm that the dangerousness of activities, the lack of sufficient experience and proper professional training are still representing the main features of the work performed by a foreign worker (Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali, 2012).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Injuries at the workplace</th>
<th>Fatal accidents at the workplace</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>215,0</td>
<td>214,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UE</td>
<td>9,754</td>
<td>10,66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>4,935</td>
<td>5,540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>1,107</td>
<td>1,131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>1,147</td>
<td>1,232</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>754</td>
<td>799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>352</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extra UE</td>
<td>19,53</td>
<td>20,62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>2,364</td>
<td>2,407</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>1,945</td>
<td>2,050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>390</td>
<td>408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>1,249</td>
<td>1,275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex-Yugoslavia</td>
<td>607</td>
<td>549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>1,497</td>
<td>1,563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>220</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moldavia</td>
<td>950</td>
<td>1,166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>1,012</td>
<td>1,053</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>1,071</td>
<td>1,258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>744</td>
<td>748</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>472</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghana</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5 The “-” symbol means that data are not available or included in the total number.
Coming back to the most recent data, in 2011 the highest number of injuries among foreign people was reported by Romanians (16.6%), Moroccans (13.6%) and Albanians (10.1%). These three nationalities also report the highest percentages of fatal accidents at the workplace (see Table 5). Furthermore, data show that injuries mostly occur among foreign younger people. Indeed, 42% of injuries occurred among people under 35 years old and, in general, in 88% of the cases the foreign injured worker is under 50 (Aifos, 2012).

Table 5. Accidents and fatal accidents per foreign citizenship, 2011, Italy (°)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Accidents at the workplace - 2011</th>
<th>Fatal accidents at the workplace - 2011</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>19,174</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morocco</td>
<td>15,735</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Albania</td>
<td>11,715</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tunisia</td>
<td>3,882</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>3,394</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>3,356</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2,962</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>2,906</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moldova</td>
<td>2,888</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senegal</td>
<td>2,784</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ex-Jugoslavia</td>
<td>2,638</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egypt</td>
<td>2,264</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Macedonia</td>
<td>2,247</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukraine</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other countries</td>
<td>37,358</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>115,661</td>
<td>138</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: INAIL data in Ministero del Lavoro e delle Politiche Sociali, 2012

° The “-” symbol means that the data is not available or included in the total number.
Table 6. Injuries among foreign workers per productivity sector, Italy, 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Building</td>
<td>13,261</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metalworking</td>
<td>9,032</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>8,736</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotel and restaurants</td>
<td>8,159</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transports</td>
<td>6,334</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>5,824</td>
<td>5.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>5,630</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Healthcare</td>
<td>5,067</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic work</td>
<td>3,676</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Anmil, 2013

The health and safety condition of foreign workers is of particular concern because subjective features are interwoven with objective features. In the first category it is possible to include: a linguistic gap; the lack of knowledge of the national legislation; lack of adequate information about the tasks that have to be performed; a different understanding of work and hierarchy. In the second category, several circumstances can be mentioned: foreign workers are mostly employed in risky sectors or remain in the labour market; they have easier access to seasonal jobs which undermine their stability; they usually have longer and night shifts. This combination of risks has urged a different approach, which can start from the subjective situation of each foreign worker in order to consider it in the framework of the work organization and therefore the risks that might be concerned. The Italian Legislative Decree n.81/2008 (Testo Unico della Salute e Sicurezza sul Lavoro) is the legal provision that firstly addressed particular attention to foreign workers – regardless their country of origin – in consideration of their higher vulnerability, language difficulties, different notion of risks and their employment in more physical and risky jobs. In compliance with Art. 1, which aims to guarantee uniformity of protections towards all people working in the national territory, Art. 11.6 supports activities specifically addressed to foreign workers in order to improve protection at workplace level. These activities include information, training and communication initiatives mainly promoted together with INAIL. These initiatives might be addressed also to trainers and operators. In this field, INAIL sponsored one pilot project in the Lombardy Region, where 250 INAIL employees and 350 cultural-linguistic mediators in order to facilitate the relations between foreign workers and the Authority. In addition to this, INAIL promoted the project “Un minuto per te. In regola sicuri” with the aim of disseminating the culture of work prevention and safety within the foreign working population living in Liguria (www.inail.it). Art. 28 of the Legislative Decree n.81/2008 also set specific measures in favour of foreign workers. According to this article, indeed, employer has the obligation to carry out the risk assessment procedure – bearing in mind the specific features of foreign workers (indeed, foreign workers are one of the categories mostly affected by “particular risks”, Art. 28) – and adopt any kind of measure able to eliminated and reduce the risks.
encountered. In this perspective, training and information interventions are necessary (Art. 36). In this framework, support to small and medium enterprises (SMEs) can come from social partners and bilateral bodies. Some good practices have been already identified in the building and craft sectors, where social partners have promoted, for instance, the introduction of signs in more than one language, training courses in foreign languages, and toolkit on how to prevent risks in more that one language (see Box 1). These can be considered initiatives that can be adopted in the short-term. However, in the long-term, what it is highly recommended is not just the reduction of cultural and linguistic barriers but also the development of a wider knowledge and culture about risks prevention and health and safety at the workplace. One solution might be in the introduction within the work organization of a health and safety operators with tutoring and intermediary functions. This figure could be the “joining person” between the management board and the group of foreign workers, who, by being in charge of prevention policies at the workplace – in consideration of the geographical, religious, linguistic and cultural peculiarities of the foreign working group – can further integrate foreigners in the company prevention culture and enable their full participation in the work organization.

Box 1. Collective agreements at company level including specific measures for foreign workers: the case of Italy

2) Pibioplast – FEMCA (2010): the company can grant preferential treatments (the provision of work permits in addition to vacation or contribution in the price of the ticket) to facilitate the return of foreign workers to their home country.
3) Alstom – FIM (2007): the company has introduced in its canteen various menus more respondent to religious beliefs.
4) Aima – FIT (2005): the company as reserved specific areas for prayer.
5) Italfaro – FIT Reg. (2005): the company can grant preferential treatments (such as paid work permit, monetary refund etc.) for those foreign workers interested in taking Italian courses.

To conclude, demographic changes have significant implications in the field of health and safety at the workplace. Since these demographic changes are foreseen to continue in the next decades, and therefore to affect the company of the future, it is necessary to promote a cultural change in people’s mind-set, in order to give priority to health prevention rather than to effective medical care. This cultural change (see Chapter 3) must give priority to healthy lifestyles, to a healthier nutrition, to a greater physical exercise as well as to a more active monitoring of the worker’s health conditions. Such an approach, would certainly contribute, on one side, to create the basis for a “healthy ageing” and thus to limit the social/public expenses for the treatment of certain pathologies linked to this ageing process and, on the other side, integrating foreign workers in the prevention culture promoted at national level, which in turn can reduce their higher number of injuries and fatal accidents. By adopting initiatives on these aspects, companies can better improve their employees’ working activity, working environment and therefore working conditions.
2.1.3. … Learning and training

It is generally recognized that formal education is becoming obsolete. Traditional educational goals – such as mastering a major subject – are becoming less important, while broader preparation more attuned to a globalized economy is likely to predominate. Many jobs in the future will combine divergent disciplines. Interdisciplinary viewpoint will be therefore necessary for the future workforce, increasingly asked to collaborate effectively in cross-functional groups and stay updated with emerging ideas and technologies. Consequently, the workplace will increasingly need to function as a classroom. By some estimates, 80% of all corporate knowledge transfers is already taking place through on-the-job interactions with peers, experts, and managers (Cisco, 2011). This trend will continue, in a context where additional issues will be posed for the future training and learning patterns, among which there are the demographic changes described in Chapter 1. Indeed, employment rates of older and foreign people are positively correlated with higher education levels and participation in lifelong learning activities, defined as «all learning activities undertaken throughout life with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competence within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective» (European Commission, 2001). Focusing the attention on older workers, several studies and research demonstrate that education and training are crucial resources for: tackling skills outdating, which might keep older workers outside the labour market or in vulnerable positions; enhancing skills upgrading, so that potential labour shortages could be met; and improving skills and personal autonomy, so that poverty and social exclusion is reduced (among the others: Oecd, 2012b and Cedefop, 2011).

Since the adoption of the Lisbon Strategy in 2000, which set the target of reaching 12.5% of EU-27 lifelong learning participation rate by 2010, the EU policies are concerned with the participation in learning and training activities of persons of all ages, as a mean of reaching higher levels of competence, productivity and social inclusion. At the mid-point stage of Lisbon, the European institutions ascertained the lack of enough progress to reach the Lisbon targets. Therefore, in 2005 the European Commission proposed a new start for the Lisbon Strategy focusing around two principal tasks: delivering stronger, lasting growth and creating more and better jobs. In particular, the Commission affirmed the necessity of more and better investments into education and training: «by focusing at European and national level on skills and lifelong learning it will be easier for people to move to new jobs. This should be backed up by the adoption of the Lifelong Learning Programme at EU level and the presentation of national Lifelong Learning strategies by the Member States» (European Commission, 2005). On the basis of these assumptions, on 14th October 2005 Italy adopted its own Plan for innovation, growth and employment called PICO-Piano per l’Innovazione, la Crescita e l’Occupazione among whose targets there was the strengthening of education and training. In the same years, more attention started to be paid on older workers. As stated
by the Council in its 2006 Joint Interim Report, until that moment insufficient priority and funding had been dedicated to increasing access to adult learning opportunities, especially for older workers: it was there that priority to adult learning strategies started to be part of an integrated and comprehensive lifelong learning strategy (Council of the European Union, 2006). In the same year, the European Commission recognized lifelong learning as a fundamental mean enabling transition from different stages in life. Easier access to lifelong learning must reach everyone and, in particular, those with lower skills and in less favourable employment conditions. While these areas are not new, demographic ageing makes them a priority investment in the future (European Commission, 2006). Indeed, two years later, Guideline number 23 of the 2008 Decision of the European Council on guidelines for the employment policies of the Members States specifically recalled older workers among the privileged targets of efficient lifelong learning strategies (Council of the European Union, 2008). In parallel, in the framework of the European Social Fund 2007-2013 (ESF 2007-2013), Ministers of 23 European countries, the European Social Partners and the European Commission agreed to strengthen their cooperation with a view to offering all Europeans – whether they are young people, older workers, unemployed or disadvantaged – the qualifications and competences they need to be fully integrated into the emerging knowledge based society, contributing to more and better jobs. Among the key education and training issues for the ESF 2007-2013 there is the skills upgrading and competence development of older workers in view of increasing the employment rate of people aged 55-64 to 50% (European Social Fund, 2007). For the period 2007-2013, the ESF decided to support actions in all Member States and regions (Article 3.1 (d)), towards: a) “the design and introduction of reforms in education and training systems in order to develop employability, improving the labour market relevance of initial and vocational education and training and continually updating skills of training personnel” b) “the promotion of networking activities between higher education institutions, research and technological centres and enterprises”.

In accordance to the Community Strategic Guidelines adopted by the Council in October 2006 (Council of the European Union, 2006a), the Italian National Strategic Reference Framework, which is not limited to Structural Funds but also related to national additional resources implying a seven-year programme engagement, foresaw 4 basic macro-objectives: 1) developing knowledge systems; 2) improving life quality, safety, and social inclusion; 3) strengthening productive chains, services and competitiveness; 4) internationalising and modernising economy, society and administration. The Italian Regional Operational Programmes (ROPs) foreseen by the National Strategic Framework and approved by the European Commission in December 2007, were the result of a strong partnership between Regions, social partners and the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Policies. In Italy, there are 21 ESF Regional Operational Programmes. Sixteen ROPs concern Regions and Autonomous Provinces under the regional Competitiveness and employment objective and five concern Regions under the Convergence objective. Through interventions of different nature, such
Programmes offer a wide range of new opportunities for the qualification of human capital and for a stronger relationship with the labour market (e.g. training actions, integrated pathways, support to labour services and women employment, interventions for disadvantaged people and active ageing, analysis of needs, etc.). Together with the Regional Operational Programmes, there are 3 National Operational Programmes (NOPs), two of which are held by the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Policies. Under the Regional competitiveness and employment objective there is “Azioni di sistema” NOPs (“System’s actions”) held by the Ministry of Labour and Social Policies, while, under the Convergence objective there are “Governance e Azioni di sistema” NOPs (“Governance and System’s actions”) held by the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Policies, and “Competenze per lo sviluppo” NOPs (“Skills for development”) held by the Ministry of Education, University and Research. In general, these Programmes meet the need of ensuring one unique intervention for vocational training and labour policies strongly linked with ROPs with the final aim of producing a close matching between supply and demand for skills and providing an easier access to the labour market. In particular, “Competenze per lo sviluppo” NOP focuses on human capital and promotes interventions supporting and fostering the innovation of the education system.

In 2009, the EU Member States and the European Commission, by acknowledging that the Lisbon benchmark of participation into lifelong learning activities (12.5%) was not reached (in 2010 only 9.1% of adult population in the EU participated to lifelong learning activities), strengthened co-operation with strategic framework for European cooperation in education and training (“ET 2020”) a follow-up to the earlier Education and Training 2010 work programme launched in 2001. This approach recognises that, in a rapidly changing world, education, training and lifelong learning need to be a priority. The challenges posed by demographic change and the regular need to update and develop skills call for a lifelong learning approach and for education and training systems, which are more responsive to change and more open to the wider world (Council of the European Union, 2009). As further stressed by the European Commission, a high level of educational attainment is associated with higher labour force participation and therefore it is a precondition for lifelong learning and hence the ability of older workers to remain on the labour market (European Commission, 2009). At the national level, the “White paper for future social model” explicitly recalled lifelong learning as a key strategy for labour relations. Yet, the document claimed that widespread lifelong learning opportunities were missing in Italy, due to the self-referential nature of training policies in the country. The White Paper also denounced that training opportunities in Italy were still confined to traditional learning assets, that is to say formal learning in classes and lectures (Ministero del Lavoro, della Salute e delle Politiche Sociali, 2009.).

The 2008-2009 economic crisis, and the subsequent changing occupational structure in Europe and in Italy, made the public debate on training, competences updating and upgrading as well as lifelong learning for older workers most significant. Skills
upgrading ensuring a better match between the supply of skills and labour market demand became two elements for Europe’s short-term recovery and longer term growth and productivity, for its jobs and its capacity to adapt to change, for equity, gender equality and social cohesion (European Commission, 2008). This is particular true with reference to an older workforce: the possibility of renewing and expanding skills throughout careers in order to have the possibility to stay employable, work longer and make career changes became crucial (European Commission, 2010a). In fact, in line with the Agenda for new skills and new jobs, one of the main goals at European and at national level is to strengthen the capacity of anticipating changing labour demands in the economy, and securing matching qualifications, which increasingly have to come from an ageing labour force, rather than young people entering the labour market. The main problem is that older workers are often more susceptible to skills obsolescence. Thus, the role of training and lifelong learning in creating and sustaining skill mismatches has become more significant for older workers too.

Italy’s last policies to tackle the recent economic crisis have also concerned aspects related to active ageing and lifelong learning related issues. This has been most visible with the Agreement between the Italian Government, Regions and Autonomous Provinces of Trento and Bolzano signed on 12th February 2009. In line with the European guidelines and the European Social Fund’s priorities, the Agreement confirmed Article No. 19 of Law No. 2/2009 (Conversione in legge, con modificazioni, del decreto-legge 29 novembre 2008, n. 185, recante misure urgenti per il sostegno a famiglie, lavoro, occupazione e impresa e per ridisegnare in funzione anti-crisi il quadro strategico nazionale, published in “Gazzetta Ufficiale” n. 22 of 28 January 2009), which promotes a set of measures aimed at tackling unemployment by focusing on human capital, and in particular, on that of older workers at risk of exclusion from the labour market. These measures are financed by regional resources (30%) as set by the so abovementioned Regional Operative Programmes (ROPs). At national level, particular attention to the disadvantaged older workers has been given by the 2010 Government Budget (Law n. 191, 23 December 2009, the so called “Finanziaria 2010”) and the “Manovra correttiva” (Law n. 122, 30 July 2010) which, in particular, foresee:

- The financing of national insurance contributions of those companies hiring older workers (over 50) receiving unemployment and mobility benefits;
- The financing the contributions lacking to reach the retirement age of those workers (with 35 years of contributions) receiving income benefits;
- An increase in number of production sectors and companies receiving income benefits for their workers;
- Benefits for private employment agencies for disadvantaged groups’ placement.

Later, one of the most important step reached by the Italian Government, the Italian Regions and the social partners has been the signature, on 17th February 2010, of an inter-institutional agreement: the so called “Guidelines for Continuous Training in 2010” (Linee Guida per la Formazione nel 2010). By recognizing that training represents a positive answer to the challenges entailed by labour market changes,
including the recent jobs’ crisis, the Guidelines aim at orientating how to manage the budget that Italy allocated for workers’ training in 2010 – equal to 2.5 billion euro – with particular focus on unoccupied people and unemployed workers, as well as those who are granted unemployment benefits and those facing temporary layoffs (redundancy fund recipients, and those eligible for redundancy pay more generally according to ex. Art. No 19 of Act No. 2/2009). The document, although it is focused on 2010, it emphasises the importance of continuous training as a social protection tool that enhances employability, and guarantees workers more safety. However, the basic idea underpinning the guidelines is that training – in general but also for adult workers – should be based at company level. Curricula should give prominence to work based learning, on-the-job skills development, and they should be jointly drafted with social partners, bipartite organisms, in order to favour training investments that:

a) Are aimed to the weakest bands of the labour market, therefore including older workers involved in restructuring processes;
b) Are organized in working environments or close to them;
c) Answer the real qualification and requalification needs of workers involved in occupational transitions, which will characterize the labour market in 2010;
d) Are drafted for placement, aiming at creating a dynamic and flexible matching of labour supply and demand and at making more effective the link – or integration – between the educational system and the labour market, so that it is possible to answer territorial and sectoral skill needs.

The Italian Guidelines for adult workers’ training in 2010 provide five indications for designing, managing and evaluating workers’ training in times of crisis. For what training opportunities for older workers concern, it is worth mentioning some of the points of the Guidelines, namely:

Point 1) favouring an effective answer to the professional and competences’ needs of companies and workers. To this end, skill needs should be collected by a number of entities on local territories, including bipartite training funds, labour consultants, employment agencies, etc. The Minister of Labour will collect and coordinate all information and make them available for workers and companies;
Point 2) the promotion of a competence based pedagogical approach. Training provision should be conceived in terms of “competence development” and no more in terms of courses or disciplines.

Point 4) adults training, to be promoted through: a) training-labour agreements, which allow workers who are granted unemployment benefits to go back to the company and be trained on the workplace, maintaining the benefit; b) using bilateral training funds resources for financing continuous training for redundancy fund recipients hired in 2010, provided that the company the worker belonged to was contributing to that specific fund; c) creating information points by bipartite bodies and employment services (public, private, authorized and accredited) for workers of all age. Such info point should take care of the workers, orientate and make them responsible in light of
their return to the labour market; d) training programs in working places, also when inactive, and at the VET centres that look like productive contexts and adequate stage periods by the company; e) using inactive workers as tutors for training and vocational activities, including apprenticeship contracts, after they have properly trained for covering this role; f) promotion of the “contratto di inserimento” \(^7\) especially for older 50 workers, young people and women, by strongly working on the professional needs to be decided by companies and workers.

As pointed by the Italian Guidelines, bilateral training funds – which are regulated by article 118 Law n. 388/2000 (Financial law 2001), further modified by art. 48, Law n. 289/2002 (Financial law 2003) – are called to play a key role. However, just few of them – as it appears in their “Piano Operativo delle Attività – POA” (“Plan of Actions”) – planned to include older workers as specific target group of the training activities funded by them (see two cases of Fondimpresa and Fonter in Box 2).

**Box 2.** In its POA of 2004, Fondimpresa decided to promote a set of sectorial and territorial plans - called “Programmi di Preminente Interesse Settoriale e Territoriale (PISTE)” – with the aim of – among the others - tackling the difficult employment situation of people over 45. In the POA of the second training fund, Fonter, workers over 45 are among the target groups of its funding for training activities. Taking into consideration the on going “Notices” (Avvisi) it is worth mentioning, on the one side, the Notice n.5/2011 of Fondimpresa, which gives priority to those training plans presented by companies for their older employees (over 45); and on the other side, the notices of Fond.Coop, Fondo Dirigenti PMI and Fondartigianato, which, in the framework of State aids \(^8\), foresee and additional score for those training plans addressed for disadvantaged workers, such as older workers. Finally, in the field of bilateral training funds, it is worth here mentioning the initiative undertaken by, the Italian training fund for banks and insurances companies (FBA – Fondo Banche e Assicurazioni), which provided 6 million euros for financing professional training and up-skilling courses for older workers (over 50). This FBA’s initiative was intended to invite companies to apply for these funds by presenting training for their employees over 50, enabling the latter to update their skills and transfer them to the youngest employees, by playing a mentor, coach or tutor’s role.

The Agreement signed between the Italian Government, Italian Regions and Autonomous Provinces of Trento and Bolzano on 12\(^{th}\) February 2009 is further confirmed by the Agreement between the Italian Government and the Italian Regions on

\(^7\) “Contratto di inserimento” was a contract enabling the access to the labour market of specific bands of the population. This contract was ruled by artt. 54-59 of the legislative decree n.276 of 2003, under Heading II. According to article 54, specifying the subjects entitled to sign a “contratto di inserimento”, letter c) quotes unemployed workers, older than 50 years old. Art. 55 specified that this contract require an individual project for entering the labour market. This project aims at guaranteeing that the workers’ professional skills are adequate to the working environment he is supposed to enter. This contract has been eliminated by the Recent Italian Labour Market Reform (l. 92/2012).

\(^8\) Art. 4 of the Decree of the Ministry of Labour, Health and Social Policies n. 148 adopted on 24\(^{th}\) June 2003, establishes that the resources given to bilateral training funds shall observe the European legislation in the field of State Aid. Therefore, those training measures funded by bilateral raining funds shall be considered as State Aids, in observance to: a) Commission Regulation (EC) No 800/2008 of 6 August 2008 declaring certain categories of aid compatible with the common market in application of Articles 87 and 88 of the Treaty (General block exemption Regulation); b) Commission Regulation (EC) No 1998/2006 of 15 December 2006 on the application of Articles 87 and 88 of the Treaty. In this case, companies applying for a state aid receive a funding or co-funding when their training plans are addressed to older workers, considered as disadvantaged workers.
21st April 2011 in which the parties agree to plan and implement active labour policies in favour of workers beneficiary of safety net measures – among these people a large shared is represented by people aged 45-65 years old – through training policies organized in line of skills needs expressed by the economic sectors, businesses and workers.

All these policies supported at European and national level are nowadays central in the Europe 2020 strategy, where the EU has set the target of 15% by 2020 (European Commission, 2010) for average participation in lifelong learning in any four weeks period across member states for adults aged 25-64 (in 2010 the average participation in the EU-27 was 9.1%). Across the EU-27 some 4.6% of persons aged 55 to 64 participated in education and training in 2009, which is half of the average level of the whole working population (25-64 years old). The highest rates were recorded in Denmark (24.4%) followed by Sweden, Finland and United Kingdom (see Graph 1), which demonstrate that reaching the target set by the EU is not something impossible. It is not a case that these are countries where, indeed, national educational and employment systems drive the promotion of education and learning for the adult population. For instance, lifelong learning is an integrated part of the Swedish educational and employment system, which, in the European framework, stands out for two main features. First of all, it gives the opportunity to complete or enhance educational attainment after leaving initial education, either through adult education or through various training courses within the framework of labour market policy. Secondly, it gives the possibility, at the workplace level, to access to on-the-job training or the opportunity for an employee to further develop the skills of his workforce, as it also happens in Norway (European Commission, 2012b). In Finland, adult vocational training is at the heart of the Parliamentary Adult and Training Committee’s agenda since 2002, which gave the basis for lifelong learning policies in the country. Most significantly, in 2011 the Finnish government signed a framework agreement with the social partners which includes the rights of employees to participate in further training three working days annually (European Commission, 2012b).

**Graph 1.** Participation in education and training by age group, EU-27, 2009

*Source: Eurostat, 2011*
Italy, is lagging behind with only 27.5% of older people (55-64 years old) with upper secondary education, compared to the EU-27 average of 42.5%, and with 10.7% of the same cohort with tertiary education attainment, compared to 25.4% in Germany. Therefore, it should come as no surprise that the share of older people with lower secondary education was very high in Italy in 2010: 61.8%, compared to the EU-27 average of 38.4% (Eurostat, Age Equality Indicators).

As showed in Graph 2, the proportion of older people (55-64 years old) taking part in education and training in Italy still remains low (2.5%) compared to the EU average (4.5%) and the same can be said for the remaining people in the working age (25-64) (Isfol, 2012).

Graph 2. Rates of education and training activities’ participation by age, 2005-2010, EU-27, Italy

Taking into consideration the age dimension, it is possible to observe that the youngest groups (15-54) have higher participation rates compared to that recorded by the oldest one (54-65). Age differences are more pronounced when the employment situation is taken into consideration. As reported in Table 7, among the employed population, the group aged 35-54 participates more into education and training activities (with women participating more than men). This seems to confirm that the key factor enabling participation into education and training activities is the employment condition: the higher incidence of inactive people among the older population (over 54) appears to be the main cause of training inactivity. On the contrary, prospects for career progression and other professional reasons are the main driver for taking part in lifelong learning activities. However, taking into consideration Isfol data on workers and companies involved in training activities financed by the bilateral training funds (see Graph 3), the age group that participate more in these funded training activities is the one aged 35-44, while older workers participate only by 5.5% (Isfol, 2011).
Table 7. Rates of education and training activities’ participation by age, gender and employment condition, Italy, 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Employed people (%)</th>
<th>People looking for a job (%)</th>
<th>Inactive people (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54-44</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Isfol, 2011

Graph 3. Employees involved in training activities funded by the bilateral training funds, by age, 2010

For what territorial distribution concerns, lifelong learning participation rates are very low in South Italy (Mezzogiorno Area) while in the North/North-East of the country, and in particular among employed people, they are higher. The lack of sufficient and proper training opportunities offered by the companies located in the South Italy is perceived as the main cause of this disparity in the country (see Table 8).
In Italy, in 2011 regional and local rules addressed to older workers were 44 distributed among 18 Regions (mostly in the North of Italy). The most active Regions appeared to be Friuli-Venezia Giulia and Liguria (see Box 3). On the basis of the content of the abovementioned rules, it is possible to observe that policy makers act at different levels: in some cases they try to extend the use of safety net measures, in some others they support outplacement through vocational training or incentives to companies to hire people over 50 (Isfol, 2011a). As reported in Table 9, most of the measures aim at improving the worker’s employability/adaptability and the match between labour supply and demand, and the European Social Fund mostly finances them. As reported in Table 10 the measures address unemployed and a mixed group (“other”), which include both employed and unemployed people over 45.

Table 8. Training course participation rates of people aged 15-64 years old by geographical area (Italy), 2009

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment condition</th>
<th>Reasons for taking part into a lifelong learning activity</th>
<th>North-West</th>
<th>North-East</th>
<th>Centre</th>
<th>South</th>
<th>Italy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Employed people</td>
<td>Professional reasons</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
<td>4.1%</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal reasons</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.3%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>1.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of training</td>
<td>95.1%</td>
<td>94.5%</td>
<td>95.3%</td>
<td>97.4%</td>
<td>95.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People looking for a job</td>
<td>Professional reasons</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal reasons</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
<td>2.9%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of training</td>
<td>96.8%</td>
<td>94.9%</td>
<td>96.4%</td>
<td>97.6%</td>
<td>96.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inactive people</td>
<td>Professional reasons</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>0.6%</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Personal reasons</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
<td>1.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lack of training</td>
<td>97.1%</td>
<td>96.7%</td>
<td>96.6%</td>
<td>98.5%</td>
<td>97.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Isfol, 2011
## Table 9. Measures by typology and funding

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of measures</th>
<th>Distribution (%)</th>
<th>ESF (%)</th>
<th>National funding (%)</th>
<th>Regional funding (%)</th>
<th>Other funding (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tackling physical efforts in the workplace</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaign for promoting health and safety</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tackling discrimination</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing employability/adaptability</td>
<td>61.4</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour demand and supply match</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>33.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>29.7</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment creation</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company restructuring/crisis</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of company’s skills</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To increase awareness of those benefits available for a longer working life</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits for flexible contractual arrangements</td>
<td>1.0 – 1.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supporting gradual retirement</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>44.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>52.5</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Isfol, 2011a*

## Table 10. Measures by target group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of measures</th>
<th>Employed</th>
<th>Workers in mobility or in CIG (9)</th>
<th>Unemployed</th>
<th>Companies</th>
<th>System’s operators</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tackling physical efforts in the workplace</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campaign for promoting health and safety</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tackling discrimination</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increasing employability/adaptability</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour demand and supply match</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>63.4</td>
<td>14.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-employment creation</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company restructuring/crisis</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of company’s skills</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To increase awareness of those benefits available for a longer working life</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits for flexible</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*9 Cassa Integrazione Guadagni/Wage Guarantee Funds.*
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contractual Arrangements</th>
<th>Gradual Retirement</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supporting Gradual Retirement</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Isfol, 2011a

**Box 3 (Isfol, 2011a)**

**Friuli-Venezia Giulia.** In the last years this Region gave particular attention to active ageing by financing several initiatives addressed to improving the working situation of older workers (employed, unemployed, close to retirement age, low-skilled etc.). In particular, on 9th August 2005 the Region issued the Regional Act n. 9 “Regional dispositions for employment, protection and work quality” (“Norme regionali per l’occupazione, la tutela e la qualità del lavoro”) where Art. 34 mentions vocational training for older workers as a specific mean to sustain active ageing and the extension of working life. These topics also characterize the ROP 2007-2013 (Objective 2) and the document “Guidelines for a new Regional labour law” (“Linee guida per una nuova legge regionale in materia di lavoro”) which, among those means able to sustain active ageing, mentions: incentives for the extension of the working life; transition from working to retirement; vocational training aimed ad skills match; incentives for part-time jobs. Finally, it is worth mentioning the close collaboration between the Province of Pordenone and the Employment Services that, though the PARI Program, promoted measures to provide incentives to hire people over 45 and 50, and incentives to provide training for skills updating.

**Liguria.** Liguria is the Italian region with one of the highest percentage of people over 65. As a result, it adopted several legislative acts in favour of active ageing and older workers. One example is given by the Regional Act n. 48, adopted on 3rd November 2009 titled “Active ageing promotion” (“Promozione e valorizzazione dell’invecchiamento attivo”) which considers older people as a resource and not as a burden. In particular, it recognizes lifelong learning as the right lever to maintain older people active in the workplace and in the society. Older people are also at the core of the ROP 2007-2013, which underlines that, in order to increase participation rates, it is important to undertake targeted actions for people over 54. Under this objective, the Region promotes lifelong learning activities and incentives to provide training to people over 50. This focus is given also by the “Three-years Regional Training and Education program 2010-2012” (Programma Triennale regionale dell’istruzione, della formazione e del lavoro 2010-2012) which sets, among the general objectives, skills and knowledge development in a lifelong learning perspective, in particular for those aged over 40 and over 54.

At provincial level, it is worth mentioning that, since 2009, the provincial administrations promoted computer sciences courses for the older population. Moreover, all Provinces published notices for implementing training initiatives giving a particular priority to people over 45.

For what lifelong learning concerns, the Employment Services (Servizi per l’impiego) give particular attention to older workers’ needs by promoting lifelong learning as the main lever for workers’ integration into the labour market. This promotion is carried out through a close collaboration between the Employment Services and those authorized training agencies and centres dislocated in the territory. For instance, in 2008 the Province of Rome, on the basis of the information received by the Employment Centre (Centro per l’impiego) published a call on training for unemployed workers (“Avviso Pubblico B Formazione Lavoratori disoccupati e inoccupati 2008-2010”) in order to fund a set of training services aimed at promoting the labour market integration of those disadvantaged groups, such as older workers (over 50) and in particular those unemployed or in mobility (Isfol, 2011a). One year later, in line with the POR 2007-2017, the Province of Rome launched the project addressed to the disadvantaged group and people over 40 ("Progetto Obiettivo Over 40 e Fasce Deboli"), which covered
training courses, income benefits and other employment measures (10). Other examples are reported in Box 4.

**Box 4 (Isfол, 2011a)**

In the Lazio Region it is worth also mentioning the collaboration between the Employment Services and Counselling Services of the Municipality of Rome, which is at the core of the project “Città dei Mestieri”, which is an information and counselling centre addressed to those managers over 50 that remained unemployed during the economic crisis and that are interested in reorganizing their career. Similarly, in Umbria, the Employment Services of the Province of Perugia have been involved in the promotion of two initiatives aimed at the development of lifelong learning initiatives, namely:

- **Project Astra**: This project foresees a set of training courses addressed to the citizens aged 25-64 for the development of basic skills (computer science and languages), technical skills (tourism sector) or transversal skills (marketing, entrepreneurship, health and safety) aimed at a better integration into the labour market;

- **Project VitaAttiva**: This project is addressed to those citizens aged 25-64 living in the Province of Perugia and interested in updating their knowledge and skills. For them there are 24 available courses (such as computer science, foreign languages, communication etc.).

In the Emilia-Romagna Region, the Province of Ferrara has realized the project “OverForti Formazione per l’occupabilità, il reinserimento, la transizione e l’inclusione” with the aim of providing training and labour inclusion’s opportunities through the creation of a virtuous circle between vocational training and counselling services. **OverForti** is based on the provision of training courses (such as in mechanics and accountancy) and on the introduction of internship periods for unemployed people over 40. In the Province of Modena the Employment Services have been involved in the project “Frida-Formazione per ricolmocirc;are da adulti” which promotes lifelong learning for a wide range of subjects, including people over 45. This initiative is based on the implementation of a wide territorial network of employment, training, and counselling services. It aims at analysing the training needs expressed by those people at risk of exclusion from the labour market, and planning an *ad hoc* training supply (11).

Also in the Veneto Region, the close collaboration between the Employment Services and the training agencies has played a key role for active ageing initiatives. On example is given by the project “Cittadinanza Professionale” realized by the Province of Verona to promote a longer working life for unemployed people over 45 enrolled at the Employment Centres, who have difficulties to access to the labour market due to their age or lack of skills. For this target group, the projects provided specific internships’ possibilities and counselling and training services (12). In the Province of Venice, the collaboration between public and private Employment Services, on the one side, and the training and counselling agencies, on the other side, has been very important for the realization of the “Talentaged” Project, which supports a longer working life for people over 45 and tries to help unemployed to access to the labour market. The main objective of this project is to enable those people over 45 to stay active in the labour market by better appreciating their experience and potential (13).

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11 More information on the project are available at the following link: http://www.frida.provincia.modena.it/page.asp?IDCategoria=95 (Last accessed on: 27 March 2012).

12 More information on the project can be found at the following link: http://www.j4u.provincia.vr.it/Sezione.jsp?titolo=Progetti%20finanziati%20per%20Intervento%20%20%20-Azioni%20favorire%20occupazione%20over%2045,%20donne%20e%20migranti&idSezione=1640 (Last accessed on: 27 March 2012).

Supporting training and learning activities has become a priority also in relation to migrant and foreign workers both at the EU-27 and Italian level. Migration has been often seen as possible way to alleviate labour market shortages caused by trends such as the recent financial economic crisis, the skill upgrading and the population ageing. However, more focus has been recently given to this issue with the adoption of the Europe 2020 strategy. The priorities of having a more skilled workforce (priority n.2) and better job quality and working conditions (priority n.3) require better use of the potential of intra-EU mobility and third country migration in meeting labour market needs. So far, several barriers – among the others the lack of full recognition of skills and educational qualifications – have hindered the deployment of the potential entailed in these groups. For instance, when considering the educational, occupational, and sector distributions of migrants (Table 12), it is possible to observe that they mostly collocate themselves in the lower secondary education and low-skilled jobs. Migrants are underrepresented in segments of the economy dominated by the public sector, such as public administration, and overrepresented in manufacturing. Overeducation, which appears to be higher for migrants particularly in Germany, Netherlands and Portugal (see Table 11), has been identified as one of the main reason of this distribution. A research undertook by Cedefop indicates that, in comparison to their native counterparts, migrant employees have a 5% increased probability of being overeducated (Cedefop, 2011a) because the qualification obtained abroad is not fully transferable or recognized in the country of arrival. But it is also true that some migrant workers possess lower work-related skills. Overeducation is higher in countries with low rates of training and a lower proportion of skilled workers.

**Table 11. Overeducation rates by country, 2002-2008**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>0.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>0.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>0.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Cedefop, 2011a*
### Table 12. Educational and occupational distributions of migrants, 2008

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education level</th>
<th>All %</th>
<th>Migrants %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below primary</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower secondary</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper secondary</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>33.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post secondary</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Tertiary</td>
<td>34.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second tertiary</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>All %</th>
<th>Migrants %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Legislators, senior officials, managers</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professionals</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technicians and associate professionals</td>
<td>20.1</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerks</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>9.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service workers</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>17.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled agricultural and fishery workers</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Craft workers</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plant and machine operatives</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary occupations</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>All %</th>
<th>Migrants %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture and fishing</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>19.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gas and electricity</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wholesale and retail</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hotels and restaurants</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transport and storage</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial intermediation</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real estate and renting</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>9.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public administration and defence</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education, health and social work</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>20.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Cedefop, 2011a*

In Italy, the importance of training and learning activities for the full integration of migrants and foreigners in the labour market and in the society has been recognized following the EU commitment in this field, which regained strength in 2005 with the *Green Paper the Future of the European Migration Network* (European Commission, 2005a) and the *Common Agenda for Integration* (European Commission, 2005b) that jointly support the coordination between EU and national integration policies and initiatives. In this sense, the European funds represent an important mean through which the local municipalities can address the integration issue. However, with the Reform of
Title V of the Italian Constitution, in 2002 the Fund for the Migration Policies has been absorbed by the National Fund for the Social Policies (l. 328/2000) and, since 2003, the destination of funds is decided by each local authority (Region or Province) without any particular constraint for migrants. Thus, the financial resources available for this kind of integration policies and initiatives has experienced a reduction in the mid of the 2000s. The situation improved in 2007 with the European Integration Fund (2007-2013) aimed at supporting national initiatives able to provide a credible response to the multidimensional issue of integration of immigrants (European Commission, 2005c).

In 2011 the educational level of the foreign population living in Italy differed from the native one but marginally, reporting in any case an improvement compared to the previous years. In 2011, within the foreign population aged 15-64 living in Italy, 49.9% had a middle school diploma (licenza media), 40.9% a secondary school diploma (diploma scuola superiore) and 9.2% a higher education degree (laurea). For what the Italian population of the same age concerns: 43.3% had a middle school diploma, 41.1% a secondary school diploma and 13.5% a higher education degree. Therefore, in 2011 the foreign population showed educational levels similar to the ones of the native population above all with reference to middle school diplomas. However, unlike the Italian population (15-64 years old), the number of foreign people with a secondary school diploma increases with age (see Table 13). A second major difference is remarkable in gender: foreign women have similar educational level comparing to the native ones, but the same cannot be said for men. Indeed, 54% of foreign man has a secondary school diploma and 6.7% a higher education degree, while the share of Italian men with these education levels are respectively 46.5% and 12.1% (see Graph 4).

Table 13. Italian and foreign population (15-64 years old) by educational level and age, 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age groups</th>
<th>Up to middle school diploma</th>
<th>Up to secondary school diploma</th>
<th>Up to Higher education degree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>70.5</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>28.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>48.6</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>51.5</td>
<td>60.1</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td><strong>49.9</strong></td>
<td><strong>45.3</strong></td>
<td><strong>40.9</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Istat, 2013
According to these data, it can be argued that a large share of the foreign population living in Italy has the cultural tools necessary for improving living and working conditions. This is of particular relevance if we consider that the labour demand in Italy requires nowadays a higher level of education than in the past, as showed by the available data before of the financial and economic crisis (Table 14).

Table 14. Permanent labour demand for foreign workers by educational qualifications, Italy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2008</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High Skilled</td>
<td>9.380</td>
<td>11.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled</td>
<td>109.400</td>
<td>113.340</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low Skilled</td>
<td>44.160</td>
<td>42.940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Researchers</td>
<td>1.540</td>
<td>2.880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>162.940</td>
<td>167.790</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

High Skilled(H.S.)=ISCO88 (1-2-3); Skilled (S.)=ISCO88 (4-5-6-7-8); Low Skilled (L.S.)=ISCO88 (9); Researcher=ISCO88 (2)

Source: Rete Europea Migrazioni et al., 2010

In the average, the educational level is higher in the North of Italy rather than in the Centre and South of the country. This territorial difference is more evident with reference to the foreign population: in the North and in the Centre less than 50% of foreigner obtained a middle school diploma, while in the South the percentage increases up to 61.5% (see Graph 5.)
The Isfol analysis of the social and active labour market policies adopted by four Italian Regions (those particularly affected by immigration trends: Emilia Romagna, Lazio, Lombardy and Veneto) in the field of training integration initiatives for migrants in Italy in the period 2000-2006 (which correspond to the National Operative Programme Obj. 3 Axis B- Measure B1 – Actions 1 and 2) shows that the decentralisation of the financial resources has lead to an improvement of local initiatives, which, however lack of coordination with the regional and national level. The research point out that those projects addressed to migrants that have been mostly financed by the European Social Fund concern the reintegration into the labour market, prevention of school dropouts, lifelong learning, job creation, and the support of female entrepreneurship. This finding suggest that most of active labour market policies aim at removing barriers to labour market participation and barely deal with the participation of migrant workers in training, job orienteering and counselling initiatives. This is also because the foreign population does not really use the services offered by the Employment Services (Servizi per l’Impiego) but prefer to use informal channels. This, however, stress the need of a more present, active and coordinated network of actors belonging to both private and public sector and at national, regional and local level (Marucci and Montedoro, 2010).

All this scenario suggests that there is an important role for public (and private) employment services, in preparing migrant workers so that they are more competitive in applying for jobs, but also for national and local authorities who must support employers in the promotion of lifelong learning, training, job orienteering and counselling activities with regard to migrant workers too. This might lead to more job autonomy and self-confidence for each migrant worker, which in turn means a better participation of workers into working and societal environment. All these issues will become increasingly important in the company of the future.
2.2. The new work office

In a world with an increasing diversity in the workforce, growing globalization and competition, and with rapid changes in technology and production patterns, there is a need for more flexibility in the labour market. Flexible labour relations, indeed, enable companies to quickly adjust the size and composition of their workforce and screen workers with respect to their productivity. If flexible labour relations are used to support innovation processes and optimize the quality of the workforce and the work to get done, they can further enable economic growth and competitiveness. This is likely to become a core issue in the future.

2.2.1. Flexible time and labour

In the European labour market, there has been a growing emergence of more flexible forms of work, which deviate from the traditional “standard” employment contracts. This is well acknowledged in the European Commission’s Green Paper (European Commission, 2006a), which shows how demographic changes, rapid technological progress as well as international competition and the introduction of new methods of production – described in Chapter 1 – have contributed to this change. In that year, UK stood out for having a particularly high share of establishments that reported the regular deployment of at least 20% of a staff at unusual working hours (Saturday, Sunday and night work and changing working hours) while the Netherlands, Hungary and Italy showed below-average scores in each of the abovementioned forms of unusual working hours (Eurofound, 2007a).

According to the most recent data, in most European countries (as well as in Canada and Japan), all forms of flexible labour – namely “all forms of labour that enables the external numerical adjustment of the labour intake by employers” (such as fixed-term contracts, temporary employment agencies etc.) (SEO Economic Research, 2013) – together account for 20 to 30% of the total employment. In particular, high shares of flexible labour are found in the Mediterranean countries while the lowest shares can be found in the United States. Although the share of flexible labour relations has been growing in a number of countries during the last ten years, there is no clear evidence that the market for flexible labour in general is growing structurally. On the contrary, when comparing the pre-crisis period (2002-2007) and the recent period of economic recession (2007-2012), it is possible to observe that most of the percentages of flexible labour relations are positively correlated to economic trends, with the exception of the EU-Anglo-Saxon, EU-Rhinelan, EU-Francophone and Eastern Europe regions (see Table 15). This can be partly attributed to the fairly stable economic situation in these countries, but may also be driven by institutional factors.
Table 15. Share of flexible labour relations in total employment (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>'02</th>
<th>'03</th>
<th>'04</th>
<th>'05</th>
<th>'06</th>
<th>'07</th>
<th>'08</th>
<th>'09</th>
<th>'10</th>
<th>'11</th>
<th>'12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>U.S.</td>
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<td>11.1</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JP</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.1</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>25.6</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU27</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>26.1</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-Anglo-</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saxony</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scandinavia</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>24.0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhineland</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>21.5</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>22.5</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Francophonic</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>39.0</td>
<td>39.4</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.4</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mediterranean</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>27.2</td>
<td>27.5</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>27.4</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>27.0</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


There is no evidence that the strong growth in the share of flexible labour in the most recent pre-crisis period points at a worldwide trend towards a larger share of flexible labour at the expense of traditional open-ended labour contracts. Observations in Europe show that growth or decline of different types of flexible labour can be attributed to changes in both local societal and economic structures and in institutions and legislation. Growth of flexible labour appears mainly in countries where the labour participation is increasing, while it is declining where labour participation is relatively low or stagnating. This suggests an important role for flexible labour for new non-traditional labour market participants – like older and foreign workers – to enter the labour market (SEO Economic Research 2013).

Flexible working arrangements (such as part-time contract, gradual retirement or partial retirement schemes based on part-time work) and measures to increase working time flexibility (working time accounts, organisation of shift work and night work, flexible starting and finishing working hours) have been regarded as a first important tool for improving work organization in accordance with an increasing older workforce. In fact, older people have more difficulties to perform a full time job because of capacity and care responsibilities. Indeed, in 2010, 7.9% of people aged 50 to 64 were working on a part-time basis because of illness or disability (which was almost double the average for the working age population) and 23.6% because of other or family responsibilities (Eurostat, 2011). Part-time work seems to be the one of the most flexible contract used among older workers. In 2011 one fifth (20.2%) of the EU-27 workforce aged 50-64 was employed part-time, a share that rises to 56.7% for those aged more that 65 years old. Among the EU member states, the Netherlands has the largest share of people aged 50-64 employed with a part-time contract (47.4%), followed by Belgium (31.2%) and United Kingdom (28.2%) (see Table 16) (Eurostat). Part-time work for older people can
be facilitated by the existence of ad hoc provisions in the national legislations, as it already happens in some countries. In Norway, for instance, the Working Environment Act affirms that «work shall be organised and arranged with regard for the individual employee’s capacity for work, proficiency, age and other conditions» and, mostly important, «an employee who has reached the age of 62 […] shall have the right to reduction of his or her normal working hours if the reduction of working hours can be arranged without major inconvenience to the undertaking» (Norwegian Ministry of Labour and Social Inclusion, 2009).

Table 16. Part-time employment as percentage of the total employment, by sex and age (%), 2011

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GEO/AGE</th>
<th>From 15 to 24 years</th>
<th>From 25 to 49 years</th>
<th>From 50 to 64 years</th>
<th>65 years or over</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>European Union (27 countries)</td>
<td>29.8</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>20.2</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Euro area (17 countries)</td>
<td>28.9</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>31.2</td>
<td>67.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>59.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany (until 1990 former territory of the FRG)</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>72.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>17.1</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>45.9</td>
<td>18.9</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>17.7</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>13.2</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>23.9</td>
<td>15.8</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>28.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>9.6</td>
<td>51.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>12.0</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>33.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>17.2</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>49.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>73.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>75.2</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>83.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>19.5</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>72.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>64.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>35.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>40.8</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>9.5</td>
<td>14.2</td>
<td>62.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>72.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>68.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>29.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Gradual retirement schemes or partial retirement schemes based on part-time work represent other important means through which it is possible to retain older workers and, at the same time, support their work-life balance. They can develop “second careers” and suitable “and-of-careers” jobs (European Commission, 2012). Under the first category – gradual retirement scheme – it is possible to recall the case of Germany where the gradual retirement scheme based on part-time work (and on subsidies for employers), introduced with the Altersteil-zeitigsetz (AltTZG) in 1996 and in force until December 2009, played undoubtedly a key role in enabling more work time flexibility for older workers. According to this scheme and in agreement with their employer, employees over 55 were entitled to reduce their working time. By doing so, the employee was entitled to perceive 70% of the full remuneration previously perceived, in which 50% was paid by the employer and the remaining 20% by the Federal Work Agency (Italia Lavoro Spa et al., 2011). Under the second category – partial retirement schemes based on part-time work – which is of particular appeal than full time retirement for at least two-thirds of European (European Commission, 2012a), it is possible to mention the most recent case of Spain. In 2011, in this country, between 61 and 64 years old – thus before having reached retirement age (14) – it was possible to combine partial pension receipt and a part-time job, if working hours were reduced between 25% and 75%, with the condition that another employee had to replace the remaining working hours left by the partial pensioner. Partially retired workers had to be with the last employer for at least six years and contributed 30 years or more in total. For those over 65 there was also the possibility of combining pension and part-time job but in this case there is no obligation to replace the remaining working hours (OECD, 2011). With the 2011 labour market reform, Spanish employees can still access to partial retirement schemes but with a minimum age of 63 years old and with 33 years of contributions. In Denmark, partial retirement schemes accessible to people between 60-65 are coming to end. They are accessible only for people born before 1959, with residence in Denmark, employed full time for at least 10 years over the last 20 years and that continue working between 12-30 hours per week. These people should belong to the ATP (Tillaegspension Arbejdsmarkedets) pension system – the mandatory complementary pension system for non self-employees between 16-67 years old working more than 9 hours per week (Italia Lavoro Spa et al., 2011). Under this second

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Mix</th>
<th>IPR</th>
<th>IPR + Work Life Balance</th>
<th>Employment</th>
<th>Fall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Norway</td>
<td>56.8</td>
<td>21.0</td>
<td>26.6</td>
<td>55.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
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<td>34.8</td>
<td>38.4</td>
<td>75.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Croatia</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, the</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>35.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Eurostat

14 In 2011 in Spain the retirement age for a full benefit was 65 years for men and women. 15 years of contributions were necessary to qualify for a pension benefit (OECD, 2011). In 2012, the retirement age was increased to 67 (OECD, 2012).
category, it also possible to recall the experiment Italy tried to do in 1995 through the second pension reform (L. 8 August 1995, n. 335, the measure was in art. 1, comma 25, letter c), afterwards cancelled by art. 1, provision 209, L 662/1996). Notwithstanding the provisions in force regarding compulsory resigning or dismissal before claiming the pension and the prohibition of adding work and pension earnings, a worker who fitted the required conditions of age and contribution could change his job from full to part time and get the pension at the same time. Henceforward, both wage and pension converged to make the whole income of the worker, each one proportional to the ratio (not to set under 50%) of the part time hours on full time, within the amount of the original wage. In this way, on one hand, the employer could have a good reduction of the cost for wages and social security contributions, without affecting its staff’s performance. On the other hand, the worker could obtain a good reduction of working time without decreasing the total income. In this perspective, eventually, the pension system could benefit from a good reduction of pension expenditure for a more or less long period of time. Surprisingly enough, this measure was cancelled not more than a year after and was replaced with a similar one, that was subject to a couple of conditions more: the employer had to engage as many new employees as were the transformations into part-time that he had allowed and the whole operation was to be approved by the Welfare Department (L. 23 December 1996, n. 662, Misure di razionalizzazione della finanza pubblica, art. 1, provision 185).

Part-time contracts and flexibility in the working time may be considered as important tools also for better integrating foreign workers (or with a foreign background) since they can answer to their work-life balance needs or their religion or beliefs prescriptions. For instance, part-time contract is already widespread among migrant women, particularly in Austria, Belgium, Germany, the Netherlands, Norway and the UK. It should be noted that part-time jobs are more common among migrant women in countries where native-born women also work part-time more often. Thus, the incidence of part-time work is influenced by national legislation, which can make such contracts a more or less convenient option for employers (Eurofound, 2007) (15). However, no data are available on part-time employment contract or contract with flexible working times of foreign people (or with a foreign background) living in the EU (indeed, Eurostat and Istat data frame just the employment-, unemployment- and activity rate situation of this diverse group) meaning that more research in the field is needed in order to better answer to workers’ needs.

Flexible working times introduced for enabling the observance of specific religion or beliefs in the workplace or for answering other needs are not usually addressed in the national legislations. They are mostly a matter of agreement between the employer and the employee (or the employees’ representatives). The same can be said for the above-

15 No data are available on part-time employment contract or contract with flexible working times of foreign people (or with a foreign background) living in the EU (indeed, Eurostat and Istat data frame just the employment-, unemployment- and activity rate situation of this diverse group) meaning that more research in the field is needed in order to better answer to workers’ needs.
described gradual retirement schemes or partial retirement schemes based on part-time work for older workers. These, indeed, are linked to an agreement with the employer or to the number of years accumulated within the company where the employee wishes to activate a more flexible scheme. Therefore, it can be argued that, first of all, flexible working arrangements and measures to increase working time flexibility can be facilitated by the existence of ad hoc provisions in the national legislations – as it already happens in some countries – but willingness and action at company level is required too. In this regards, social partners play a crucial role for increasing employment and activity rates of those that now represents the disadvantaged groups within the labour market but that, in the future, will be central for the productivity of the whole labour market. In Italy, for instance, this could be of particular relevance for both the already employed senior workers –66.9% of people over 50 declared to have fixed starting and finishing times in their work, while the EU-27 average is 58.9% (Eurofound, 2012) – and for those that lost their jobs in the recent financial and economic crisis and are not still entitled to retire (for instance, the so called “esodati” problem in Italy). Therefore, governments should adopt a more comprehensive approach through which they should consider not only those people with a labour contract but also those that are outside from the labour market.

The issue of flexibility (of labour and working time) has been often linked to the other debatable issue of security or, better to say, balancing flexibility and security. This is because the majority of workers’ rights and protections have been built around the so-called “standard” employment relationship and appear to lack in the more flexible/atypical forms of employment arrangements. However, as various studies show (among the others Broughton et al., 2012) flexibility and security do not oppose each other. On the contrary, it has been observed that more flexible measures are especially beneficial for vulnerable groups of workers (as older and foreign workers are often described). This applies, for instance, to older workers. Since the 1970s the policies on older worker have been in favour for early retirement schemes. Early exit arrangements were common because they allowed, on the on side, older people to retire with good financial conditions and, on the other side, employers to proceed with the generation change. However, with the aging of the population, early retirement schemes are no more a sustainable options, meaning that older people are becoming more dependent to have a job and being employable in order to have an income source (that cannot more be represented by the pension). In this case, job security can meet flexibility through part-time work and flexible retirement, while job employment can meet flexibility through education/training, job-rotation, age-aware career and job structures, as argued by Tros (2004) and described in the previous paragraph (2.1. The new workforce).

However, company managers might have been confronted not only with the challenges posed by the necessity of finding new flexible working time arrangements in view of a more diversified workforce, but also with the challenges deriving from the introduction and use of non-standard working hours. As reported by some studies and research, establishments that require at least 20% of their staff to work at unusual and changing
hours are confronted with more difficulties than companies without unusual working hours: sickness, absenteeism, motivation problems as well as staff turnover (Eurofound, 2007a). This seems to support the negative projections the group of panel expressed on some issues regarding working time and flexibility in the future with reference to the Italian context. According to the group, the new ICTs, which undoubtedly have the potential to make working time more flexible (see Figure 3), alone, do not fully support employers to modulate their workload (Figure 4) and employees to fully meet their work-life balance needs (Figure 5). Their projections about the future draw a less positive scenario than the current one (the 2030-dot is below the 2013-dot). To reach these targets, other elements are needed, primarily a different organizational culture, which further stress the importance of change management practices (see Chapter 3).

**Figure 3.** Technological innovation enables working time flexibility

![Figure 3](image-url)

*Source: Author’s data processing on the basis of the Delphi study (see Appendix I)*

**Figure 4.** ICTs and workloads

![Figure 4](image-url)

*Source: Author’s data processing on the basis of the Delphi study (see Appendix I)*
2.2.2. Flexible space

Until most recent times, most work had to be performed at the employer’s premises, where the employee is supposed to execute his/her job. This still continues today above all for those jobs that are part of a production line. However, with the shift to the knowledge economy, the higher mobility of information and communication technologies, of office rents and the general inclination towards environmental sustainability (as described in §1.4) jobs are becoming less dependent from location and time. The “anytime anywhere” work is making the idea of “going to work” increasingly archaic: in the future, we will speak more about “connecting to work” (Morgan, 2013). This does not mean that the physical space will disappear. It will continue to be necessary, but not in its conventional form. Two most visible changes have been identified: the first one is disappearance of individual offices and the emergence of meeting places; the second change can be observed in the creation of “in between workspaces” (Maitland and Thomson, 2011).

Online collaboration is making the idea of going to the conventional office less necessary: most of the jobs, today, can be easily performed everywhere. However, even if online collaboration can be highly successful – as testified by the wider use of cooperative platforms, TelePresence and other web technology instruments – there are times when employees need to be together with their colleagues, managers or customers in order to make things work. This has undoubtedly changed the role of the working place: from being a place where to go every day to a meeting place. In Italy, this change has been already acknowledged. The panel group interviewed with the Delphi method affirms that, today, the working place is less a place where people every day to work. In the future it will be more a place where to meet a wide range of people (managers, customers, partners etc.) and create business networks.
If the vast majority of employees can do their job far from the office, they do not need their individual office as they used to need in the past. Similarly, they will need more meeting rooms where to meet colleagues, managers and customers. As a consequence, the conventional office is becoming more a meeting place while individual offices are replaced by large open spaces. This is already visible in some companies. Employees of Microsoft in the Netherlands, for instance, have no dedicated office: they find the ideal workspace depending on what they are doing. This idea has also been implemented in Cisco Italy’s premise located in Milan, where the number of desks available is one-third the number of total employees (Salta and Sperotti, 2012). Another example is given by Unilever. Under its “agile working” programme, launched at the end of 2009, Unilever is cutting office space with a view of making 30% of roles “location-free” by 2015 (Maitland and Thomson, 2011).

Cisco’s employees can also freely decide whether to work at home or in the office, or in third places that can be made available by the company or freely chosen by employees (such as cafeterias, libraries etc.). This is the second major trend. Employees can freely create their own office in a cafeteria, bar, park, library etc. or companies provide their workers and collaborators with third places – also known as “in between workspaces” – conceived to offer a halfway working environment between home and conventional offices well equipped with Wi-Fi and Internet connection, desks, printers etc. These changes are likely to emerge more evidently in the future, also in the Italian context (see Figure 7).
These third spaces, often shared by more than one enterprise, have the advantage to reduce commuting times (and the correlated stress levels), increase the level of employees’ concentration, satisfaction and productivity and favour new forms of collaboration. In addition to mobile and open space offices, companies’ buildings are starting to be equipped with creative furniture. Google’s working environment is famous for its meeting rooms in a rowing boat or beehive, its colourful deckchairs and tables. Bright colours, light, airy spaces are thought to make the work more friendly and collaborative. Some companies have internal cafeterias, libraries where employees can work and not just spend their breaks. This is the case, for instance, of the London office Edelman, where a café bar and a library of books and magazines are located right next to the entrance and a cocktail bar on the way to the presentation rooms (Maitland and Thomson, 2011).

A report by Britain’s Equal Opportunities Commission shows that even people who are unable to vary the hours or location of work can have some flexibility. The report divides the current UK occupations in four groups according to their dependency from time and location. The result appears to be that almost 60% of jobs are dependent from time and place (like sales and retail assistants, waiters, secondary education teaching professionals etc.) even if they allow some flexibility in choosing the time shift. They are the so-called “shift-shapers”. On the other extreme, there are those occupations where people have more freedom and control over when and where they work: they are the “time-lords”, such as chief-executive of major organizations, writers, artists, social science researchers, which account about 14% of the UK workforce. An interesting case is represented by those that can choose their place but not the time: these are people that can perform their work in remote (the so called “remote controllers”) like call-centre operators and IT technicians. Those in the bottom left part of the figure, the so-called “time-stretchers”, are those with some flexibility in time but with a static location. Then, there is another share of the staff that are based in the office but that can work remotely and finally those that have to respect a specific working place and working time (see Figure 8) (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2007).
For what Italy concerns, the panel group states that the share of people that work in remote is likely to significantly increase in the next years (see Figure 9), but the specific modality of telework, on the contrary, seems not to become a predominant trend. Telework, indeed, still presents many drawbacks and negative implications for employees – isolation, lack of feedback, stress-work correlated etc. – and also some hurdles for employers – how to effectively control teleworkers, ensure health and wellbeing etc. – who will continue to have general sense of mistrust toward telework.
If it is true that employers and employees can enjoy a higher level of freedom in choosing their workplace, it is also true that a higher level of trust and responsibility is required to make things work (further analysed in §2.3). This means that changing working spaces implies change management: offices in the future will be more based on the principles of sustainability, interconnectedness, collaboration and more level of personal autonomy but also responsibility (Chapter 3).

2.2.3. New communication

Demographic and technological changes will modify the way people communicate at work or when working.

In a truly globalized work, where people easily change their job, multilingualism is predicted to become a key feature of the communication of the future. Several cultures and languages will interact in our future daily working day. This will undoubtedly require a good knowledge of foreign languages and above all foreign cultures, in order to properly understand the messages embodied in words and behaviours. In fact, several scholars on conflict management have noted that a certain amount of interpersonal conflict is inevitable, even in healthy organizations, due to factors like language barriers, culture clashes, and resentment by majority group members of what they may perceive as preferential treatment of minority group members. In a culturally diverse working environment, situations in which individuals confuse stereotypes with descriptions of cultural behaviours are likely to happen more often if not properly prevented. Therefore, in the future working environment, managers will be asked to recognize and value diverse work styles, problem solving strategies, ways of learning and knowing, and opinion about problems and solutions. Managers and workers will increasingly need to learn about different cultures and how to ask questions when they encounter new cultures or behaviours they do not know how to interpret. Therefore, in order to prevent detrimental situations and give managers the appropriate tools,
organizations also need to develop harmonious intergroup relations through conflict management training, diversity awareness training (Cox, 1993) and consciousness-raising training, a technique for bringing new ways of understanding and interpreting experience into one’s consciousness awareness, which can be used to teach people about culture and cultural differences, making them aware of how culture has shaped their own perceptions and behaviours and the perceptions and behaviours of others (Fine, 1995) (all these practices will be further analysed in Chapter 3).

In addition to demographic changes, technology advancements, bringing new times and places of working, are leading a change in the way people communicate at work. Online collaboration, through its technologies (wikis, cooperative platforms, intranet etc.) has in part replaced the daily face-to-face interaction, creating a new form of communication: the virtual interaction. The virtual communication has some positive aspects, among which the literature identified the following:

- To bring in the same “place” different voices coming from different job levels, job places e job backgrounds: in this way people can better integrate their skills for a common purpose. Decisions are not so much delegated downward as they are integrated across three dimensions, among the people who have the direct expertise, authority, and information to carry them out.

- To replace hierarchies with more “flat/horizontal” interactions (see §2.3.1): the language of technology is more informal and it has the advantage of placing users on the same level.

- Faster cycle times: decisions can be adopted in faster times, by avoiding long and expensive meetings.

- To create a modular fluid infrastructure that can adapt according current needs: the company of the future will need to be flexible and adaptable to changes, therefore it will increasingly require agile ways of decision and communication.

- To ensure that communication flows throughout the organization and that information and material can be shared between different people, departments and establishment: this enriches people and support collaboration within a company (see Figure 11 which shows how the new technological tools support the sharing of information, a trend that will continue in the future).
Although technology can offer greater flexibility in communication it cannot replace the social value of face-to-face interactions above all in the working environment. Virtual communication, indeed, can undoubtedly favour new forms of sharing, learning, developing relationships and building networks, but it cannot totally replace the benefits brought by traditional forms of interacting. For this reason, the work office will continue to survive, at least as a meeting place (as demonstrated in §2.2.2.) and the organizational culture will be fundamental to support communication’s change. This means that, in the future, leaders will first have to build a collaborative infrastructure. Everyone must be able to communicate with everyone, wherever they are, whenever necessary. The organization must give the means to bring individuals together constantly, in both conventional and unconventional way, not only to convey information but also to mutually share that information according to business requirements (Cisco, 2011). More significantly, each organization will have to continually evaluate available technologies, deciding what current mix of tools will best enable its own workforce to increase its efficiency, propagate useful ideas, and contribute to the organization’s collective intelligence.

2.3. The evolving employment relationships

2.3.1. Between employer, employee and trade unions

The changing profile of the workforce (see §1.1.), technological changes (see §1.2.) and globalisation (see §1.3.), together with the impact of the economic crisis and the choices governments make in relation to social policy, are affecting the balance of power between employer, employee and trade unions. Demographic change is variegating the set of interests and concerns at workplace level (as described in §2.1.), namely the set of issues managers and trade unions have to deal with. Globalization allows the break down of traditional production and distribution lines and the outsourcing of a specific spectrum of activities with the resulting fragmentation of individual and collective...
employment relationships. Finally, technological innovation and the widespread use of online collaboration platforms by companies have reduced the traditional distance between employer and employee, posing new challenges for the role trade unions used to play in the past.

The first evolution identifiable in the triangular relationship is the one affecting the relationship between employers/managers and employees: it has become virtually closer, horizontal and more of individual nature.

Technological innovation together with the increasing use of online collaborative platforms and tools are reducing the traditional hierarchical distance between employer and employees. The wider use of social networks, indeed, has gradually encouraged new behaviours such as creating communities, being open and transparent, sharing information and ideas. Employers and employees are nowadays virtually closer than in the past and this is likely to increase in the future (see Figure 12). Furthermore, virtually any employee can connect or communicate with anyone else at the company regardless of seniority and information being opened up instead of being locked down (Morgan, 2013).

This change has lead the emergence of enterprise social and collaborative platforms in a way that terms such as social business, enterprise 2.0, management 2.0, learning organizations, are nowadays of common use. The interchangeable use of these terms, however, should not confuse on the real shift these new ways of working are bringing: at individual level, horizontal relationships are gradually replacing hierarchical ones and, at company level, management structures are moving from a hierarchical, compartmentalized paradigm to a cross-functional, horizontal paradigm. Many studies highlight the new opportunities entailed in these horizontal and flat organizations – for instance, being more responsive to social shifts and in meeting market demands because of the fewer levels of decision-making and communication barriers (Maitland and Thomson, 2011) – but, to reach this aim, technology is not enough. The element that can determine the success of the shift is the organizational culture (see Figure 13 and Chapter 3).

**Figure 12.** Virtual or face-to-face relationships among colleagues and seniors

*Source: Author’s data processing on the basis of the Delphi study (see Appendix I)*
The promotion of a collaborative and learning organization depends on the available technology or on the organizational culture.

Source: Author’s data processing on the basis of the Delphi study (see Appendix I)

Thanks to online cooperation tools, each employee has now the possibility to express his/her opinion, participate in the decision-making process and learn more about the organization’s mission, objectives and expected results. The decisional power, traditionally in the hands of the executive board, is starting to be decentralized (see Figure 14): workers are becoming more co-producers rather than “receiver” or, in certain circumstances, they can become leaders without having to be managers.

For what the nature of the employment relationship concerns, it can be said that, as employees’ views and concerns are more diverse because of their different age, cultural background, needs and space/time arrangements, the set of issues and interests they used to express is becoming less collective. Employers/managers will have to learn how to deal with a more varied workforce. In other words, this change will mean reassessing managers’ approach to advancement, rewards, and other human resources activities, and
it will also involve re-examining their basic employee value propositions and identifying the unconscious cultural suppositions that underlie their operations. In addition to age, culture, contract arrangements differences expressed by the current and future workforce, it is possible to mention those changing job characteristics and expectations that are transversal to the vast majority of the workforce. This means that those factors that were able to attract the workforce in the past are not valid in the current scenario and they will probably change again in the future. Looking at the coming decades, the workforce will increasingly value factors such as the creative or growth potential of a job, the availability of on-the-job learning opportunities, the environmental effects of a job, and the reputation in the community. Furthermore, employees are likely to personalize more their job on the basis of their own strengths, interests, and their preferences for work location and working time. As a consequence, employers will need to give considerable flexibility if they have to successfully balance, on the one side, the expectations and aspirations of workforce of the future with, on the other side, their business requirements and institutional values (Cisco, 2011). All these changes – demographic, technological and job related factors – are undoubtedly bringing the traditional employer/employee relationship to an evolution.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traditional</th>
<th>Workforce of the Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Security</td>
<td>Flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>Prosperity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benefits</td>
<td>Opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prestige</td>
<td>Actualization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion ladder</td>
<td>Career navigation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking charge and getting ahead</td>
<td>Nurturing and growing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal assistant</td>
<td>Personalized technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Office productivity tools</td>
<td>Follow-me-and-know-me tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vertical</td>
<td>Cross-functional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multinational</td>
<td>Globalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job description</td>
<td>Work portfolio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization hierarchy</td>
<td>Intra- and extra organization networks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commute</td>
<td>TelePresence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consent-based decisions</td>
<td>Contingency-based decisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment history</td>
<td>Personal branding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In-person face time</td>
<td>Virtual face time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual review</td>
<td>Individual “dashboard”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All-hands meetings</td>
<td>Stakeholder management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localization</td>
<td>Co-location</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Occupational</td>
<td>Holistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business unit</td>
<td>Working community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing</td>
<td>Coaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing specific skills</td>
<td>Maximizing potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goals and mission statements</td>
<td>Roles and aspiration statements</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company and industry focus</td>
<td>Market transitions and adjacencies focus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Cisco, 2011*
Similarly, also the relationship between employees and trade unions is changing. In the past, for instance, unions have been successful in recruiting more women and fighting for social rights. On the contrary, today they are still struggling to make themselves relevant to the new generations and categories of workers, and to seek new issues around which to organise. Indeed, since the workforce has become more variegated in terms of ages, cultures, employment contracts, and the workplace has developed in a more mobile entity, trade unions have a higher level of difficulty in defining the set of interests they have to represent and the level of action they have to undertake. The speed of the demographic, economic and technological changes made the shift even more complicated. As a result, unions have to re-think about their role and their collective dimension starting from the following acknowledgments:

• Individuals are more powerful than ever, with networks that transcend corporate boundaries;
• To recognize and understand employees’ different motivations;
• Be comfortable with non-traditional professional careers.

New forms of trade union 2.0 are already visible in some countries. For instance, in Italy, Uiltuics (the category of the Confederation Uil for the tertiary sector) gave birth to “Sindicato Networkers” (http://www.sindicatonetworkers.it/), the first virtual trade union in Italy. It aims to represent all the people that mostly work online and are not currently represented by the existing trade unions.

2.3.2. Rewarding work not time

Today the predominant form of employment is the “fixed time and place”, a form that was established at the time of the Industrial Revolution and then gradually transposed in most of the employment contracts that today are in existence (part-time contracts, flexitime contracts etc.). However, the rule of “paying people by the hour” has been acknowledged to be detrimental for both productivity and employees satisfaction. According to this rule, indeed, employees are always remunerated the same amount of money regardless the fact the work is performed slowly or faster and regardless the results achieved. It has been observed that this system encourages people to slow down their rate of work and therefore the level of productivity of the organization for which they are working. Similarly, this approach clashes with the new workforce’s job characteristics, aspirations, life styles and values (see Table 17) and this can negatively affect the performance and the level of contribution of each employee to the whole organization.

To reverse the trend, and reach higher productivity levels, a new approach should be promoted: it involves a radical change in the way work is done, rewarding people for their ideas and output, not for their time (Maitland and Thomson, 2011). Some organizations that have already made this change call this “smart/agile working” because it represents the new way of working and rewarding: ideas are the basis of
competitive advantage, management is about creating and environment in which people feel free to take initiative and rewarding systems are valuing more the results achieved rather than the time employed.

In the organization of the future, rewards and opportunities will be tied closely to the “what&how” tasks are performed rather then the time spent on them (see Figure 15).

**Figure 15.** Rewarding systems based on time employed or results achieved.

In addition to this, the rewarding systems and packages will increasingly conceived in order to suit a broad range of workers, each of whom will want to customize the suite of offerings based on personal values and needs. As an example, rewards could be offered to employees in the form of a “menu”, as it already happens in Cisco Italy (Salta and Sperotti, 2012), with choices based on employee’s individual aspirations and life situation. This approach also allows the organization to get the most value from its investment in employees by continually updating the rewards menu so that it stays aligned with organizational goals. For instance, younger employees might want to take maximum advantage of skills-building opportunities to progress in their careers, whereas senior workers might choose more comprehensive healthcare package.

However, as some commentators have argued, this shift from time-based payment systems to those based on performance may be an emerging trend for skilled professionals but not for unskilled or semiskilled workers (Acas, 2011). Therefore managers will have to find a delicate balance of managing such a differentiated workforce. In this respect, the role of Human Resource Management is moving from the traditional “control and command” approach to a more strategic one (Oram and Wellins, 1995; Cane, 1996). Various studies have highlighted that the “reward and recognition” systems more based on needs and results are one of the major critical success elements to shifting from the old to the new world of work (further discussed in Chapter 3).
Appendix I: Delphi methodology

In order to investigate the first research question of the current research project – how the company of the future will look like in the coming decades – the Author used the Delphi Technique, which is an established and accepted method for achieving a broad convergence of opinion from a diverse group of specialists who were posed questions on a certain topic area.

This methodology was developed by Dalkey and Helmer (1963) at the Rand Corporation in the 1950s and it involves a structured discussion on a specific area with the purpose of outlining future events. The main aim of this method is to move beyond the limitations of “what is” to begin a conversation of “what could/should be”.

In the framework of this research project, the Delphi Technique has been adopted to outline how work and workplace relations will be in the coming decades (up to 2030) according to two main drivers of change: demography and technology. The panel group includes experts coming from different disciplines and background in order to guarantee an interdisciplinary character. The panel has been interviewed through two round of questionnaires. The first one (Q1), which took place from September 15, 2013 to October 15 2013, sought to explore the future of workplace relations according to demographic and technological change. The experts have been asked to place their answer in a scale that ranges from a very traditional scenario (value 1) to a very innovative one (value 10). The second round (Q2), which took place from November 1, 2013 to January 4, 2014, seeks to verify the scenario resulting from the first round.

Panel Group

Amoroso, Irene. Senior Manager Baglietto&Partners. She wrote several articles in the field of aging and age management.

Belisario, Ernesto. Lawyer and expert in administrative law and new technologies law.

Blangiardo, Giancarlo. Professor of Demography at the University of Milan “Bicocca”. His fields of expertise: international migrations, migrants in Italy, demographic and family policies, ageing.

Castaldo, Roberto. He has been working in the field of ICT in the last 25 years. Lecturer in ICT.

Checchucci, Pietro. ISFOL Researcher in the field of demographic ageing and lifelong learning.

Colletti, Giampaolo. Expert in the field of new technologies, new professions and web communities. He handles new technologies for in-house communication. He has worked for Vodafone Italia to create a business TV channel. He has written and managed TV formats for Rai Educational and Rai3. He writes for Sole24Ore and Job24, and he also writes a weekly column about digital TV called “Stories about ordinary programming” in the Nova supplement of Sole24Ore. He developed the inter-university
project ww.altratv.tv and is currently employed by Technogym as an Internal Communication & Business TV Manager in charge of creating the company’s internal and external video channel.

**Costa, Paolo.** Professor in digital and multimedia communication at the University of Pavia.

**Di Nardo, Filippo.** Journalist on the labour market issues. He collaborates with Italia Oggi, Europa, Technopolis (Il Sole 24 Ore), ICTbusiness e La Mia Partita Iva. Responsible Director of Human Training. In 2000 he funded Bread&RosesTV, one of the first web TV in Italy dedicated to labour relations and new economy. Lecturer at the University “La Cattolica” of Milan.

**Epifani, Stefano.** Lecturer in TechEconomy at the University of Urbino “Carlo Bo” and University of Rome “La Sapienza”.

**Pais, Ivana.** Researcher in the field of Sociology of economic and labour processes at the University “La Cattolica” of Milan. She studies the social networks and the digital professional communities.

**Porta, Marco.** Researcher in Multimedia Systems and technologies at the University of Pavia.

**Pramstrahler, Werner.** Researcher at Arbeitsförderungsinstitut/Istituto Promozionale Lavoratori (AFI-IPL) in the field of demographic change, workplace relations, industrial relations, quality of work.

**Rosina, Alessandro.** Professor of Demography at Università Cattolica of Milan. He is Director of the Research Centre "Laboratorio di statistica applicata alle decisioni economico aziendali".

**Scandellari, Riccardo.** He works in the field of technology and communication technologies since 1998. He is an expert in communication projects, networks, blog and social networks.

**Solari, Stefano.** Professor of Political Economy at the University of Padova. He is the Scientific Director of Fondazione Leone Moressa

**Zanfrini, Laura.** Professor of Sociology (Sociologia delle differenze e delle disuguaglianze) and Organizations and social systems at the University “La Cattolica” of Milan. She is the Scientific Director of the Summer School "Mobilità umana e giustizia globale and of the Research Centre WWELL - Welfare Work Enterprise Lifelong Learning.

**Questionnaire 1 (Q1)**

**Questionnaire 1a (Q1) – Demographic changes: the evolution of work and labour relations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCENARIO ATTUALE ITALIA (2013) / CURRENT SCENARIO ITALY (2013)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Trend demografici / Demographic Trends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1) I tassi di fertilità si stanno abbassando (1) o alzando (10) / Fertility rates are declining (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2) I tassi di fertilità delle donne straniere sono più alti rispetto a quelli delle italiane (1) o più bassi (10). Fertility rates of foreign women are higher (1) or lower (10) than the ones of native women.

3) In quella che viene comunemente intesa come “forza lavoro” si considerano le persone under 65 (1) o over 65 (10). In the workforce we generally include people under 65 (1) or people over 65 (10).

4) Nella popolazione in età da lavoro (25-64) si contano poche donne (1) o molte donne (10) rispetto agli uomini. In the working age population there are less (1) or more women (10) than men.

5) Nel totale della popolazione si contano pochi giovani (under 24) (1) o molti giovani (10) rispetto ai setenp (over 65). In the total population there are less (1) or more young people (under 24) (10) than senior (over 65).

6) La forza lavoro finisce di lavorare, volontariamente, prima dei 67 anni (1) o continua a lavorare, volontariamente, oltre i 67 anni (10). The workforce voluntary stops working at the age of 67 (1) or continue to work after the age of 67 (10).

7) I flussi migratori provenienti dai Paesi extra UE sono in aumento (1) o in declino (10). Migration flows from non-EU countries are increasing (1) or declining (10).

8) I flussi migratori provenienti dai Paesi UE sono in aumento (1) o in declino (10). Migration flows from EU countries are increasing (1) or declining (10).

9) Rispetto a 20 anni fa, la forza lavoro è più omogenea (1) o eterogenea (10) dal punto di vista etnico, culturale linguistico. The current workforce is more homogeneous (1) or heterogeneous (10) that 20 years ago.

2. Trend demografici e dinamiche del mercato del lavoro / Demographic trends and labour market dynamics

1) L’invecchiamento della popolazione abbassa (1) o alza (10) i tassi occupazionali della forza lavoro. The ageing of the workforce decreases (1) or increases (10) the employment rates of the workforce.

2) A una minore disponibilità di forza lavoro giovane (ma altamente formata) si accompagna un minor livello di “high-skilled employment” (1) o a una minore disponibilità di forza lavoro giovane (ma altamente formata) non segue necessariamente un minor livello di “high skilled employment” (10). A smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce is linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (1) or a smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce is not necessarily linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (10).

3) Nella ricerca di nuova occupazione, i giovani sono generalmente avvantaggiati (1) o svantaggiati (10) rispetto ai senior. In looking for a new job, young people are generally in favour (1) or at a disadvantage (10) than senior workers.

4) Programmi formativi, di aggiornamento delle competenze, counselling e orientamento per i lavoratori senior sono poco diffusi (1) o molto diffusi (10). Training programmes, skills updating activities, counselling and orientation services are barely available (1) or widespread (10).

5) A parità di mansioni, la retribuzione dei lavoratori stranieri è nella media inferiore rispetto a quella degli italiani (1) o superiore (10). When having equal task, the remuneration of foreign workers is generally lower (1) or higher (10) than the one of natives.

6) I lavoratori stranieri svolgono la propria attività lavorativa principalmente in orari e luoghi non convenzionali (1) o i lavoratori stranieri svolgono la propria attività lavorativa principalmente in orari e luoghi convenzionali (10). Foreign workers usually carry out their working activity in unconventional places and times (1) or in conventional places and times (10).

7) I lavoratori stranieri hanno un tasso di infortuni sul lavoro più alto rispetto a quello degli italiani (1) oppure uguale e/o inferiore rispetto a quello degli italiani (10). Foreign workers have a higher work-related injury rate than the one of natives (1) or it is the same /lower than the one of natives.

8) Il problema dell’“over-qualification” riguarda più i lavoratori con origini straniere (1) o i lavoratori italiani (10). The “over-qualification” problem concerns more foreign workers.
9) I lavoratori stranieri sono concentrati in determinati settori e professioni (1) o sono omogeneamente distribuiti per settori e professioni (10) / Foreign workers are concentrated in specific sectors and professions (1) or they are homogeneously distributed among sectors and professions (10)

3. Trend demografici e dinamiche del lavoro a livello aziendale / Demographic trends and dynamics at company level
1) I lavoratori senior svolgono un ruolo marginale (1) o centrale (10) nell’azienda / Senior workers play a marginal (1) or central (10) role at company level
2) A livello aziendale, i giovani sono subordinati ai senior (1) o sono in un rapporto paritario rispetto ai senior (10) / At company level, young workers are subordinate to senior workers (1) or they are on an equal relationship (10)
3) A livello aziendale il “know-how” dei lavoratori senior viene perso con la contemporanea uscita dal mercato del lavoro (1) o viene trasferito ai lavoratori più giovani (10) / At company level the “know-how” of senior workers is lost with their simultaneous exit from the labour market (1) or it is transferred to younger workers (10)
4) Il livello di “job satisfaction” dei lavoratori senior sul posto di lavoro è basso (1) o alto (10) / At company level, job satisfaction of senior workers is low (1) or high (10)
5) La discriminazione in base all’età è una pratica molto diffusa (1) o poco diffusa (10) a livello aziendale / Age discrimination is widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level
6) La discriminazione per motivi etnico-culturali religiosi e linguistici è una pratica molto diffusa (1) o poco diffusa (10) a livello aziendale / Race discrimination is widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level
7) Generalmente si registrano alti (1) o bassi (10) tassi di assenteismo dei lavoratori senior sul posto di lavoro / Senior workers’ absenteeism rates are high (1) or low (10) at company level
8) L’ergonomia dei luoghi di lavoro non è rispondente alle necessità e i bisogni dei lavoratori (1) o è rispondente alle necessità e i bisogni dei lavoratori (10) / Working place’s ergonomics is not respondent (1) or respondent (10) to workers needs
9) I lavoratori senior sono generalmente occupati full-time (1) o part-time (10) / Senior workers are generally employed full-time (1) or part-time (10)

SCENARIO PREVISTO PER IL FUTURO - ITALIA (2030) / PROJECTED FUTURE SCENARIO – ITALY (2030)

1. Trend demografici nel 2030 / Demographic Trends in 2030
1) I tassi di fertilità saranno più bassi (1) o più alti (10) / Fertility rates will be lower (1) or higher (10) than today
2) I tassi di fertilità delle donne straniere saranno più alti rispetto a quelli delle italiane (1) o più bassi (10) / Fertility rates of foreign women will be higher (1) or lower (10) than the ones of native women
3) In quella che viene comunemente intesa come “forza lavoro” si considereranno le persone under 65 (1) o over 65 (10) / In the workforce we will generally include people under 65 (1) or people over 65 (10)
4) Nella popolazione in età da lavoro (25-64) si conteranno poche donne (1) o molte donne (10) rispetto agli uomini / In the working age population there will be less (1) or more women (10) than men
5) Nel totale della popolazione si conteranno pochi giovani (under 24) (1) o molti giovani (10) rispetto ai senior (over 65) / In the total population there will be less (1) or more young people (under 24) (10) than senior (over 65)
6) La forza lavoro finirà di lavorare, volontariamente, prima dei 67 anni (1) o continuerà a lavorare, volontariamente, oltre i 67 anni (10) / The workforce will voluntary stops working at the age of 67 (1) or it will continue to work after the age of 67 (10)
7) I flussi migratori provenienti dai Paesi extra UE aumenteranno (1) o diminuiranno (10) /
Migration flows from non-EU countries will increase (1) or decline (10)
8) I flussi migratori provenienti dai Paesi UE saranno deboli (1) o numerosi (10)
9) La forza lavoro sarà più omologa (1) o più eterogenea (10)

2. Trend demografici e dinamiche del mercato del lavoro nel 2030 / Demographic trends and labour market dynamics in 2030
1) L’invecchiamento della popolazione abbasserà (1) o alzerà (10) i tassi occupazionali della forza lavoro / The ageing of the workforce will decrease (1) or increase (10)
2) A una minore disponibilità di forza lavoro giovane (ma altamente formata) si accompagnerà un minor livello di “high-skilled employment” (1) o a una minore disponibilità di forza lavoro giovane (ma altamente formata) non seguirà necessariamente un minor livello di “high skilled employment” (10) / A smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce will be linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (1) or a smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce will not necessarily be linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (10)
3) Nella ricerca di nuova occupazione, i giovani saranno avvantaggiati (1) o svantaggiati (10) rispetto ai senior / In looking for a new job, young people will be generally in favour (1) or at a disadvantage (10) than senior workers
4) Programmi formativi, di aggiornamento delle competenze, counselling e orientamento per i lavoratori senior saranno poco diffusi (1) o molto diffusi (10) / Training programmes, skills updating activities, counselling and orientation services will be barely available (1) or widespread (10)
5) A parità di mansioni, la retribuzione dei lavoratori stranieri sarà nella media inferiore rispetto a quella degli italiani (1) o superiore (10) / When having equal task, the remuneration of foreign workers will be generally lower (1) or higher (10) than the one of natives
6) I lavoratori stranieri svolgeranno la propria attività lavorativa principalmente in orari e luoghi non convenzionali (1) o i lavoratori stranieri svolgeranno la propria attività lavorativa principalmente in orari e luoghi convenzionali (10) / Foreign workers will carry out their working activity in unconventional places and times (1) or in conventional places and times (10)
7) I lavoratori stranieri avranno un tasso di infortuni sul lavoro più alto rispetto a quello degli italiani (1) oppure uguale e/o inferiore rispetto a quello degli italiani (10) / Foreign workers will have a higher work-related injury rate than the one of natives (1) or it is the same /lower than the one of natives
8) Il problema dell”over-qualification” riguarderà i lavoratori con origini straniere (1) o i lavoratori italiani (10) / The “over-qualification” problem will concern more foreign workers (1) or Italian workers (10)
9) I lavoratori stranieri saranno concentrati in determinati settori e professioni (1) o saranno omogeneamente distribuiti per settori e professioni (10) / Foreign workers will be concentrated in specific sectors and professions (1) or they will be homogeneously distributed among sectors and professions (10)

3. Trend demografici e dinamiche a livello aziendale nel 2030 / Demographic trends and dynamics at company level in 2030
1) I lavoratori senior svolgeranno un ruolo marginale (1) o centrale (10) nell”azienda / Senior workers will play a marginal (1) or central (10) role at company level
2) A livello aziendale, i giovani saranno subordinati ai senior (1) o saranno in un rapporto paritario rispetto ai senior (10) / At company level, young workers will be subordinate to senior workers (1) or they will be on an equal relationship (10)
3) A livello aziendale il “know-how” dei lavoratori senior verrà perso con la loro contemporanea uscita dal mercato del lavoro (1) o verrà trasferito ai lavoratori più giovani (10) / At company level the “know-how” of senior workers will be lost with their simultaneous exit from the labour market (1) or it will be transferred to younger workers
4) Il livello di soddisfazione dei lavoratori senior sul posto di lavoro sarà basso (1) o alto (10) / At company level, job satisfaction of senior workers will be low (1) or high (10)
5) La discriminazione in base all’età sarà una pratica molto diffusa (1) o poco diffusa (10) a livello aziendale / Age discrimination will be widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level
6) La discriminazione per motivi etno-culturali religiosi e linguistici sarà una pratica molto diffusa (1) o poco diffusa (10) a livello aziendale / Race discrimination will be widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level
7) Si registreranno alti (1) o bassi (10) tassi di assenteismo dei lavoratori senior sul posto di lavoro / Senior workers’ absenteeism rates will be high (1) or low (10) at company level
8) L’ergonomia dei luoghi di lavoro non sarà rispondente alle necessità e i bisogni dei lavoratori (1) o sarà rispondente alle necessità e i bisogni dei lavoratori (10) / Working place’s ergonomics won’t be respondent (1) or it will be respondent (10) to workers needs
9) I lavoratori senior saranno generalmente occupati full-time (1) o part-time (10) / Senior workers will be employed full-time (1) or part-time (10)

Questionnaire 1b (Q1) – ICTs changes: the evolution of work and labour relations

SCENARIO ATTUALE ITALIA (2013) /CURRENT SCENARIO ITALY (2013)

1. Luogo di lavoro / Working place
1) La percentuale di lavoratori che lavora in remoto è bassa (1) o alta (10) / The share of workers working in remote is small (1) or large (10)
2) Il telelavoro è poco diffuso (1) o molto diffuso (10) / Telework is barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)
3) Il telelavoro è apprezzato dalle aziende (10) o visto con diffidenza (1) / Telework is positively (10) ore negatively (1) perceived by companies
4) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consente al lavoratore di decidere dove lavorare (10) o non gli consente di fare questa scelta (1) / Technological innovation in communication devices allows workers to decide where to work (10) or it doesn’t give workers this choice (1)
5) Grazie ai nuovi mezzi di comunicazione e alle nuove tecnologie, ciascun luogo oggi può essere un luogo di lavoro (10) o il luogo di lavoro è quello tradizionalmente inteso (ufficio) (1) / Thanks to the new ICTs, each place can be a working place (10) or the working place is the traditional office (1)
6) L’ufficio è il luogo nel quale ci si reca quotidianamente per svolgere la propria attività lavorativa (1) o è il luogo di incontro/aggregazione (10) / The working place is the place where people go everyday to perform their job (1) or it is a meeting place (10)

2. Tempi di lavoro / Working times
1) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consente (10) o impedisce (1) una maggiore flessibilità negli orari di lavoro / Technological innovation in communication devices allows (10) or hinders (1) a greater flexibility in working times
2) Le nuove tecnologie consentono (10) o non consentono (1) al datore di lavoro di modulare i carichi di lavoro / New technologies allow (10) or don’t allow (1) employer to regulate workloads
3) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consente al lavoratore di decidere quando lavorare (10) o non gli consente di operare questa scelta (1) / Technological innovation in communication devices allows workers to decide when to work (10) or it doesn’t allow this choice (1)
4) Grazie alle nuove tecnologie i lavoratori svolgono la propria attività lavorativa in orari di lavoro convenzionali (1) o in orari non convenzionali (10) / Thanks to the new technologies, workers perform their working activity during conventional working times (1) or during unconventional working times (10)
5) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consente (1) o impedisce (10) la
conciliazione vita-lavoro dei lavoratori / Technological innovation in the communication devices allows (1) or hinders (10) work-life balance of employees

3. Modalità di svolgimento del lavoro / How to perform your job
1) I nuovi mezzi di comunicazione consentono di distinguere tra vita privata e vita lavorativa (1) o annullano i confini tra questi due ambiti (10) / New ICTs allow the distinction between private and working life (1) or they blur the boundaries between the two spheres
2) Le nuove tecnologie creano relazioni di lavoro poco collaborative (1) o molto collaborative (10) / New technologies create low (1) or high collaborative (10) working relations
3) Le nuove tecnologie favoriscono una forte volontà di condividere le informazioni (10) o di lasciarle a conoscenza di pochi (1) / New technologies favour the sharing of information (10) or leave them to the knowledge of few people
4) Le “learning organizations” sono poco diffuse (1) o molto diffuse (10) / Learning organization are barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)
5) La promozione di una “learning organization” dipende dalla tecnologia disponibile (1) o dalla cultura aziendale (10) / The promotion of “learning organizations” depends on the available technology (1) or on the corporate culture (10)
6) L’utilizzo dei social network per motivi di lavoro è poco diffuso (1) o molto diffuso (10) / The use of social networks for job reasons is barely encountered (1) or it is widespread (10)
7) La capacità di fare network a livello virtuale è poco rilevante (1) o molto rilevante (10) per il successo di un’organizzazione / The ability of create virtual networks is irrelevant (1) or extremely important (10) for a business success
8) Le relazioni tra colleghi e tra colleghi e superiori sono face-to-face (1) o virtuali (10) / Relationships among colleagues and between employers and employees are face-to-face (1) or virtual (10)
9) L’utilizzo dei nuovi strumenti informatici all’interno di un’organizzazione, fa in modo che il potere decisionale sia centralizzato (1) o decentrato (10) / The use of the new ICTs within an organization allow the centralization (1) or decentralization (10) of the decisional power
10) Gli smartphone sono uno strumento di comunicazione (1) o uno strumento di lavoro (10) / Smartphone is a communication device (1) or a working tool (10)
11) In virtù della presenza dei nuovi mezzi tecnologici e informatici, il lavoro viene valutato sulla base tempo impiegato (1) o sul risultato raggiunto (10) / Thanks to the new ICTs, work is evaluated according to the time spent (1) or to the results achieved (10)

SCENARIO PREVISTO PER IL FUTURO - ITALIA (2030) / PROJECTED FUTURE - ITALY (2030)

1. Luogo di lavoro nel 2030 / Working place in 2030
1) La percentuale di lavoratori che lavora in remoto sarà più bassa (1) o più alta (10) rispetto a quella attuale / The share of workers working in remote will be smaller (1) or larger (10) than today
2) Il telelavoro sarà poco diffuso (1) o molto diffuso (10) / Telework will be barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)
3) Il telelavoro sarà apprezzato dalle aziende (10) o visto con diffidenza (1) / Telework will be positively (10) or negatively (1) perceived by companies
4) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consentirà al lavoratore di decidere dove lavorare (10) o non gli consentirà di fare questa scelta (1) / Technological innovation in communication devices will allow workers to decide where to work (10) or it won’t give workers this choice (1)
5) Grazie ai nuovi mezzi di telecomunicazione, ciascun luogo potrà essere un luogo di lavoro (10) o il luogo di lavoro sarà quello tradizionalmente inteso (ufficio) (1) / Thanks to the new ICTs, each place will be a working place (10) or the working place will remain the traditional office (1)
6) L’ufficio sarà il luogo nel quale ci si recherà quotidianamente per svolgere la propria
attività lavorativa (1) o il luogo di incontro/aggregazione (10) / The working place will be the place where people go everyday to perform their job (1) or it will be a meeting place (10)

2. Tempi di lavoro nel 2030 / Working times in 2030
   1) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consentirà (10) o impedirà (1) una maggiore flessibilità negli orari di lavoro / Technological innovation in communication devices will allow (10) or hinder (1) a greater flexibility in working times
   2) Le nuove tecnologie consentiranno (10) o non consentiranno (1) al datore di lavoro di modulare I carichi di lavoro / New technologies will allow (10) or won’t allow (1) employer to regulate workloads
   3) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consentirà al lavoratore di decidere quando lavorare (10) o non gli consentirà di fare questa scelta (1) / Technological innovation in communication devices will allow workers to decide when to work (10) or it won’t allow this choice (1)
   4) Grazie alle nuove tecnologie i lavoratori svolgeranno la propria attività lavorativa in orari di lavoro convenzionali (1) o in orari non convenzionali (10) / Thanks to the new technologies, workers will perform their working activity during conventional working times (1) or during unconventional working times (10)
   5) L’innovazione tecnologica nei mezzi di comunicazione consentirà (1) o impedirà (10) la work-life balance of employees

3. Modalità di svolgimento del lavoro nel 2030 / How to perform your job in 2030
   1) I nuovi mezzi di comunicazione consentiranno di distinguere tra vita privata e vita lavorativa (1) o annulleranno i confini tra questi due ambiti (10) / New ICTs will allow the distinction between private and working life (1) or they will blur the boundaries between the two spheres
   2) Le nuove tecnologie creeranno relazioni di lavoro poco collaborative (1) o molto collaborative (10) / New technologies will create low (1) or high collaborative (10) working relations
   3) Le nuove tecnologie favoriranno una forte volontà di condividere le informazioni (10) o di lasciarle a conoscenza di pochi (1) / New technologies will favour the sharing of information (10) or will leave it to the knowledge of few people
   4) Le “learning organizations” saranno poco diffuse (1) o molto diffuse (10) / Learning organizations will be barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)
   5) La promozione di una “learning organization” dipenderà dalla tecnologia disponibile (1) o dalla cultura aziendale (10) / The promotion of “learning organizations” will depend on the available technology (1) or on the corporate culture (10)
   6) L’utilizzo dei social network per motivi di lavoro sarà poco diffuso (1) o molto diffuso (10) / The use of social networks for job reasons will be barely encountered (1) or it will be widespread (10)
   7) La capacità di fare network a livello virtuale sarà poco rilevante (1) o molto rilevante (10) per il successo di un’organizzazione / The ability of create virtual networks will be irrelevant (1) or extremely important (10) for a business success
   8) Le relazioni tra colleghi e tra colleghi e superiori saranno face-to-face (1) o virtuali (10) / Relationships among colleagues and between employers and employees will be face-to-face (1) or virtual (10)
   9) L’utilizzo dei nuovi strumenti informatici all’interno di un’organizzazione, farà in modo che il potere decisionale sia centralizzato (1) o decentrato (10) / The use of the new ICTs within an organization will allow the centralization (1) or decentralization (10) of the decisional power
   10) Gli smartphone saranno uno strumento di comunicazione (1) o uno strumento di lavoro (10) / Smartphone will be a communication device (1) or a working tool (10)
   11) In virtù della presenza dei nuovi mezzi tecnologici e informatici, il lavoro verrà valutato sulla base tempo impiegato (1) o sul risultato raggiunto (10) / Thanks to the new ICTs, work will be evaluated according to the time spent (1) or to the results achieved (10)
Results of Questionnaire 1a (Q1)

CURRENT SCENARIO – ITALY (2013)

1. Demographic Trends

1) Fertility rates are declining (1) or increasing (10)

2) Fertility rates of foreign women are higher (1) or lower (10) than the ones of native women

3) In the workforce we generally include people under 65 (1) or people over 65 (10)
4) In the working age population there are less (1) or more women (10) than men.

5) In the total population there are less (1) or more young people (under 24) (10) than senior (over 65).

6) The workforce voluntarily stops working at the age of 67 (1) or continues to work after the age of 67 (10).
7) Migration flows from non-EU countries are increasing (1) or declining (10)

8) Migration flows from EU countries are increasing (1) or declining (10)

9) The current workforce is more homogeneous (1) or heterogeneous (10) than 20 years ago
2. *Demographic trends and labour market dynamics*

1) The ageing of the workforce decreases (1) or increases (10) the employment rates of the workforce

2) A smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce is linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (1) or a smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce is not necessarily linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (10)

3) In looking for a new job, young people are generally in favour (1) or at a disadvantage (10) than senior workers
4) Training programmes, skills updating activities, counselling and orientation services are barely available (1) or widespread (10)

5) When having equal task, the remuneration of foreign workers is generally lower (1) or higher (10) than the one of natives

6) Foreign workers usually carry out their working activity in unconventional places and times (1) or in conventional places and times (10)
7) Foreign workers have a higher work-related injury rate than the one of natives (1) or it is the same/lower than the one of natives (10)

8) The “over-qualification” problem concerns more foreign workers (1) or Italian workers (10)

9) Foreign workers are concentrated in specific sectors and professions (1) or they are homogeneously distributed among sectors and professions (10)
3. *Demographic trends and dynamics at company level*

1) Senior workers play a marginal (1) or central (10) role at company level

2) At company level, young workers are subordinate to senior workers (1) or they are on an equal relationship (10)

3) At company level the “know-how” of senior workers is lost with their simultaneous exit from the labour market (1) or it is transferred to younger workers (10)
4) At company level, job satisfaction of senior workers is low (1) or high (10)

5) Age discrimination is widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level

6) Race discrimination is widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level
7) Senior workers’ absenteeism rates are high (1) or low (10) at company level

8) Working place’s ergonomics is not respondent (1) or respondent (10) to workers needs

9) Senior workers are generally employed full-time (1) or part-time (10)
1. Demographic Trends in 2030

1) Fertility rates will be lower (1) or higher (10) than today

2) Fertility rates of foreign women will be higher (1) or lower (10) that the ones of native women

3) In the workforce we will generally include people under 65 (1) or people over 65 (10)
4) In the working age population there will be less (1) or more women (10) than men.

5) In the total population there will be less (1) or more young people (under 24) (10) than senior (over 65).

6) The workforce will voluntarily stop working at the age of 67 (1) or it will continue to work after the age of 67 (10).
7) Migration flows from non-EU countries will increase (1) or decline (10)

8) Migration flows from EU countries will increase (1) or decline (10)

9) The workforce will be more homogeneous (1) or heterogeneous (10) than today
2. Demographic trends and labour market dynamics in 2030

1) The ageing of the workforce will decrease (1) or increase (10) the employment rates of the workforce

2) A smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce will be linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (1) or a smaller share of a young but highly trained workforce will not necessarily be linked to a lower level of “high-skilled employment” (10)

3) In looking for a new job, young people will be generally in favour (1) or at a disadvantage (10) than senior workers
4) Training programmes, skills updating activities, counselling and orientation services will be barely available (1) or widespread (10)

5) When having equal task, the remuneration of foreign workers will be generally lower (1) or higher (10) than the one of natives

6) Foreign workers will carry out their working activity in unconventional places and times (1) or in conventional places and times (10)
7) Foreign workers will have a higher work-related injury rate than the one of natives (1) or it is the same /lower than the one of natives (10)

8) The “over-qualification” problem will concern more foreign workers (1) or Italian workers (10)

9) Foreign workers will be concentrated in specific sectors and professions (1) or they will be homogeneously distributed among sectors and professions (10)
3. Demographic trends and dynamics at company level in 2030

1) Senior workers will play a marginal (1) or central (10) role at company level

2) At company level, young workers will be subordinate to senior workers (1) or they will be on an equal relationship (10)

3) At company level the “know-how” of senior workers will be lost with their simultaneous exit from the labour market (1) or it will be transferred to younger workers (10)
4) At company level, job satisfaction of senior workers will be low (1) or high (10)

5) Age discrimination will be widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level

6) Race discrimination will be widespread (1) or barely encountered (10) at company level
7) Senior workers’ absenteeism rates will be high (1) or low (10) at company level

8) Working place’s ergonomics won’t be respondent (1) or it will be respondent (10) to workers needs

9) Senior workers will be employed full-time (1) or part-time (10)
Results of Questionnaire 1b (Q1)

CURRENT SCENARIO ITALY (2013)

I. Working place
1) The share of workers working in remote is small (1) or large (10)

2) Telework is barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)

3) Telework is positively (10) or negatively (1) perceived by companies
4) Technological innovation in communication devices allows workers to decide where to work (10) or it doesn’t give workers this choice (1)

5) Thanks to the new ICTs, each place can be a working place (10) or the working place is the traditional office (1) / Thanks to the new ICTs, each place can be a working place (10) or the working place is the traditional office (1)

6) The working place is the place where people go everyday to perform their job (1) or it is a meeting place (10)
2. *Working times*

1) Technological innovation in communication devices allows (10) or hinders (1) a greater flexibility in working times

2) New technologies allow (10) or don’t allow (1) employer to regulate workloads

3) Technological innovation in communication devices allows workers to decide when to work (10) or it doesn’t allow this choice (1)
4) Thanks to the new technologies, workers perform their working activity during conventional working times (1) or during unconventional working times (10)

5) Technological innovation in the communication devices allows (1) or hinders (10) work-life balance of employees

3. How to perform your job
1) New ICTs allow the distinction between private and working life (1) or they blur the boundaries between the two spheres (10)
2) New technologies create low (1) or high collaborative (10) working relations

3) New technologies favour the sharing of information (10) or leave them to the knowledge of few people (1)

4) Learning organization are barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)
5) The promotion of “learning organizations” depends on the available technology (1) or on the corporate culture (10)

6) The use of social networks for job reasons is barely encountered (1) or it is widespread (10)

7) The ability of create virtual networks is irrelevant (1) or extremely important (10) for a business success
8) Relationships among colleagues and between employers and employees are face-to-face (1) or virtual (10)

9) The use of the new ICTs within an organization allow the centralization (1) or decentralization (10) of the decisional power

10) Smartphone is a communication device (1) or a working tool (10)
11) Thanks to the new ICTs, work is evaluated according to the time spent (1) or to the results achieved (10)

![Bar chart showing distribution of responses]

PROJECTED FUTURE SCENARIO – ITALY (2030)

1. Working place in 2030

1) The share of workers working in remote will be smaller (1) or larger (10) than today

![Bar chart showing distribution of responses]

2) Telework will be barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)

![Bar chart showing distribution of responses]
3) Telework will be positively (10) or negatively (1) perceived by companies

4) Technological innovation in communication devices will allow workers to decide where to work (10) or it won’t give workers this choice (1)

5) Thanks to the new ICTs, each place will be a working place (10) or the working place will remain the traditional office (1)
6) The working place will be the place where people go everyday to perform their job (1) or it will be a meeting place (10)

2. Working times in 2030
1) Technological innovation in communication devices will allow (10) or hinder (1) a greater flexibility in working times

2) New technologies will allow (10) or won’t allow (1) employer to regulate workloads
3) Technological innovation in communication devices will allow workers to decide when to work (10) or it won't allow this choice (1)

4) Thanks to the new technologies, workers will perform their working activity during conventional working times (1) or during unconventional working times (10)

5) Technological innovation in the communication devices will allow (1) or hinder (10) work-life balance of employees
3. How to perform your job in 2030

1) New ICTs will allow the distinction between private and working life (1) or they will blur the boundaries between the two spheres (10)

2) New technologies will create low (1) or high collaborative (10) working relations

3) New technologies will favour the sharing of information (10) or will leave it to the knowledge of few people (1)
4) Learning organizations will be barely encountered (1) or widespread (10)

5) The promotion of “learning organizations” will depend on the available technology (1) or on the corporate culture (10)

6) The use of social networks for job reasons will be barely encountered (1) or it will be widespread (10)
7) The ability of create virtual networks will be irrelevant (1) or extremely important (10) for a business success

8) Relationships among colleagues and between employers and employees will be face-to-face (1) or virtual (10)

9) The use of the new ICTs within an organization will allow the centralization (1) or decentralization (10) of the decisional power
10) Smartphone will be a communication device (1) or a working tool (10)

11) Thanks to the new ICTs, work will be evaluated according to the time spent (1) or to the results achieved (10)
Questionnaire 2 (Q2)

Results Questionnaire 2a (Q2)

PROJECTED SCENARIO FOR THE FUTURE - ITALY (2030)

1. Demographic trends

1) In 2030, fertility rates will be like the present. Do you agree with this statement?

2) In 2030, the fertility rates of foreign women will be slightly higher than those of the Italian women. Do you agree with this statement?

3) In 2030, in what is commonly understood as “workforce”, people over 65 will be included to a greater extent. Do you agree with this statement?

4) In 2030, the working age population (25-64 years old) will count a slightly higher number of women than that of men. Do you agree with this statement?
5) In 2030, the total population will number few young people (under 24) than seniors (over 50). Do you agree with this statement?

6) In 2030, the workforce will eventually work voluntarily after 67 years. Do you agree with this statement?

7) In 2030, migration flows from countries outside the EU will be similar to those of today. Do you agree with this statement?

8) In 2030, migration flows from EU countries will be similar to those of today. Do you agree with this statement?

9) In 2030, the workforce will be significantly much more heterogeneous in terms of ethnicities, cultures and languages respect to the current situation. Do you agree with this statement?
2. Demographic trends and the dynamics of the labour market

1) In 2030, an aging population will raise slightly the employment rates of the workforce. Do you agree with this statement?

2) In 2030 the reduced availability of a young workforce will not result in a lower level of “high-skilled employment”. Do you agree with this statement?

3) In 2030, in search of new employment, young people will be neither advantaged nor disadvantaged with respect to the senior. Do you agree with this statement?

4) In 2030, training programs, skills upgrading initiatives, counselling and guidance services for older workers will be quite popular. Do you agree with this statement?

5) In 2030, remuneration of foreign workers will be on average equal to that of the Italians (when having the same duties). Do you agree with this statement?
6) In 2030, time and place of the work performed by foreign workers will be irrelevant. Do you agree with this statement?

7) In 2030, foreign workers will have an injury rate equal to that of the Italians. Do you agree with this statement?

8) In 2030, the over-qualification problem will concern to a greater extent workers with foreign origins than Italian workers. Do you agree with this statement?

9) In 2030, foreign workers will be a bit more homogeneously distributed among sectors and occupations. Do you agree with this statement?

3. Demographic trends and dynamics at the corporate level

1) In 2030, older workers will play a central role in company slightly more than they use to play today. Do you agree with this statement?
2) In 2030, at the corporate level, young people will be in an equal relationship with the senior in somewhat more than the current situation. Do you agree with this statement?

3) In 2030, at the corporate level, the “know-how” of older workers will be transferred to younger workers on a greater extent than it is today. Do you agree with this statement?

4) In 2030, the level of satisfaction of older workers in the workplace will be slightly higher than at present. Do you agree with this statement?

5) In 2030, age discrimination will continue to be a widespread practice at the enterprise level. Do you agree with this statement?

6) In 2030, discrimination on grounds of ethnicity, culture and religion will continue to be a common practice at the enterprise level. Do you agree with this statement?
7) In 2030, absenteeism rates of older workers in the workplace will be slightly lower than the current ones. Do you agree with this statement?

8) In 2030, the ergonomics of the workplace will be slightly more suitable for the needs of workers. Do you agree with this statement?

9) In 2030, older workers will be employed, in equal measure, either part-time or full-time. Do you agree with this statement?
Results Questionnaire 2a (Q2)

PROJECTED SCENARIO FOR THE FUTURE - ITALY (2030)

Based on the results received from the Q1 previously sent, the Author asked each panellist to respond to the second and final questionnaire (Q2) designed to confirm (or not) the future scenario, which arose from Q1.

1. Working place in 2030

1) In 2030, the percentage of workers who work remotely will be much higher than at present. Do you agree with this statement?

2) In 2030, telework will be more widespread than the current situation. Do you agree with this statement?

3) In 2030, telecommuting will not be neither appreciated nor seen with suspicion by the companies. Do you agree with this statement?

4) In 2030, technological innovation in the ICTs will allow the employee to decide where to work in a slightly greater extent than it does today. Do you agree with this statement?
5) In 2030, thanks to new means of telecommunication, each location could be a place of work. Do you agree with this statement?

[Graph showing 4 yes and 0 no responses]

6) In 2030, the office will be primarily a meeting place or a place of aggregation. Do you agree with this statement?

[Graph showing 4 yes and 0 no responses]

2. Working time in 2030

1) In 2030, technological innovation will certainly enable greater flexibility in working hours. Do you agree with this statement?

[Graph showing 4 yes and 0 no responses]

2) In 2030, the new technologies will allow the employer to vary the workloads to a greater extent. Do you agree with this statement?

[Graph showing 4 yes and 0 no responses]

3) In 2030, technological innovation in the ICTs will allow the employee to decide when to work. Do you agree with this statement?

[Graph showing 3 yes, 1 no responses]
4) In 2030, thanks to new technologies, workers will take their work primarily in non-conventional working hours. Do you agree with this statement?

5) In 2030, technological innovation in the ICTs will not be a decisive factor to promote work-life balance. Do you agree with this statement?

3. How to perform work in 2030.

1) In 2030, the new ICTs will gradually cancel the boundaries between private life and working life. Do you agree with this statement?

2) In 2030, the new technologies will have created very collaborative working relationships. Do you agree with this statement?

3) In 2030, the new technologies will have fostered a significant sharing of information. Do you agree with this statement?
4) In 2030, the “learning organizations” will be widespread. Do you agree with this statement?

5) In 2030, the promotion of a “learning organization” will depend mainly on the corporate culture rather than on the available technology. Do you agree with this statement?

6) In 2030, the use of social networks for business purposes will be widespread. Do you agree with this statement?

7) In 2030, the ability to make virtual network will be clearly relevant to an organization’s success. Do you agree with this statement?

8) In 2030, relations between colleagues and superiors will mainly be of virtual nature. Do you agree with this statement?
9) In 2030, the use of new ICT tools within an organization will ensure that the decision-making power is decentralized. Do you agree with this statement?

10) In 2030, the smartphone will be a communication tool rather than a working tool. Do you agree with this statement?

11) In 2030, by virtue of the presence of new media technology and information, the job will be evaluated primarily on the basis of its achievements. Do you agree with this statement?
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168

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Chapter 3

How companies can thrive in the new world of work


It is fundamental to have a bridge between today and tomorrow, a «strategic architecture» that indicates what needs to be developed in order to gain from the opportunities the future will reserve.

(Author and Hamel and Prahalad, 1999)

Today’s business environment is much more complex, interdependent, unpredictable and unstable than it was a decade ago. The two previous chapters outlined the main drivers of change that are currently re-shaping our scenario and the main features it is likely to have in the coming decades.

This third chapter tries to find an answer to the second research question underpinning the current research project: “To what extend Italian companies are preparing themselves for the future scenario?”

By undertaking a qualitative research method (see Box 1. Method) (16), the chapter starts from the existing theories already formulated in the field of change management and diversity management, which represent the theoretical framework (§ 3.1.). Then, it presents the main findings resulting from the semi-structured questionnaires I elaborated and submitted to a group of Italian companies operating in different sectors (17) in order to assess to what extent they are preparing themselves to react to these changes in order to remain competitive in the future (18) (§ 3.2.).

16 Qualitative research is a type of scientific research that: seeks answers to a question; systematically uses a predefined set of procedures to answer the questions; collects evidence; produces findings that were not determined in advance; produces findings that are applicable beyond the immediate boundaries of the study.

17 Mention should be made of the difficulties in gathering information from companies: managers might not be available for interviews/questionnaires, for privacy reasons, others for company reasons. Therefore, the number of companies’ cases presented here is limited compared to the number of companies contacted for this research project. In this sense, I would like to thank those who answered to this questionnaire, which contributed to assessing to what extent Italian companies recognize and manage diversity and change at workplace level. However, I would like to stress that further investigation is necessary in order to have a wider and complete framework of the Italian context.

18 More precisely, the questionnaire has been structured in order to: (i) Investigate whether companies recognize the existence of the drivers of change; (ii) Assess whether companies are undertaking some action in order to prepare themselves for the future workforce, working environment, and scenario; (iii)
With the main findings resulting from the questionnaires, I tried to draft some guidelines, that might also work in the future, in order to better support companies in the shift from the old to the new world of work (§ 3.3.). Indeed, despite being aware of the current on-going changes, most of Italian companies are not fully and promptly tackling changes and preparing themselves for the future scenario. The present Chapter therefore would like to help companies to get prepared to the future of work and workplace relations.

**Box 1. Method**

The general purpose of this chapter is to examine to what extent Italian companies operating in different sectors recognize and manage change and diversity at workplace level. Given the scarcity of studies and of available data in the field, this research might help fill the current gap existing in the literature, and above all it can be useful in a future perspective.

In the light of the above, a qualitative method has been adopted to investigate complex and delicate issues taking place at work, such as change diversity management at workplace level. The work on this paper started from a review and re-organization of the main theories existing on change diversity management and multicultural organizations. On the basis of this theoretical framework, a questionnaire was submitted to several companies operating in different sectors which aimed at:

- Better investigate how diversity is mainly conceived at company level in a sector characterized by a significant presence of foreign and older workers;
- Assess whether the company undertook some changes (in terms of work organization, training, health and safety, business) as a consequence of a more diverse workforce and more evident drivers of change;
- Obtain information on practices that companies might have introduced to manage diversity and change at company level;
- Assess how widespread diversity initiatives/programmes/policies are in the sector and what types of good practices can be identified.

The questionnaire was divided in 7 sections according to the macro-areas identified for the investigation: general data on the company (1), how demographic change has affected the company’s work organization (2), training (3), health and safety (4), business (5), and how the company reacted in terms of diversity management (6) and how the company is managing and preventing the implications deriving from the other main drivers of change described in Chapter 1 (7) (see Appendix I). The questionnaire contributed to getting a better picture in terms of companies’ policies and practices adopted in the field of diversity, inclusion, and change management.

### 3.1. Change and diversity management

#### 3.1.1. Change management

The understanding of the main implications deriving from the key drivers of change (Chapter 1) and the prediction on how the future company and workplace relations are
going to look like in the coming decades (Chapter 2) highlight the importance of having adequate change management practices at workplace levels. There are two main reasons for this. First of all, today change itself is not just inevitable but it is accelerating – in particular, three main features of change are accelerating: “volume, momentum and complexity” (Conner, 1992). To survive and develop, leaders not only need new skills for coping with change but must also create an environment that is open and adaptive to change (Moran et al., 2007). Secondly, as the past literature and evidence showed, effective change management practices are needed in order to mainly: avoid negative business memory about change and how change is managed and possible acceleration of crisis’ onset; improve ability to undertake any change initiative in the future; maintain high performance and commitment levels (Trompenaars and Prud’Homme Van Reine, 2004). Therefore, coping, planning and implementing change seems like to remain one of the main issues facing companies, which in turn requires companies to be successful in assimilating transitions.

In the early 1990s, D.R. Conner identified eight main patterns that can be used by companies to successfully manage and implement organizational change. These patterns are somehow still valid today and therefore they are used here as the main theoretical framework of reference (19). They can better help to determine what needs to be done differently and how (Conner, 1992):

1. The nature of change
2. The process of change
3. The roles played during change
4. Resistance to change
5. Commitment to change
6. The link between corporate culture and change
7. Synergism
8. Resilience

According to Conner, resilience (pattern n.8) is the pivotal clue that allows change. It is the central pattern without which change is not possible. The remaining seven patterns have just a support function. However, reflecting on the nature and the force of the current drivers of change (as described in Chapter 1), I would consider as pivotal patterns the last four patterns namely: commitment, corporate culture, synergism and resilience. While the other four are supporting patterns and can be considered as the four pillars supporting the core elements for a successful change process. Figure 1 represents my new reformulation compared to the one elaborated by Conner.

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19 Conner’s patterns are here enriched with additional theories and models formulated before and after his book in order to create a framework that could be as much complete as possible for this research project.
Support pattern n.1. The nature of change
As reported by Haberberg and Rieple, there are different magnitudes of change an organization might undergo: (i) fine tuning the workings of the existing strategy and business model (ii) incremental adjustments to reflect changes in the environment (iii) modular transformation at the level of business unit (iv) corporate transformation. Small-scale transformations are more frequent; few organizations regularly undergo modular or corporate transformation. However, given the interdependence of factors, small changes in one area often involve change in another (Habergberg and Rieple, 2008) and can have greater effects. Thus, every change, being minor or major, has its implications that need to be properly communicated in order to avoid negative perceptions and resistance. In fact, even minor changes are often perceived as major because of the lack of information about them, which in turn risks to generate a general feeling of a loss of control, further alimented by the possible mismatch between reality and expectations about change. In this sense, the diagnosis of the current situation may represent an important tool to make change desirable and feasible. As stated by Carnall, «diagnosis is partly a matter of analysis and partly a matter of understanding the human dimension of the organization» (Carnall, 2003). It can assess the points of effectiveness and the sources of ineffectiveness. Identifying sources of ineffectiveness is important to recognize what is not working any more. It gives more reasons for shifting towards a better situation that can be achieved through change. Similarly, the identification of sources of effectiveness is essential for knowing what elements can support and enhance change.

Support pattern n.2. The process of change
The process of change outlines the mechanisms of human transitions. Here it is possible to present at least three models developed during the last century. The first model is the one developed by Kurt Lewin according to which change passes through three main phases: (i) the present state (unfreezing); (ii) the transition state (the
move); (iii) the desired state (freezing) (Lewin, 1958). The first state is the status quo, an established equilibrium that, however, requires abandoning old messages and behaviours. People start to be open to new point of views and to adopt new behaviours in order to create a new equilibrium, which often represents the desired state. This transition phase is characterized by a shift from something that was certain to something uncertain but desirable. The last phase is aimed to give stability to what was uncertain at the very beginning: this status represents the new status quo. According to Cornell, two prerequisites are essential for a successful transition: pain and remedy. The first one is the general feeling perceived by a critical mass, which in turn justifies breaking down from the status quo. Remedy is the set of available solutions that help to transit towards the new situation.

The second model is the change equation, which generally starts from the following question: “Should I attempt to make a change?” (Carnall, 2003). The equation is often expressed as:

\[ C = (A+B+D) > X \]

Where C is the nature of the change to be undertaken. A is the level of dissatisfaction with the status quo. B is the desirability of the proposed change. D is the practicality and risk of disruption of the change. X is the cost of changing (Bowman and Jarrett, 1996). According to this equation, the change is likely to be undertaken if the sum between A+B+D is higher than the perceived and real cost of making change. This means that the level of dissatisfaction with the present situation should go together with high levels of shared aims and knowledge of what will be next.

The third framework is represented by the force field analysis based on a field theory, which suggests that points of equilibrium will be maintained if the status quo remains the same. To reach a new point of equilibrium requires the search for new points of equilibrium. Here the principle is borrowed from physics: where there is an action there would be an opposite and equal reaction. This suggests that there is a need to identify all of the forces that are operating in favour of and against the change. To reach the new equilibrium it is thus necessary to reduce, as much as possible, all the forces that resist to change, and promote those that, on the contrary, support and enhance change (Bowman and Jarrett, 1996).

Support pattern n.3. The roles played during change

According to Conner, there are four different roles critical to the change process: sponsors (also known as leaders), agents, targets and advocates (Conner, 1992). In my opinion, only three of them are significant for change’s success. Sponsors/leaders are those that have the power to sanction change and, among all the four groups, they are the most important for the change’s success. Several authors sustain that major and successful change will not occur unless those on the leadership positions – which do not always correspond to top management positions – demonstrate the sufficient commitment and belief in the change the organization is undertaking (among the others: Conner, 1992; Finkelstein, 2004). In addition to demonstrate public support and
commitment to change, leaders should be able to identify the scope of the change—namely the groups that will be involved (target)—and therefore meet privately the individuals/groups that are key to implement and or support change (agents). Haberberg and Rieple also highlight this point. According to them, the leaders’ chances of success depend on having a clear idea of the obstacles they are likely to encounter. This means understanding: the magnitude and difficulty of the change that they are trying to achieve; the strength, within the organization, of the main forces that might move it towards the desired strategic change; the extend to which different stakeholders groups are likely to favour or oppose the desired change, and the extent to which their support or opposition will matter (Haberberg and Rieple, 2008).

Support pattern n.4. Resistance to change
Resistance accompanies any major change: it is the natural reaction to anything causing a transformation of the status quo. The level of resistance is often dictated by the lack of information about change, its costs and perceived benefits. According to Greiner’s model (1967) the process of change is mainly the results of the interaction between two forces: on the one side, those forces that stimulate change, and on the other side, those forces that oppose the change (Ravagnani, 2000). Conner, starting from the Kübler-Ross’s model (20), identified eight distinctive stages through which people usually react to change and shift from a passive to an active approach. These stages are: (i) Stability; (ii) Immobilization; (iii) Denial; (iv) Anger; (v) Bargaining; (vi) Depression; (vi) Testing; (viii) Acceptance (Conner, 1992). Carnall took inspiration from these steps and proposed a model for implementation of change, which incorporates some “resistance” steps. According to his model, there are five stages - (i) Denial; (ii) Defence; (iii) Discarding; (iv) Adaptation; (v) Internalization. These steps are also mentioned by the literature as phases composing the so-called “transition curve”, which is constituted by the following phases: “psychic crisis” characterized by shock, confusion and denial; “emotional reaction” expressing anger, feelings of failure and depression; “adaptation”, visible in the appraisal if the new situation; “re-orientation”, when a new plan for the future is undertaken (Bowman and Jarrett, 1996). Nadler and Tushman (1989) argued that the process of change follow this set of steps: (i) knowledge: people become acquainted with the need and magnitude of change; (ii) tests: the actors try to understand more the innovation process through some tests; (iii) commitment: the top management commits itself in the direction of the change that will be promoted; (iv) implementation of new schemes in real situations; (v) integrating innovation in ordinary and daily behaviours. Thus, the vast majority of “change management” approaches proposed follow the three out of the four phases identified by Bullock and Batten:

20 The Kübler-Ross model is a hypothesis introduced by Elisabeth Kübler-Ross. It is generally referred to as the “five stages of grief” because it states that when a person is faced with the reality of impending death, that person will experience a series of emotional stages: denial, anger, bargaining, depression and acceptance (see Kübler-Ross, E. 1969. On Death and Dying. Routledge).
1) Explorative phase: there is a widespread awareness about the need for a change; research for external assistance;
2) Programmative phase: data collection, objectives’ definition and planning of actions;
3) Action phase: implementation of change, monitoring of results and corrective actions;
4) Integration phase: interventions aimed to reinforce change, dissemination of the positive aspects deriving from change; investments in training (Ravagnani, 2000).

Following these main models and theories, it is possible to outline the following path to overcome resistance (see Figure 2):
(i) Stability: it is the phase that precedes the announcement of the change. 
(ii) Shock: when the change is announced.
(iii) Denial and defence: it is the stage when the new information and ideas are rejected. Their potential aspects are minimized and the defensive behaviour concerning the old status quo is predominant. However, this gives time and space for considering change.
(iv) Bargaining: in order to avoid the negative impact and overcome the previous negative perceptions and feelings, people begin to negotiate for change;
(v) Testing: the exploration of alternative ways can be successful in preparing the ground for the new implementation;
(vi) Acceptance: people accept the change. When change is accepted then people start to rely on the new ideas and adapt to the new situation.
(vii) Adaptation: When change is accepted then people start to rely on the new ideas and adapt to the new situation.
(viii) Internalization: change is increasingly incorporated in the daily behaviours, systems and procedures. It becomes the new status quo.

Figure 2. The transition curve: from resistance to internalization of change

Source: Author’s elaboration

According to Bowman and Jarrett there are some strategies that can help the transition of change. These strategies include: information and communication, education and training, projects and new initiatives. Information and communication have the advantage of preventing and reducing resistance to change. Education and learning can provide skills to those involved in the process of change. Projects and initiatives can increase experience and make change manageable (Bowman and Jarrett, 1996). According to Carnall, effective transitions take place when people learn about change. The learning process starts in phase n. 4 “Bargaining”, namely when people explore positive and negative aspects, think and evaluate benefits and drawbacks, and it continues in the ensuing phases. Indeed, during the “testing” phase, people take the risk to try the new things and new ideas, while in the “acceptance – adaptation –
internalization” phases the learning process occurs because people value, undertake and incorporate new and alternative ideas.

**Pivotal pattern n.1. Commitment to change**
Commitment is the key element for succeeding in change and it is visible when the participants in a transition are «committed to attaining the goals of change and paying the price those goals entail» (Conner, 1992). In other words, when people not only invest their time, money and energy to reach the objectives but also reject and remove all the elements and factors that might hinder the desired goal. Commitment to change is the outcome of two stages that are entailed in the above-mentioned eight transition steps. These stages are “preparation” and “acceptance”. As shown in Figure 3, “preparation” is aimed at reducing any negative perception and increase understanding and awareness about change. “Acceptance” is mainly dominated by a positive perception, further reinforced by support for implementing change. Commitment to change is a long process and it does not come automatically. It requires support from people and investment in terms of time, resources and energy.

**Figure 3.** Successful change depends on preparation, adaptation and, above all, commitment

**Source:** Author’s elaboration

**Pivotal pattern n.2. The link between corporate culture and change**
Corporate culture, being set of beliefs, behaviours and assumptions shared by members of an organization over time, plays a key role for successful change management. As pointed out by the literature, corporate culture must be consistent with the main traits of change because it is the essential contributor to the implementation success. Therefore, when change is introduced, commitment is needed to support the new initiative but, together with it, organizational culture must be reshaped in view of the change’s goals. This requires an adaptable organizational culture. In other words, successful and effective change management requires an organizational culture that is, by nature, flexible and resilient to change because it is the core element that can makes change meaningful for the member of the organization and contribute to motivation and commitment. As highlighted by Trompenaars and Prud’homme van Reine, it is therefore necessary to know the existing culture and what you would like to reach.
through change before embarking on a transformation process, because it is the existing corporate culture itself that determines what kind of change will be accepted. For instance, in an organization where change is seen as something you do in a situation of emergency, people will perceive it negatively. Conversely, in an organization where change is seen as a way of life, any transformation can be easily handled (Trompeenars and Prud’homme van Reine, 2004).

Pivotal pattern n.3. Synergy
In addition to commitment and organizational culture, a third element necessary for change implementation and success is synergy (see Figure 1). This is the element that can aggregate the different groups involved and affected by the process of change – agents, sponsors, targets – and create the right climate enhancing the shift from the old status quo to the new one. Willingness and interaction are identified as the two prerequisite for synergy. Willingness stems from the understanding and sharing of common goals while interaction is the ability of communicating and organizing the steps required by the process of change.

Pivotal pattern n. 4. Resilience
Resilience is the element that can increase tolerance to future shocks and changes.

Thus, summarising, it is possible to affirm that any change has three main steps: conception of the need for a change, transition, and the institutionalization of new practices (Figure 4).

Figure 4. The three main steps of change

3.1.2. Diversity management

There are no doubts that in the future work, workforce, workplace relations and working environments will be more diverse than today. This is has been widely described in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2. Since the future companies’ success depends on their people,
diversity management practices will be increasingly important and necessary to better deal with a more diverse workforce resulting from the ongoing demographic changes. Therefore, diversity management practices, as a part of the broad change management, need to be properly considered, planned and implemented.

“Diversity” is indefinite: everyone is different from everyone else (Kirton in Davidson and Fielden, 2003). Thus, if we use diversity to mean a multiplicity of features characterizing single individuals, we run the risk of producing a definition so broad as to become meaningless (Heneman, Waldeck, & Cushnie, 1996) even if it has been acknowledged that it is through recognizing, responding and managing these differences that diversity can thrive and make a contribution to an organisation (Foot and Hook, 2011). Therefore, this research-project uses the concept of “diversity” as it is understood in its connection with company objectives and goals and with reference to age, ethnic, cultural and linguistic diversity (21). In this perspective, the following definition is adopted: “diversity is all the ways in which we differ and how those differences enable, enhance or inhibit the ability of individuals, groups and organizations to achieve individual, collective and/or organizational goals and objectives” (Wheeler in Davidson and Fielden, 2003).

As reported in the literature, the key to diversity does not lie so much in its existence but rather in how to manage it (De Anca and Vazquez, 2007), bringing to fore the notion of “Diversity Management.” Diversity management, as a human resources practice, exploded on to the U.S. scene in the 1970s, although, diversity was nothing new at the time (22). The turning point in diversity policies within companies took place in the 1970s, when new civil rights laws were enacted that made the penalties for gender or racial discrimination at work much tougher (23). At this time the traditional approach did not look at this as a way of managing diversity, but rather a way to correcting injustices from the past. These antidiscrimination policies were maintained in the 1980s. In the 1990s, companies in the U.S. and in Europe began to adopt an integrated approach, known as diversity and integration policies, which aimed not only to correct some specific social injustices, but also to profit from the potential benefits of diversity. These policies focused on enhancing integration, creating a situation in which all members of the organization could develop their full potential (among the others: De Anca and Vazquez, 2007; Thomas and Ely, 2001; Thomas and Ely, 1996). Thus,

21 When speaking about diversity management, most of the literature refers to the different ethnic, cultural, linguistic, national origins. The concept of age management is something new but, being age an element of diversity, it can be included in the wider diversity management conception.

22 As far back as 1911, Mostyn Bird, in the book Women at Work, described how cities have been transformed by women working in administration.

23 In 1964, the Civil Rights Act was adopted, which outlawed major reforms of discriminations against racial, ethnic, national and religious minorities and women. In particular, Title VII prohibits discrimination by covered employers – namely those who have 15 or more employees for each working day in each of twenty or more calendar weeks in the current or preceding calendar year – on the basis of race, colour, religion, sex or national origin. This Title also prohibits discrimination against an individual because of his or her association with another individual of particular race, colour, religion, sex, or national origin.
“diversity management” means “not simply a moral imperative, nor a way to avoid expensive discrimination lawsuits, but a means of enhancing individual and organizational performance” (Cox, 1993).

While this issue is already widely acknowledged in countries such as the U.S., it appears not to be fully taken into consideration in Italy. In Italy, most studies and research focus on working conditions of migrant and older workers but not on how the diversity they bring inside companies can be managed (among the others see: Riccò, 2008).

Drawing on the existing literature on diversity management practices, the following theoretical steps for successfully managing diversity at workplace level were identified:

1. Conceive “diversity” in connection with company objectives and goals: make it a business case (Robinson and Dechant, 1997);
2. Provide the necessary basis for the successful promotion of diversity: flexible environment and organizational culture promoting and valuing differences (De Anca and Vazquez, 2007);
3. Adopt the learning-and-effectiveness paradigm (Thomas and Ely, 1996);
4. On the basis of the assessment about how mature or developed the organization is in terms inclusive working environment (Montes and Shaw in Davidson and Fielden, 2003), successfully identify, implement and review diversity initiatives/programmes/policies (Fine, 1995; Cox, 1993).

Step 1: Diversity as a business case

Any discussion on diversity management at workplace level must begin with the recognition of diversity and its inclusion among business core values and objectives. According to Robinson and Dechant, one company might not be motivated to focus on diversity management programs because diversity is often not a top business priority (Dass and Parker, 1999; Robinson and Dechant, 1997). In the majority of the cases, a company might focus on such initiatives because it is compelled not by a genuine concern on diversity but rather as measure to avoid liability claims for possible discriminatory practices. This leads to the adoption of affirmative or equal opportunities actions which represent attempts to comply with legal directives, or redress past wrongs, but which do not really properly tackle the diversity issue (among the others: Riccucci in Davidson and Fielden, 2003; Fine, 1995) (24). On the contrary, at least three arguments can be mentioned for conceiving diversity as a business case and therefore pursuit diversity initiatives: cost savings; winning competition for talent; and driving business growth. Indeed, previous studies prove that diversity mismanagement is likely to lead, among others things, to higher turnover costs and absenteeism rates. On the other hand, valuing capabilities and investing in diversity enable companies to attract

24 The following drivers are among the major forces behind diversity initiatives: legal pressures, better recruitment and selection, corporate social responsibility goals, being seen as an employer of choice, it makes a business sense and it is morally right (Foot and Hook, 2011).
and retain more talented and diverse employees, as well as – thanks to internal diversity – leverage opportunities with increased marketplace, greater creativity, higher quality team problem-solving, improved leadership effectiveness and better global relations (Robinson and Dechant, 1997).

**Step 2: Flexible environment and organizational culture promoting and valuing differences are pre-conditions**

When organization consciously links diversity to its business goals and objectives, the successful promotion of diversity at organizational level needs, according to the literature, at least two preconditions: the existence of a flexible environment and the support from the organizational culture (De Anca and Vazquez, 2007).

Studies and research recognize that when employees are provided with a more flexible working environment, they can better achieve their full potential. This is because diversified measures in terms of work-life balance, career development programs, employee networks and reward systems can better responding to the variety of employees’ needs. Employees’ needs are different and therefore need a diversified treatment. On the basis of this assumption, a more diverse workforce requires a more flexible environment with reference to the above-mentioned measures. The adoption of a series of flexible tools requires, first of all, the assessment of employees’ needs – that can be carried out by gathering and mapping human resources data, and employees’ perceptions; secondly, the assessment of specific human resource policies, and finally, the assessment of supporting systems and structures.

The organizational culture, which can be defined as the pattern by which a company connects different values orientations in a way that they work together in a mutually enhancing way (Trompenaars and Prud’homme van Reine, 2004), is a second important pre-requisite for enabling the promotion of diversity at company level. The relevance of the organizational culture supporting and promoting diversity lies in the fact that, within and organization, the culture is the common and shared element that can value diversity over time: if employers are genuinely interested in developing successful programs, they will need to change the culture of their organizations so that diversity is not just supported but also valued. Managing diversity means managing cultural change, which is not just a simple one-shot program but also an initiative that must exist over time (Riccucci in Davidson and Fielden, 2003). To this aim, it can be helpful to recall the metaphor used by Karsten Jonsen who stated that managing diversity could be compared to creating laser light and white light. You align people with a laser, and then let diversity shine with the white light. Laser light represents the clear definition of what performance means in the company (here again, the fundamental link with company goals and objectives) over which the white light can bring and express new ideas and perspectives without destroying the laser light.

Therefore, a strong and shared organizational cultural promoting and valuing diversity and enabling employees to express themselves, together with a more flexible working
environment, represent a fundamental prerequisite for adopting and implementing diversity initiatives, programs or policies.

*Step 3: The integration paradigm*

When companies fail to connect diversity to work perspectives or if they treat diversity initiatives as any other business investment (step 1), rather than creating a more flexible environment and adopting a supportive organizational culture (step 2), they fail to grasp the actual meaning of diversity management in terms of day-to-day management of people and, therefore, face more difficulties in integrating workers and in benefiting from the differences they bring. Integration is the third step for successful diversity management practices: it is about transforming words in facts. The vast majority of companies may well recognize that discrimination is wrong (*non discrimination and fairness paradigm*) or accept and celebrate differences (*legitimacy paradigm*), but they tend not to go much beyond this. In other words, they do not fully apply the *learning-and-effectiveness paradigm*, which revolves around the general theme of integration.

This paradigm occurs when companies internalize differences between employees in order to learn from them. Eight conditions should be met:

1) The leadership must understand that a diverse workforce will embody different perspectives and approaches to work, and must truly value variety of opinion and insight;

2) The leadership must recognize both the learning opportunities and the challenges that the expression of different perspectives presents for an organization;

3) The organizational culture must create an expectation of high standards of performance from everyone;

4) The organizational culture must stimulate personal development;

5) The organizational culture must encourage openness;

6) The culture must make workers feel valued;

7) The organization must have a well-articulated and widely understood mission;

8) The organization must have a relatively egalitarian, non-bureaucratic structure.

When these eight preconditions are met, companies tend to grow more, since, drawing on their workforce’s differences, are better placed to rethink and redefine markets, products, strategies, missions, business, practices and cultures (Thomas and Ely, 1996).

*Step 4: Successfully identify, implement and review diversity initiatives/programmes/policies*

Montes and Shaw proposed a diversity assessment tool that can help organizations’ progress towards diversity implementation (Montes and Shaw in Davidson and Fielden, 2003). This tool provides an indication on how mature or developed an organization is in terms of inclusive working environment – on the basis of a number of “levels” (see Box 2) – and therefore which steps remain to undertake in order to internalize diversity as a core value.
Box 2. Five levels for diversity assessment (Montes and Shaw in Davidson and Fielden, 2003)

Level 0 “They think they are fine”: it is a situation where organization denies the existence of any discrimination case.

Level 1 “Compliance”: it is a situation where the organization has primarily a reactive approach. It is motivated to pursue equity in order to avoid negative consequences that may result from non-compliance with legislated guidelines or other standards.

Level 2 “Moving beyond compliance”: in this level the organization supports initiatives that go beyond securing adequate representation, but these are isolated efforts that typically support high visibility programmes. No plan is in place to integrate diversity.

Level 3 “The business case” (which recalls the theory of Robinson and Dechant, 1997): the organization appreciates that managing diversity can yield positive benefits. The motivation to pursue equity stems from potential business benefits.

Level 4 “Integrated diversity”: the organization has internalized diversity as an important value and has embraced diversity as an integral part of the organizational culture. This kind of organization continues to break down barriers that stand in the way of equity and are experiencing the financial and non-financial benefits of a diverse workforce.

Level 5 “Equitable organization systems”: where organizations foster diversity beyond their own boundaries. Their motivation to pursue equity stems from the principle that diversity is an organizational, community, national or even global imperative. These organizations have internalized diversity as a core value. Monitoring and continuous improvement are an on-going process, aimed at maintaining equitable employment systems through the identification and elimination of emerging barriers. These organizations have experienced both financial and non-financial benefits as a result of their complete commitment to diversity.

The organization can identify its level by means of the diversity assessment tool which, in addition to this, can also measure the degree to which equity is in place in the organizational processes (commitment, policy, planning and implementation of the strategy) and organizational activities (work environment, recruitment, career development, learning, accountability, communication etc.) (Montes and Shaw in Davidson and Fielden, 2003).

This tool enables companies to better identify which initiatives might be undertaken in order to make diversity a lever for company productivity and development. Diversity initiatives, programs or policies prove to be effective when they enhance individual capability and performance, which in turns, prove to be effective for organization capability and performance. Cox best explained how individual outcomes are positively correlated with organizational outcomes (Cox, 1993). The first group includes improved job and career satisfaction, which can be reached when the preconditions mentioned in the previous steps are met. The second group of outcomes (organizational capability and performance), as showed in the figure, includes two types of organizational outcomes: first level and second level outcomes. According to Cox’s model, the improvements in individual level outcomes, such as job satisfaction and promotion mobility, will in turn have a positive affect on employee motivation which will then filter through to the organizational level to produce improvements in first- and second-level outcomes (25).

25 The problem is that the vast majority of studies focus on individual outcomes and on their impact on the first-level organizational outcomes. These studies have produced mixed results, suggesting that...
**Graph 1.** Cox’s model about organizational outcomes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First-level outcomes</th>
<th>Second-level outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Attendance</td>
<td>• Market share</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Turnover</td>
<td>• Profitability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Work quality</td>
<td>• Achievement of organizational goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Recruiting success</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Creativity/innovation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Problem-solving</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Workgroup cohesiveness and communication</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Cox, 1993*

To this aim, companies’ diversity initiatives, programs and policies should:

a. In terms of **method**, be systemic (26), not episodic or freestanding (Dass, P. and Parker, B. 1999) (27). In other words, initiatives need to build on, but also going beyond, existing and traditional equal opportunities. This approach involves linking diversity to specific company’s lever. It implies the integration of diversity programs with structural mechanism, which must be regularly reviewed through monitoring and audit process.

b. In terms of **contents**, embrace at least the following key elements: education and training, support groups, and human resource policies (Fine, 1995).

Education is the most frequent response to diversity concerns, and even large-scale diversity initiatives tend to focus on education as the central component. Typically, diversity training begins with a brief session that serves to justify having the training. All too often, however, the company financial resources are exhausted after introducing employees to the importance of diversity work. Therefore, the majority of employees in workgroup diversity can have positive and negative effects on first-level outcomes. What is lacking is any clear or systematic account of how specific diversity initiatives affect or influence second-level outcomes (Dick, P. *Organizational Efforts to Manage Diversity: Do they really work?* In Davidson, M. J. and Fielden, S.L (edited by). 2003. *Individual Diversity and Psychology in Organizations*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd).

26 The implementation of diversity initiatives depends on where managers place diversity on their list of organizational priorities. Of the three general approaches to implementation, two were suggested by DeLuca and McDowell, who viewed diversity initiatives as either programmatic (freestanding) or non-programmatic (systemic) (DeLuca and McDowell, 1992), while the third one, the episodic approach was formulated by Dass and Parker (Dass and Parker, 1999).

27 For further information on the differences between a reactive and proactive approach please consult Kirton, G. “Developing Strategic Approaches to Diversity Policy” in Davidson, M.J. and Fielden, S.L. (edited by), 2003. *Individual Diversity and Psychology in Organizations*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.
the organization never have the opportunity to learn about other cultures and/or to develop any personal skills for working in diverse organizations. Furthermore, most organizational training programs in diversity emphasize interpersonal relationships and rarely include an analysis of the cultural and socio-political roots of prejudice or specific content or skills development related to the workplace. Thus, education and training should be tailored according to workers’ and managers’ needs: workers need to see how diversity issues affect their daily interactions in the workplace while managers need to understand how their cultural assumptions shape their decisions about whom to hire and promote.

Support groups can give employees the opportunity to test reality with others who may be experiencing similar problems. This element could give further support in creating a more positive environment where to live and work.

Making existing policies more flexible is the least developed and implemented component of diversity initiatives. Reported human resource policies primarily involved assistance to parents, including day-care assistance, sick childcare, maternity or paternity leave, or opportunities to have more flexible working time, including job sharing, flexible time, and compressed workweeks. Human resource policies and practices should offer people increasingly flexible ways to respond to different needs, also in terms of supervision, evaluation, and career development.

To conclude, a company that is open, supportive and flexible towards its employees should adopt policies that are also open, supportive and flexible, which in turn prove to be effective not just at individual level but also at organizational one. However, we have to bear in mind that “one best company’s diversity strategy, initiative, program or policy” does not exist (Thomas, 1995; Dass and Parker, 2000). The aware diversity management practices require suiting and fitting with the company context. This means that each organization shall identify its most suitable solutions to manage the diversity characterizing its own workforce.

**Graph 2. Four steps for successful diversity management**

1. Diversity as a business case
2. Flexible environment and organizational culture
3. The integration paradigm
4. Identification, implementation and review of diversity initiatives/programmes/policies
3.2. Evidence from some Italian companies

As stated at the very beginning, the general purpose of this Chapter is to examine to what extent Italian companies operating in different sectors recognize and manage diversity – age, ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity – at workplace level. Unfortunately, not all the companies contacted agreed to participate into the research project. Therefore, the focus here is on the contract-catering sector and on the large retailers one. This is an interesting case because these two sectors have been never investigated under this perspective, as evidenced by the scarcity of studies and of available data in the field. Thus, this research might help to fill the current gap existing in the literature, and above all it can be useful in a future perspective. Therefore, the issue is relevant above all for those stakeholders that will have to operate in these sectors in the years to come and those generally interested in diversity management practices.

In the light of the above, a qualitative method has been adopted to investigate complex and delicate issues taking place at work, such as diversity management at workplace level. On the basis of the theoretical framework presented in Paragraph §3.1.1. and Paragraph §3.1.2., a questionnaire (see Box 1) was submitted to a) seven Italian companies operating in the contract catering sector, but only two of them finally responded; and b) two companies operating in the large retailers sector (just one of them answered).

The questionnaire was divided in 7 sections according to the macro-areas identified for the investigation (see Appendix I):

(1) General data on the company;
(2) How demographic change has affected the company’s work organization;
(3) How demographic change has affected the company’s training;
(4) How demographic change has affected the company’s health and safety;
(5) How demographic change has affected the company’s business;
(6) How the company reacted in terms of diversity management;
(7) How the company perceive the future of work.

29 Mention should be made of the difficulties in gathering information from companies: managers might not be available for interviews/questionnaires, for privacy reasons, others for company reasons. Therefore, we really appreciate the kindness of those who answered to this questionnaire, which contributes to assessing to what extent Italian companies in the catering sector recognize and manage ethnic, cultural, and linguistic diversity at workplace level.
30 As previously stated, this questionnaire’s structure has been conceived in order to: (i) Better investigating how diversity is mainly conceived at company level in a sector characterized by a
The questionnaire contributed to get a better picture in terms of companies’ policies and practices adopted in the field of diversity and inclusion, integrating data already available online.

3.2.1. Diversity management in the contract catering sector

The contract catering sector, which at EU level is generally comprised in the category of “other food and service activities” (Eurostat, 2008), includes the services needed to prepare and deliver meals to people working and/or living in communities: public and private undertakings, administrations, childcare centres, schools, hospitals, retirement homes, prisons, and so on. When all these activities are entrusted to a service provider (in this case the Contract Catering Company), the sector is called contract catering (CC) and it has the following characteristics:

- The existence of a written contract between the client entity and the company providing the service;
- A well-defined group of users, consisting of members of the client entity;
- Special constraints arising from the fact that service is provided on the premises of the client entity, in line with a method of organisation specific to that entity;
- A cost that is significantly lower than the price of a meal in commercial catering (EFFAT and FERCO, 2004).

At the EU level this industry, which is represented by FERCO (31), is one of the most thriving. Today, with a turnover of 24 billions Euro, the contract catering industry employs 600,000 persons all over Europe and delivers around 6 billion meals each year. This accounts for 67 million consumers served every day, one out of four meals eaten outside the home, and more precisely one in every two meals eaten at the workplace, more than one in four meals at school and more than one in 10 in healthcare or social sector (FERCO, 2013). France and the United Kingdom are the two main markets for contract caterers (43.8% of the total contracted turnover) (FERCO, 2011).

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31 FERCO stands for Fédération Européenne de la Restauration Collective Concédée, i.e. the European Federation of Contract Catering Organisations. This represents the national contract caterer associations of Belgium, France, Germany, the Netherlands, Ireland, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and the United Kingdom. Scandinavian countries, Central and Eastern European countries and Switzerland play an observer role. More information about FERCO are available here: http://www.foodserviceeurope.org/.
In Italy, this sector, represented by the ANGEM association (32), has a turnover of 6.741 million of Euros in 2011 (GIRA, 2012) and employs about 35,000 operators. In addition to catering, which remain the core business, most of the companies operating in this sector offer a global service to their clients, a set of different activities ranging from support services (cleaning, logistics, transport, waste disposal, maintenance) to childcare centres’ management. The Italian contract catering sector employed about 72,000 people in 2010 and nowadays it employs almost 80,000 people. Blue-collars account for around 90% of the workforce, while white-collars and managers account for 5.9% and 1% respectively. As showed in Graph 3, providing data on types of contracts and employment by sex for a sample group of 45,784 employees (Osservatorio Ristorazione Collettiva Nutrizione, 2013), most employees have a permanent and part-time contract. Women account for the vast majority of the workforce (85%). Foreign people working in the “other food and service activities” in Italy, which comprises the contract catering sector, account for about 10% of the total workforce (Eurostat, 2011).

**Graph 3.** Contracts and employment by sex for a sample group of 45,784 employees

- Permanent contract (95.1%)
- Temporary Contract (4.7%)
- Other forms of contract (0.2%)
- Part-time (81.5%)
- Full-time (18.5%)
- Women (85.9%)
- Men (14.1%)

Source: Osservatorio Ristorazione Collettiva Nutrizione, 2013

In this sector, I was able to collect data from two companies that represent two significant cases study (33).

These companies have the same share of foreign workers (5%) and older workers (almost 26%) in their workforce. However, the way they conceive diversity – and manage it – differs significantly. In the first case (Camst Soc. Coop. ar. l.) diversity does not appear among the core values and objectives. The business mission just refers

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32 ANGEM is the Italian employers’ association for the contract catering sector.
33 The two companies are significant because they are among the top four companies in the sector in Italy, accounting for the largest market share (34%), thus increasing the significance of the findings (GIRA, 2012).
to the principle of non-discrimination among its ethical principles. On the contrary, the second company (Sodexo Italia S.p.A.) explicitly conceives diversity as a competitive advantage and an element that differentiates the company from other organizations operating in the same sector (Step 1). This different approach is reflected in the elaboration of a specific policy for diversity and in the creation of a dedicated Directorate in Sodexo. Therefore, it is no coincidence that this second company stands out for an organizational culture that really promotes and values diversity, not just in words (step 2) but also in deeds (step 3). Its corporate strategy recognizes five diversity’s axes: gender, age, ethnical and cultural diversity, disability, and sexual orientation. In these fields, the company is committed to apply the Guidelines for Diversity; define its own objectives; monitor and value performance; develop and coordinate those initiatives already in place; support managerial behaviours; and effectively promote internal and external communication about principles, actions and initiatives undertaken at company level (Step 2). This commitment is then reflected in the measures adopted at company level. In fact, with reference to the pre-conditions of the integration paradigm (Step 3), despite both companies’ leaderships recognizing that diversity embodies different perspectives and approaches to work as well as challenges and opportunities, Sodexo stands out for a more articulated practical response to diversity. By conceiving diversity as a competitive advantage for the company as well as a factor to attract and retain talents, Sodexo was able to elaborate an organizational culture that not only values and promotes diversity in words, but also in deeds. Its leadership actively seeks opportunities to explore how identity-group differences affect relationships among workers and work practices through internal surveys aimed at improving work environment and workers’ satisfaction. The survey deals with the following topics: commitment and trust in the company; reward; development opportunities; equal opportunities; internal diversities; relationships among employees; internal communication; safety at workplace; work-life balance and so on; in other words, all the issues related to the working life within a company. After each survey, an action plan is adopted and communicated to all employees, with a view to tackling most critical issues. A consecutive survey represents the main starting point to assess results and then reformulate policies and programs. In addition to the survey- and evaluation systems related to company’s actions, Sodexo also assesses individual performance through an evaluation carried out by the manager and the same employee. This system allows a better elaboration of individual career development plans in compliance with each employee’s peculiarities and needs. Career development and professional growth are core principles to be combined with diversity issues: by identifying individual performance, peculiarities, needs, and skills, it is possible to draw a tailored career development plan. In Sodexo, diversity is enhanced also through the opportunity to express ideas and by promoting opinion exchanges. Employees can express their ideas, opinions, and suggestions, as well as provide feedbacks on the company action through an online communication system as well as through face-to-face periodic meetings. In addition to this, exchange of ideas is promoted through workshops, training employees
and raising their awareness about diversity, as well as checking how diversity is respected and valued in the daily working life. Therefore, in Sodexo the “spirit of inclusion” is promoted through education and training workshops as well as human resources policies (performance evaluation, career development, reward systems, communication). In cooperation with external private and public bodies, Sodexo also promotes research and pilot projects aimed at better investigating how to promote diversity and inclusion of foreign people in the work organization, being an issue worth investing and investigating for the future development and competitiveness of the company. By contrast, Camst, although recognizing the existence of a more diverse workforce and the existence of related challenges and opportunities, appears to adopt a softer approach to diversity. There is no specific policy for diversity and inclusion, nor a plan for action. The leadership seeks to explore how identity-group differences affect relationships among employees by creating mixed working groups. Performance evaluation is the main tool through which the company tries to respond to individual differences, peculiarities and needs, while periodic meetings represent the main place where employees can express their opinion and exchange their ideas. Therefore, despite the two companies have the same share of foreign workers (5%) and older workers (almost 26%) in their workforce, the way they conceive diversity and manage it is significantly different. The approach of Camst is softer than that of Sodexo. With reference to the five levels for diversity assessment elaborated by Montes et al. (see Box 2), Camst can be placed at level 2 “Moving beyond compliance” as it promotes initiatives going beyond “securing adequate representation” despite being only isolated efforts: no plan is in place to integrate diversity. By contrast, Sodexo can be placed between level 4 “Integrated diversity” and level 5 “Equitable organization systems” since the company has not only internalized diversity as an important value but it considers it a core element in its business strategy and action. It promotes diversity within the company (through education and training, as well as human resources policies) and outside it, through research and pilot projects.

Table 1. Elaboration of responses to the questionnaire (34)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>About the Company</th>
<th>Camst Soc. Coop. ar. l.</th>
<th>Sodexo Italia S.p.A.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size (n. employees)</td>
<td>8,832</td>
<td>11,212</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign workers</td>
<td>433 (5%) (2013)</td>
<td>565 (5%) (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older workers (over 50)</td>
<td>2242 (25.40%) (2013)</td>
<td>2902 (25.88%) (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age of:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- national workforce</td>
<td>45.00</td>
<td>45.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- foreign workforce</td>
<td>39.60</td>
<td>42.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34 Completed companies’ questionnaires are available in Appendix II.
### STEP 1 – Diversity as business case

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How is diversity conceived</th>
<th>As synonymous of integration and mutual respect</th>
<th>As competitive advantage and as an element of distinction for the company</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Is diversity incorporated among business core values and objectives?</td>
<td>Diversity is not explicitly mentioned among business core values and objectives. However, respect is mentioned in the business mission and non-discrimination among the ethical principles of the company.</td>
<td>Yes. There is a specific Directorate for Diversity and a specific Policy for Diversity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### STEP 2 – Flexible environment and organizational culture promoting and valuing differences

| Existence of diversified measures for foreign workers (referring to work-life balance, career development programs, employee networks and reward systems etc.) | No | Not yet |
| Existence of diversified measures for older workers (referring to working time, contractual arrangements etc.) | No | Not |
| Existence of an organizational culture enabling and promoting diversity | Non-discrimination is among the ethical principles on which the corporate culture is based | Yes |

### STEP 3 – The integration paradigm

| Leadership understands that a diverse workforce embodies different perspectives and approaches to work | Yes | Yes |
| Leadership recognizes both opportunities and challenges posed by the co-existence of different points of view | Yes | Yes – diversity as opportunity for business and talent |
| Organizational culture creates an expectation of high standards of performance from everyone | Yes – through continuous performance evaluation according to objectives and time | Yes – through an evaluation plan, auto-evaluation plan, objectives sheet according to the reward system |
| Organizational culture stimulates personal development | Yes – through cooperation, sociability, team-work, sharing of decision and making employees responsible | Yes, it is a core commitment for the company – through skills assessment, training and individual development plan |
| Organizational culture encourages openness | Yes – through periodic meetings | Yes – it also values differences and promotes inclusion through its core principle “spirit of inclusion” and workshops |
| Leadership actively seeks opportunities to explore how identity-group differences affect | Yes- through the creation of diverse working groups | Yes – though internal survey and action plans |
Despite having the same share of foreign and older workers in their workforce, the way the two companies conceive diversity – and manage it – is significantly different. Camst supports some initiatives going “beyond securing adequate representation”, but only as isolated efforts. No plan is in place to promote diversity integration. On the contrary, in Sodexo, diversity is a core element of the business strategy. It is supported by a strong cultural organization and promoted through education, training and human resources policies. One of the main reasons explaining the different response to diversity between Camst and Sodexo can relate to the nature of each company. Camst is a national company, while Sodexo is a company operating in Italy but belonging to a foreign multinational corporation. This could suggest that foreign multinational corporations, already experiencing the challenges and opportunities of diversity because of their nature and dimension, are more open and keen to induce their national subsidiaries to include diversity among the core values, objectives and company policies rather than national companies, which, on the contrary, do not conceive diversity as business case and therefore do not fully adopt diversity management practices. However, the demographic change taking place in Italy should provide a sufficient reason, among national companies too, for considering and adopting diversity management practices.

### 3.2.2. Diversity management in a young and homogeneous company: the case of Leroy Merlin Italia Srl

As it happens in many sectors of the Italian economic scenario, most of the companies do not implement diversity management practices because they haven’t experience yet a significant increase of older and/or foreign people within their workforce although these demographic trends are becoming important in the whole population and soon will affect the whole workforce. Here it is reported the case of Leroy Merlin Italia Srl, one of the most famous company operating in the Italian large retailers sector (\(^35\)) belonging to a foreign group.

\(^35\) In Italy, the large retailers sector has been affected by the recent economic crisis. According to the most recent data, in 2012 there were 946,460 dealers, on decrease compared to the previous year, when...
As showed in Table 2, Leroy Merlin Italia Srl has still a young workforce: the average age of the national employees is 35 years old and only 3,5% of the total workforce is over 50. The workforce is also homogeneous in terms of ethnic groups because just 1% of the total workforce is not Italian. This explains why the company hasn’t included yet diversity among its core values (Step 1) and does not have specific measures for foreign and older workers (Step 2). Only recently, it introduced the ageing of the workforce among the key issues that will be determinant for its future. However, it does have some elements recognized as essential for the “integration paradigm” meaning that, if the company will decide to implement the first two steps, it will find itself ready for the third one. In any case, it will need to realize in facts what it will affirm in principle (Step 4). But this is something the company states it will do in the near future. Indeed, to the question “In your opinion, how the company of your sector will look like in the future?”, the company answered that the concept of “diversity” will be incorporated in the corporate culture not just as a synonymous of “respect” but also as a tool of inclusion and esteem towards each other.

Table 2. Elaboration of responses to the questionnaire (36)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>About the Company</th>
<th>Leroy Merlin Italia Srl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subsidiary of a French multinational group</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size (n. employees)</td>
<td>5,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foreign workers</td>
<td>68 (1%) (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older workers (over 50)</td>
<td>199 (3.5%) (2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age of:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- national workforce</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- foreign workforce</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**STEP 1 – Diversity as business case**

How is diversity conceived

Recently, it has been defined as a strategic issue to be developed in the coming years

Is diversity incorporated among business core values and objectives?

Diversity is not mentioned among business core values and objectives.

**STEP 2 – Flexible environment and organizational culture promoting and valuing differences**

952.068 dealers have been registered at the national level (Ministero Sviluppo Economico, GNLC Nielsen, Indicod Ecr – TradeLab in Federdistribuzione, 2012).

36 Complete company’s questionnaire is available in Appendix II.
| Existence of diversified measures for foreign workers (referring to work-life balance, career development programs, employee networks and reward systems etc.) | No |
| Existence of diversified measures for older workers (referring to working time, contractual arrangements etc.) | No |
| Existence of an organizational culture enabling and promoting diversity | No |

**STEP 3 – The integration paradigm**

| Leadership understands that a diverse workforce embodies different perspectives and approaches to work | Yes. |
| Leadership recognizes both opportunities and challenges posed by the co-existence of different points of view | Yes – it recognizes more the opportunities. A more diverse workforce in terms of ethnicity, language, religion etc. could improve the relationships with the costumers and the quality of products. An older workforce has the added value of having a good corporate knowledge, experience in the sector and a better knowledge of the market. |
| Organizational culture creates an expectation of high standards of performance from everyone | Yes – by setting personal objectives. By reaching them, the employee improves and so does the company. |
| Organizational culture stimulates personal development | Yes – through a) individual meetings aimed at identifying the potential of each employees b) general assessment. |
| Organizational culture encourages openness | Yes – through the involvement of employees in the daily company’s life, the organization of meetings and informal breakfasts, the use of intranet, social networks and newsletters. The company tries to be as much transparent as possible. |
| Leadership actively seeks opportunities to explore how identity-group differences affect relationships among workers and the work get done | Just the individual’s personal features. |

**STEP 4 – Successfully identification implementation and review of diversity initiatives/programmes/policies**

| Education and training in diversity | No |
| Support groups | No |
| Human resource policies: work organization | No |
| Other: | Yes – The company has activated a project in progress involving employees in groups reflecting on the ageing of the workforce in order |
3.2.3. The future of labour relations: analysis of the three case studies

In order to anticipate what kind of measures and initiative companies are likely to undertake to manage the implications deriving from the drivers of change, it is also necessary to analyse not only what companies are currently doing, but also how they perceive their future and the forces shaping the future of work. The last section of the questionnaire (see Appendix I) tries to reach this objective.

Regarding the first drivers of change – demography – the three companies gave three different answers. Camst Soc. Coop. ar. l. says that its workforce will be older, while Sodexo affirms it will be more diverse and Leroy Merlin Italia S.p.A. states that its workforce will be more skilled and able to deal with different situations.

Technology is recognized as a driver of change by the three case studies but, according to their answers, it is not significantly affecting their organization. There are no doubts that technology improves communication and the speed of processes, but in the contract catering sector technological innovation is slow. Different is the case of Leroy Merlin Italia S.p.A. where technological innovation is mostly used towards customers rather that within employees: the company tries to give customers a wider range of possibilities to buy products and services online.

Concerning the third main driver of change – the transition towards a green economy – the two companies belonging to the contract catering sector are trying to manage the change within the organization. Both of them believe that it is possible to have a more sustainable economy by acting on the culture of each person. Therefore, though internal practices, the two companies are trying to initiate this cultural change. Camst Soc. Coop. ar. l. installed some solar panels in order to generate power through photovoltaics and launched internal informative campaigns to reduce the waste and misuse of energy. Sodexo Italia S.p.A., similarly, is acting at corporate culture level, in order to align it with these new external green necessities. While Leroy Merlin Italia S.p.A. gives increasingly attention to social and environmental sustainability through its products (it recently introduced some eco-products), its logistic chain, and through some social volunteering initiatives aimed at introducing green spaces in private buildings.

3.3. Guidelines for shifting from the old to the new world of work

The analysis of the drivers of change and the main results deriving from the Delphi Technique are just part of the work concerning the future of work. The future is not something that only needs to be imagined and anticipated but it is something that should be built starting from the current scenario: «the future of work is already here» (Gratton,
This is the main message that the current research project would like to give to those stakeholders operating in the top-management positions of the Italian companies. As also pointed out by Hamel and Prahalad, it is thus fundamental to have a bridge between today and tomorrow, or, as they call it, a “strategic architecture” that indicates what needs to be developed in order to gain from the opportunities the future will reserve (Hamel and Prahalad, 1999). In their work, Maitland and Thomson summarized the key principles and management skills that, according to them, help companies to manage the new world of work. These principles (and the relative skills), which I found reliable, are represented in Table 3.

Table 3. Principles and Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principles</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1) Trust your people              | • Openness to change  
• Delegation  
• Relationship-building  
• Prioritizing  
• Challenging the status quo     |
| 2) Reward output                  | • Planning ahead  
• Clear objective-setting  
• Inspiring and motivating  
• Sensitivity to changing needs  
• Decisiveness and consistency  |
| 3) Understand the business case   | • Awareness of big trends  
• Stakeholder orientation  
• Technological competence  
• Influencing  
• Resilience                   |
| 4) Start at the top               | • Willingness to change  
• Ability to “let go”  
• Leadership by example  
• Time management  
• Tenacity                    |
| 5) Treat people as individuals    | • Appreciation of differences  
• Responsiveness  
• Adaptability  
• Reliability  
• Team-building               |

*Source: Maitland and Thomson, 2011*

On the basis of the available literature and on the current research project’s results, I would advise the following five guidelines to shift from the old to the new world of work:
I. To have a long-term perspective rather than a short one

The prerequisite to face the future, its challenges and its opportunities, is to start considering it and analyse to what extent the company is on the right pace or what it needs to do in order to align itself to the future scenario. This can be done by adopting a long-term perspective, which is the only one that allows not acting through an emergency approach, but through a more preventive one. It means having a vision, control, a mastery of what is going on and a better awareness of the evolutions. This means «making hierarchies less formal, create internal markets for ideas and talents […] take advantage of diversity and globalisation, develop holistic employee performance measures that emphasize personal passions and innate talents, expand employee autonomy and create democracy of information, and reinvent strategizing and decision making to minimize generational, cultural, and personal biases» (Cisco, 2011). This approach allows a company to be innovative and open to the future scenario.

II. “Together is better than alone”

The forces of globalisation and technological change have already shown how connected the world of work is today and how important is to enhance collaboration. There are no doubts that in the future, businesses’ success will highly depend on the capability to establish and nurture the external and internal network. This means that companies needs to start to act on two sides – internally and externally – but in a way that external connections are an extension of those relations established within the company.

- **Internally**: Employers are advised to build identity-based networks within their organizations. The increased use of internal informatics systems can build connections among employees who may not work with each other, offer mentoring opportunities (formal and informal mentoring) and, in general, provide a sense of corporate belonging for employees.

- **Externally**: Internal networks are useful for extending ties with external actors, such as customers, clients, competitors, communities and other relevant stakeholders. Being in “partnership with others” of a different nature and background becomes the key lever to foster creativity, innovation, and problem-solving skills.

III. “Flexiversity” will be the word

There are no doubts that the current drivers of change are making the boundaries between private and working life more blurred and flexibility and diversity two key features of our daily professional life (from the combination of the two words comes the new one “flexiversity”). In non-hierarchical and flat organizations, differences – in terms of backgrounds, professional experience, culture, age etc. – get closer and become more visible. Therefore companies, to retain and motivate the future workforce, will have to provide more ways to make their employees feel comfortable with their job, colleagues and working environment. This means guarantee a certain level of flexibility
(also in the field of rewards) while respecting different values, habits and personal situations. The working environment should become a place where employers and employee can learn from each other and broaden their cultural and professional horizons. Therefore companies will have to be equipped with those instruments that enable flexibility and value diversity.

IV. From a supply-chain paradigm to a value-chain paradigm

In an interconnected world, innovation and creativity will be one of the most important elements to be developed in preparation for the decades to come. Companies will outstand not just for the products or services they will provide, but for the quality, innovativeness and creativity of their products/services which can directly come from their people. These two elements will be achieved, primarily, by internal know-how, competencies and collaborative networks; and secondly, by investing in human resources and developments plans. Therefore employers will have to start to hire and retain people according to a more holistic approach: taking into consideration not just their job experience or qualification, but also their skills potential, professional contacts and level of adaptability. In addition to this, employers need to meet employees’ needs and close the gap between the personal aspiration and the corporate goals targets. Only in this way everyone is put in the condition to positively contribute to the business processes and activities and create added value for the group.

V. Sustainability

With the agreement reached by the recent Warsaw UN Climate talks (November 2013), sustainability will have to be incorporated in all consumption and production processes in order to guarantee the implementation of the forthcoming global agreement on climate binding for all countries (to be reached by 2015). This will require an updated set of hard and soft skills as well as a more general careful behaviour towards the environmental issues. Companies will have to integrate the sustainability element in their CSR policies and core businesses strategies and make public what they do to promote sustainable growth. Otherwise, the risk of alienating customers and potential employees – in particular the next younger generations that are more susceptible to this issue – becomes higher. This is because nowadays personal and work lives are increasingly intertwined and the workforce has become more socially aware and informed.

These five main and general guidelines are somehow interconnected. For instance, sustainable development and the transition towards a green economy cannot be achieved without a long-term perspective regarding current actions, investments and decisions. Secondly, diversity can be supported just through more flexible and open corporate culture and arrangements, which in turns can be a source for innovation and creativity. The latters can be of added valued when further shared and nurtured through the internal and external communities. This interconnection therefore underlines the
importance of having a holistic approach rather than a specific one and maintaining a broader overview rather than a close one. Each result achieved is a starting point for a new progression. The only thing that needs to be done is to continue moving – never stop – and remain as much adaptable as possible, because, despite some predictable trends «tomorrow’s work begins today» (Gratton, 2011).
Appendix I: Questionnaire

Premise
This questionnaire integrates the desk research carried out for my final PhD dissertation “Change Management and the Future of Labour Relations: from Challenges to Opportunities” aimed at providing a better understanding of the current drivers of change so as to identify those change management practices that companies can implement in order to remain competitive in the coming decades. This research project undertakes a comparative approach, which better enable to frame the issue, understand different realities and find common solutions in a context of continuous change.

Esteemed time for the interview: 1 hour.
Thank you in advance for your time.

Your Company

1. Name:
2. Location:
3. Size:
4. Revenue:
5. Number and % of employees
   - Aged <25:
   - Aged 25-50:
   - Aged >50:
6. Number and % of employees with a foreign background/origin (37):
   a. <30%
   b. 30-50%
   c. >50%

In details (38):
White:
Black or African American:
American Indian and Alaska Native:
Asian:
Native Hawaiian and Other Pacific Islander:
Some other race:

7. When did you start to experience a significant diverse workforce?

8. Average age of the
   - Total workforce:
   - National workforce:
   - Foreign workforce:

9. When did you realise that your workforce was becoming older?

Company’s Work Organisation

1. What is the main labour contract among the national employees and those with a foreign background/origin?

37 Tick one and specify the number.
38 The U.S. Census Bureau makes use of this classification.
2. Do employees with a foreign background/origin mainly concentrate in specific occupations within your organization?

3. Did you introduce any specific arrangement/measure for religious matters or personal beliefs (such as working-time, working-place arrangements etc.)?

4. How do you deal with culture and linguistic differences in your company’s organisation?

5. Most widespread employment contracts among your senior employees (+50)

6. Did you introduce any specific working-time arrangement measure for your senior employees?

7. How do you deal with the concurrent presence of different generations in your work organisation?

**Training**

1. Level of education of your national workforce
   a. Primary school:
   b. Secondary school:
   c. Higher education:

2. Educational level of your workforce with a foreign background
   a. Primary school:
   b. Secondary school:
   c. Higher education:

3. What are the main ethnical groups with the lowest level of education? What are the ones with the highest level of education?

4. What is the main skills gap within your company? Does it affect all the working groups? What strategies did you introduced to overcome this skills gap?

5. Do you provide for lifelong learning opportunities for your employees of all ages? If so, how?

6. Do you have specific training programmes for senior workers? If so, how are these courses structured?

7. Do you provide for skills transfer from one generation to another one? If so, how?

**Health and Safety**

1. What are the main occupational accidents and diseases reported by
   - National employees:
   - Employees with foreign background/origin:
   - Senior workers:

1. What measures did you introduce to reduce the number and the seriousness of occupational accidents and diseases among your employees? Are there any differences among national, with foreign background/origin and senior employees?

**Business**
1. To what extent the ageing of the population has changed the business of your company?

2. To what extent a heterogeneous population has changed the business of your company?

**Diversity Management**

1. How is diversity conceived and managed by your company?

2. What are the main opportunities that derive from a more ethnic diverse workforce? What are the main challenges?

3. What are the main opportunities that derive from a senior workforce? What are the main challenges?

4. Do you value variety of opinions and insights? If so, how?

5. How do you promote exchange of ideas? How do you welcome challenges – if you do so?

6. Does your organizational culture create an expectation of high standards of performance from everyone? If so, how?

7. Does your organizational culture stimulate personal development? If so, how?

8. Does your organizational culture encourage openness? If so, how?

9. Do the leaders of your company actively seek opportunities to explore how identity-group differences affect relationships among workers and affect the way work gets done? If so, how?

10. Could you please describe at least one of the good practices implemented in your organisation
   - For non-white employees:
   - For senior workers:

11. In your opinion, did education institutions successfully prepare young people to work in a multicultural environment? If not, what would you recommend?

**The future of labour relations**

1. In your opinion, how the company of your sector will look like in the future?

2. In your opinion, how will the workforce of your sector look like in the future?

3. In your opinion, how will technological change affect companies and labour relations? What is your company doing in order to remain competitive in the coming decades?

4. In your opinion, will the transition towards a greener economy change job profiles and skills? If yes, what is your company doing in order to remain competitive in the coming decades?

5. How do you manage changes at company level?
Thank you very much!
Appendix II: Companies’ questionnaires (39)

Camst Soc. Coop. ar. l.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>La Vostra azienda in Italia</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. Sede: Villanova di Castenaso (BO)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dimensione:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Fatturato annuo: 409 milioni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Numero e % dei dipendenti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- under 25: 162; 1,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- tra i 25 e i 50 anni di età: 6428; 72,8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- over 50: 2242; 25,4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Numero e % dei dipendenti con origini straniere:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. &lt;30% (X)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. 30-50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. &gt;50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In dettaglio:
Europea (specificare le nazionalità): 136 (Belgio, Bulgaria, Repubblica Ceca, Estonia, Francia, Germania, Grecia, Polonia, Romania, Ungheria, Spagna, Olanda, Slovenia)
Africana: 74
Nord-Americana: 1
Latino-Americana: 50
Asiatica: 34
Caucasica: 129
Medio-Oriente: 9

7. Quando avete cominciato ad avere un personale eterogeneo dal punto di vista etnico, culturale e linguistico? 30 anni
8. Età media del personale dipendente |
- totale: 44,8 |
- nazionale: 45 |
- con origini straniere: 39,6
9. Quando avete preso coscienza dell’invecchiamento della vostra forza lavoro? Non possiamo identificare un momento specifico, anche perché l’età media dei nostri dipendenti è in gran parte dettata da acquisizioni e cessazioni legate ad appalti e quindi soggetta a variazioni frequenti.

Work Organisation della Vostra azienda

1. Quale è il contratto di lavoro maggiormente presente tra il personale dipendente nazionale? Quale quello tra il personale dipendente con origini straniere? In azienda abbiamo un unico contratto che è il CCNL Turismo Parte Pubblici Esercizi.
2. Il personale dipendente con origini straniere si concentra in alcune specifiche professioni/categorie all’interno della Vostra azienda? Operatore Generico.
3. Avete introdotto qualche misura/disposizione specifica per motivi religiosi e di credo (orario di lavoro, luogo di lavoro etc.)? NO
4. Come gestite le differenze culturali e linguistiche all’interno della Vostra azienda? Rispetto delle diverse culture presenti in azienda purché non interferiscano con le regole aziendali.

39 The complete questionnaires are left in their original language (Italian) in order not to alter the content.
5. Contratto di lavoro maggiormente utilizzato tra il personale dipendente senior (over 50) Non vi sono differenze intergenerazionali.

6. Avete introdotto qualche misura per i dipendenti senior (orari di lavoro, misure ergonomiche etc.)? No

7. Come gestite la contemporanea presenza di diverse generazioni all’interno della Vostra azienda? Promuovendo il rispetto reciproco

Formazione

1. Livello di istruzione del personale dipendente nazionale
   • istruzione primaria: 5374; 64%
   • istruzione secondaria: 2791; 33,2%
   • alta formazione: 234; 2,8%

2. Livello di istruzione del personale dipendente con origini straniere
   • istruzione primaria: 183; 42,3%
   • istruzione secondaria: 148; 34,2%
   • alta formazione: 29; 6,7%
   • non disponibile: 73; 16,9%

3. Quali sono i gruppi etnici che presentano il più basso livello di istruzione? Quali il livello più alto?
   Africa e Area Caucasica (più bassa); Unione Europea (più alta)

4. Quale è il principale skill gap presente all’interno della Vostra azienda? Comunicazione Colpisce qualche gruppo etnico in particolare? No Quali strategie avete adottato per superare questo skill gap? Costruzione di una funzione di comunicazione interna.


6. Avete programmi formativi specifici per i lavoratori senior? No Se si, cosa riguardano e come vengono strutturati?


Salute e sicurezza

1. Che tipologia di incidenti e malattie sul lavoro vengono riportati dal (non abbiamo i dati in oggetto divisi per personale nazionale e straniero, possiamo effettuare solo la seguente distinzione)
   • personale dipendente nazionale:
   • personale dipendente con origini straniere:
   • personale senior:
   Sotto ai 25 anni di età abbiamo 18 infortuni e i più frequenti sono movimenti incoordinati e tagli
   Tra i 25 e i 50 anni di età abbiamo 358 infortuni e i più frequenti sono tagli, incidenti alla guida e cadute.
   Sopra i 50 anni di età abbiamo 140 infortuni e i più frequenti sono tagli, incidenti alla guida e cadute.

2. Quali misure avete introdotto per ridurre il numero e la gravità degli incidenti e delle
malattie sul lavoro riportate dal personale dipendente con origini straniere e da quello 

senior? Mediante periodici corsi di formazione sulla sicurezza sul posto di lavoro e 

utilizzo di dispositivi di protezione individuale.

**Business**

1. In che misura l’invecchiamento della popolazione ha cambiato il business della Vostra 

azienda? Ampliando il nostro mercato, ovvero rispetto al passato oggi gestiamo la 

ristorazione legata alla terza età (case di cura, case di riposo, ristorazione 

domiciliare)

2. In che misura la crescente diversità etnico culturale e linguistica presente nella 

popolazione italiana ha cambiato il business della Vostra azienda? Ampliando la nostra 

offerta, ovvero abbiamo inserito nuovi piatti nei menù che vengono da altre culture; 

inoltre nella ristorazione scolastica abbiamo introdotto nuove diete speciali legate alle 

scelte etiche e religiose.

**Gestione della diversità**

1. Come viene concepita e gestita la diversità nella Vostra azienda? Mediante 

l’integrazione e il rispetto reciproco

2. Quali sono le principali opportunità/aspetti positivi poste da una forza lavoro più 

diversa dal punto di vista etnico culturale e linguistico? Quali le principali sfide? Il 

confronto fra culture differenti che da un lato può essere visto come aspetto positivo in 

quanto arricchimento culturale ma può essere visto anche come una sfida in quanto 

non sempre è facile accettare chi ha usanze, abitudini diverse dalle nostre.

3. Quali sono le principali opportunità/aspetti positivi poste da una forza lavoro senior? 

Quali le principali sfide? Una forza lavoro senior può trasmettere know how acquisito 

da anni di esperienza lavorativa, la sfida è riuscire a valorizzare tali persone.

4. Valorizzate la diversità di opinioni e punti di vista? Si Se sì, come? Essendo Camst una 

cooperativa e facilitata in quanto da statuto sono previsti incontri istituzionali in cui 
poter confrontarsi, scambiarsi idee ed esprimere proprie opinioni.

5. Come la Vostra azienda favorisce lo scambio di idee? Come accogliete nuove sfide – 

se lo fate? Vedi sopra

6. La Vostra cultura organizzativa si attende alti livelli di performance da parte di tutto il 

personale dipendente? Si Se sì, come? Dando obiettivi e tempi certi per il 
raggiungimento di tali obiettivi e attraverso la valutazione costante della performance.

7. La Vostra cultura organizzativa favorisce l’apertura al confronto? Se sì, come? Vedi 
domanda 4

8. La vostra cultura organizzativa favorisce lo sviluppo e la crescita personale? Si Se sì, 

come? Attraverso il concetto di cooperazione, di socialità, di lavoro di gruppo, 

condivisione delle scelte e di responsabilizzazione del dipendente-socio che nelle 

occasioni ufficiali ha lo stesso valore indipendentemente dal ruolo svolto (una testa un 
voto)

9. I leaders della Vostra azienda cercano di capire in che misura le differenze di identità 

dei vari gruppi incidono sulle relazioni tra i dipendenti e su come il lavoro viene 


10. Potrebbe descrivere brevemente almeno una buona pratica introdotta dalla Vostra 

azienda
- per il personale dipendente non nazionale:
  - per il personale dipendente senior:
    *I comportamenti aziendali non sono rivolti a “classi” specifiche di dipendenti ma generalmente per favorire l’integrazione sono interventi intergenerazionali e interculturali.*

1. A Suo avviso, il sistema scolastico ha adeguatamente preparato i giovani a lavorare in un contesto multicultural? In caso di risposta negativa, quali sono le sue raccomandazioni in tal senso? Oggi rispetto al passato c’è una maggiore integrazione fin dai primissimi anni di scuola, fattore che aiuta sicuramente ad avere una maggiore conoscenza reciproca fra culture anche se può essere fatto ancora tanto.

### Il futuro delle relazioni di lavoro

1. A Suo avviso, come sarà l’azienda del suo settore nel futuro? Bisognerà dare più importanza alla ricerca e all’introduzione di nuovi prodotti e servizi.


3. A Suo avviso, in che misura l’innovazione tecnologica cambierà le aziende e le relazioni di lavoro? Permetterà una comunicazione più rapida ed efficace anche se nel settore della ristorazione l’innovazione tecnologica è molto lenta e non ha un grande impatto sui processi produttivi Cosa sta facendo la Sua azienda per rimanere competitiva nei decenni a venire? Rapidità nelle scelte ed aumento dell’efficacia dei processi produttivi.

4. A suo avviso, la transizione verso un’economia verde cambierà i lavori e le competenze? Creerà sicuramente nuovi sbocchi professionali e nuove modalità di lavoro. In caso di risposta affermativa, cosa sta facendo la sua azienda per rimanere competitiva nei decenni a venire? Pannelli fotovoltaici e campagne informative interne volte a ridurre l’uso eccessivo di energia.

5. Come la Sua azienda gestisce i cambiamenti? *Favorendo il ricambio intergenerazionale.*
Sodexo Italia SpA

La Vostra azienda in Italia

1. Nome: SODEXO ITALIA SPA
2. Sede: Cinisello Balsamo – Via F.Lli Gracchi 36
3. Dimensione: MULTINAZIONALE
4. Fatturato annuo: 410 K€
5. Numero e % dei dipendenti
   - under 25: 208 (1,85%)
   - tra i 25 e i 50 anni di età: 8102 (72,27%)
   - over 50: 2902 (25,88%)
6. Numero e % dei dipendenti con origini straniere: 565
   d. <30% 51 (9,02%)
   e. 30-50% 429 (75,93%)
   f. >50% 85 (15,04%)

In dettaglio:
Europea (specificare le nazionalità): 322
   African: 135
   Nord-Americana: 7
   Latino-Americana: 71
   Asiatica: 27
   Caucasica:
   Medio-Oriente: 3

7. Quando avete cominciato ad avere un personale eterogeneo dal punto di vista etnico, culturale e linguistico?
8. Età media del personale dipendente
   - totale: 45,43
   - nazionale: 45,59
   - con origini straniere: 42,00
9. Quando avete preso coscienza dell’invecchiamento della vostra forza lavoro?

Work Organization della Vostra azienda

1. Quale è il contratto di lavoro maggiormente presente tra il personale dipendente nazionale? Quale quello tra il personale dipendente con origini straniere? CCNL Multiservizi e CCNL Turismo (parte speciale Pubblici Esercizi)
2. Il personale dipendente con origini straniere si concentra in alcune specifiche professioni/categorie all’interno della Vostra azienda? Addetti ai Servizi Ristorazione/Addetti Pulizie (operai)
3. Avete introdotto qualche misura/disposizione specifica per motivi religiosi e di credo (orario di lavoro, luogo di lavoro etc.)? NON ANCORA
4. Come gestite le differenze culturali e linguistiche all’interno della Vostra azienda? Con una forte sensibilizzazione alla politica della Diversità più corsi di lingua per tutti gli stranieri
5. Contratto di lavoro maggiormente utilizzato tra il personale dipendente senior (over 50)
   TEMPO INDETERMINATO / PUBBLICI ESERCIZI
6. Avete introdotto qualche misura per i dipendenti senior (orari di lavoro, misure ergonomiche etc.)? No
7. Come gestite la contemporanea presenza di diverse generazioni all’interno della Vostra azienda? Con un mix di strumenti di gestione
**Formazione**

1. Livello di istruzione del personale dipendente nazionale
   - istruzione primaria: 5283
   - istruzione secondaria: 1275
   - alta formazione: 215

2. Livello di istruzione del personale dipendente con origini straniere *(non abbiamo per tutti questo dato)*
   - istruzione primaria: 176
   - istruzione secondaria: 69
   - alta formazione: 4

3. Quali sono i gruppi etnici che presentano il più basso livello di istruzione? Quali il livello più alto? *Dati non disponibili*

4. Quale è il principale *skill gap* presente all’interno della Vostra azienda? *Conoscenza altri servizi (es. giardinaggio, sicurezza). Colpisce qualche gruppo etnico in particolare? NO Quali strategie avete adottato per superare questo *skill gap? Formazione*

   a. Gli interventi formativi sono legati al ruolo e al Job, quindi tutti i dipendenti ricevono la formazione necessaria/pre vista, a prescindere dall’età anagrafica.

6. Avete programmi formativi specifici per i lavoratori senior? *Se sì, cosa riguardano e come vengono strutturati? NO*

7. Garantite il trasferimento delle competenze da una generazione all’altra? *SI* Se sì, come? *Gli interventi formativi sono legati al ruolo e al Job, quindi tutti i dipendenti ricevono la formazione necessaria/pre vista, a prescindere dall’età anagrafica. Cascading Esperienze e Formazione 9on the Job Training & training the trainer approaches*

**Salute e sicurezza**

1. Che tipologia di incidenti e malattie sul lavoro vengono riportati dal
   - personale dipendente nazionale:
   - personale dipendente con origini straniere:
   - personale senior:
   *Non vengono rilevate significative differenze negli incidenti tra le categorie indicate. In particolare la legge italiana non prevede particolari accorgimenti per personale senior.*
   Le più frequenti tipologie di incidenti sono:
   - Cadute, scivolamenti, inciambi
   - folgorazioni
   - schiacchiamenti
   - Taglio
   - Ustioni
   *Le più frequenti richieste di malattie professionali (raramente confermate) sono:*
   - Malattie derivanti da movimentazione dei carichi (lesioni dorso lombari)
   - Malattie derivanti da movimentazione ripetuta degli arti superiori (tunnel carpale)

2. Quali misure avete introdotto per ridurre il numero e la gravità degli incidenti e delle
malattie sul lavoro riportate dal personale dipendente con origini straniere e da quello senior? Particolare attenzione viene posta alla formazione dei lavoratori ritenuta la migliore attività preventiva. All’atto dell’assunzione viene verificata la conoscenza e la comprensione della lingua italiana. In alcuni casi sono stati effettuati particolari corsi (sanità)

### Business

1. In che misura l’invecchiamento della popolazione ha cambiato il business della Vostra azienda? 
   *In maniera molto limitata.*

2. In che misura la crescente diversità etnica culturale e linguistica presente nella popolazione italiana ha cambiato il business della Vostra azienda? 
   *Imponendoci di pensare a supporti diversi per favorire il loro inserimento*

### Gestione della diversità

1. Come viene concepita e gestita la diversità nella Vostra azienda?  
   
   L’impegno globale del Gruppo Sodexo sul fronte della Diversità risale al Settembre 2006, quando il Comitato Esecutivo Gruppo lancia la politica Diversità e Inclusione Sodexo. Viene creata la Direzione Diversità a livello Mondiale e viene istituito un Gruppo di lavoro all’interno del Comitato Esecutivo per identificare il perimetro e definire la strategia.

   Nell’Ottobre 2007 Viene creata la Direzione Diversità per l’Europa e Gruppo internazionale di coordinamento per la Diversità (politiche / azioni / progressi).

   **In Italia, il 5 ottobre 2009:** Sodexo Italia firma la Carta Italiana Diversità & Pari Opportunità (tra le prime 16 imprese italiane).

2. Quali sono le principali opportunità/aspetti positivi poste da una forza lavoro più diversa dal punto di vista etnico culturale e linguistico? Quali le principali sfide?

   **Tra le analisi fatte da Sodexo a livello mondiale:**
   - In paesi e mercati emergenti: nuove opportunità
   - Sempre più clienti scelgono fornitori/partner capaci di adeguarsi alle loro diversità interne (esempio più eclatante: il bando per l’assegnazione dell’appalto servizi per le Olimpiadi di Londra richiedeva specifici requisiti, quantificabili e dimostrabili in termini di diversità etnico culturale interna e conseguente capacità di adeguarsi a livello di eccellenza alla eccezionale diversità etnico culturale presentata dal cliente/evento).
   - Diventare leader/referenza nel campo della Diversità e dell’Inclusione aiuterà Sodexo ad attirare e trattenere business e collaboratori di talento.

   **Per SODEXO: la diversità etnico culturale è un VANTAGGIO COMPETITIVO e un elemento di DIFFERENZIAZIONE.**

   **In Italia:**
• La capacità di gestire la Diversità sta diventando anche in Italia parte integrante di contratti importanti
• La diversità l’integrazione etnico culturale è coerente con la politica di Responsabilità Sociale Sodexo
• Oggi in Sodexo Italia: **565 stranieri** appartenenti a **83** nazionalità diverse

3. Quali sono le principali opportunità/aspetti positivi poste da una forza lavoro senior? Quali le principali sfide?

Trend: **prolungamento** della vita lavorativa (anche per riforme sistema pensionistico)
- Promuovere il **benessere**, la qualità della vita e il **clima** all’interno dell’azienda.
- Supportare **necessità individuali** e Favorire, dove possibile, **flessibilità** e soluzioni personalizzate e evitare assenteismo / calo di impegno e demotivazione.
- Verificare/ valorizzare/diffondere le **buone pratiche** già esistenti e i loro **risultati**.
- Utilizzare il **know-how individuale** (progetti, mentoring, affiancamento sul campo, ecc.)

4. Valorizzate la diversità di opinioni e punti di vista? Se sì, come?

**Un ESEMPIO:**
Sistema di SUGGESTION BOX chiamato “Le mie Idee per Sodexo” attraverso il quale tutti i 12.000 dipendenti di Sodexo Italia possono far pervenire direttamente al vertice aziendale proposte, idee, osservazioni, suggerimenti, ipotesi di miglioramento della vita in azienda. Il sistema è presente dal 2008 ed è attivamente utilizzato.

5. Come la Vostra azienda favorisce lo scambio di idee? Come accogliete nuove sfide – se lo fate?
- **Meeting periodici** presso ogni sede/direzione operativa
- **House Organ** interno, diretto a tutti i 12.000 dipendenti
- “**Meet the CEO**” (incontri con l’Amministratore Delegato presso tutte le sedi e preventiva raccolta delle DOMANDE che le persone desiderano rivolgergli)
- Incontri con la Direzione Risorse Umane presso i siti operativi per raccogliere e condividere le opinioni e le osservazioni dei dipendenti, anche dei più periferici.
- La principale sfida è quella che Sodexo stessa si è data, attraverso la sua Employer Value Proposition nei confronti dei dipendenti: è sintetizzata nel titolo: “Un impegno con te” e offre a tutte le persone interne la possibilità di giudicare il mantenimento degli impegni presi sui 5 assi della politica Risorse Umane. Tocca tutte le fasi della vita in azienda:
  1. La nostra scelta, al momento della **SELEZIONE**
  2. Il nostro ingresso, al momento dell’**ACCOGLIENZA**
  3. La **VITA QUOTIDIANA** in Sodexo, giorno dopo giorno
  4. La nostra capacità e la possibilità di migliorare, **imparare e CRESCERE**
  5. **Il RICONOSCIMENTO** per il nostro impegno e per i nostri risultati.

6. La Vostra cultura organizzativa si attende alti livelli di performance da parte di tutto il personale dipendente? Se sì, come?

**Sistema Sodexo di Valutazione delle Prestazioni:** annuale / sintesi e valutazione quantitativa e qualitativa/ **valutazione** (scritta + colloquio) da parte del capo diretto e **autovalutazione** da parte del singolo dipendente. Lo strumento comprende anche la **scheda obiettivi**, base per il **sistema premiante** aziendale, aggiornato annualmente.

7. La Vostra cultura organizzativa favorisce l’apertura al confronto? Se sì, come?

**Non solo apertura al confronto ma vero e proprio spirito di valorizzazione e inclusione di tutte le diversità. Non a caso, si chiama proprio “Spirit of Inclusion” il workshop “brevettato” da Sodexo e diffuso obbligatoriamente in tutto il mondo, a tutti i livelli dell’organizzazione, finalizzato a:**
- Diffondere all’interno la **conoscenza** della Politica e delle priorità Sodexo sulla
• Gestiione delle Diversità
  • Coltivare sensibilizzazione / consapevolezza
  • Rafforzare nelle persone Sodexo la capacità di testimoniare nel comportamento quotidiano coerente l'approccio Sodexo alle Diversità

8. La vostra cultura organizzativa favorisce lo sviluppo e la crescita personale? Se sì, come?

Vedere il quarto punto dell’Impegno di Sodexo nei confronto dei suoi dipendenti: la CRESCITA

Alcuni strumenti:
• Assessment delle competenze/capacità
• Offerta formativa
• Piani di sviluppo individuali

9. I leaders della Vostra azienda cercano di capire in che misura le differenze di identità dei vari gruppi incidono sulle relazioni tra i dipendenti e su come il lavoro viene svolto? Se sì, come?

Indagine interna sul clima e la soddisfazione: strumento Sodexo / si effettua ogni 2 anni dal 2003 su tutta la popolazione aziendale/ questionari online o cartacei / Tra le 14 aree analizzate: impegno e fiducia nei confronti dell’azienda, riconoscimento, opportunità di sviluppo e crescita, pari opportunità, diversità interne, rapporto tra i colleghi, comunicazione interna, sicurezza sul lavoro, equilibrio vita-lavoro, ecc. Dopo ogni Indagine, Piano d’azione (diffuso a tutti i dipendenti) per il miglioramento delle aree critiche. L’Indagine successiva costituisce il misuratore dei risultati.

10. Potrebbe descrivere brevemente almeno una buona pratica introdotta dalla Vostra azienda
• per il personale dipendente non nazionale:
• per il personale dipendente senior:

Alcuni ESEMPI
➔ Dal Giugno 2009: partnership con Comune di Milano e A&I in progetti di Tirocini e Borse Lavoro per la riqualificazione e/o l’inserimento lavorativo di cittadini stranieri rifugiati politici (dall’inizio: 20 persone / 4 assunti)
➔ Aprile 2010: indagine pilota su un campione di dipendenti over 50, attraverso interviste sul campo fatte da una nostra ASR, rappresentante sindacale a livello europeo. Presentazione del lavoro all’EWC (European Work Council).
➔ Ottobre 2011 – maggio 2012: corso di italiano per dipendenti stranieri, presso l’Ospedale S. Giuseppe – MI

11. A Suo avviso, il sistema scolastico ha adeguatamente preparato i giovani a lavorare in un contesto multiculturale? In caso di risposta negativa, quali sono le sue raccomandazioni in tal senso?

NOTA /PARERE PERSONALE: Non so se il sistema scolastico prepari adeguatamente i giovani a lavorare in un contesto multiculturale: so che i giovani SONO un contesto multiculturale e non lo vivono come qualcosa a cui occorra “prepararsi”. Prepariamoli, invece a riconoscere, valorizzare e usare il TALENTO, proprio e degli altri. Il contesto multiculturale verrà da sé.

Diverso è un discorso contro l’esclusione e il razzismo: qui non basta il sistema scolastico, ma occorrono normative sociali e regole di convivenza ben precise, per abituare i giovani a trovare “normale” e positiva la diversità. Devono sentire che questo valore è prioritario e voluto dalla collettività/Stato a cui appartengono.

Il futuro delle relazioni di lavoro
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<th>A Suo avviso, come sarà l’azienda del suo settore nel futuro?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Un’azienda sempre più dinamica e innovativa.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>A Suo avviso, come sarà la forza del lavoro del suo settore nel futuro?</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>Sempre più ricca di persone diverse.</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>A Suo avviso, in che misura l’innovazione tecnologica cambierà le aziende e le relazioni di lavoro? In maniera non rilevante. Cosa sta facendo la Sua azienda per rimanere competitiva nei decenni a venire? Us a la tecnologia per controllare i processi.</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>In maniera non rilevante. Cosa sta facendo la Sua azienda per rimanere competitiva nei decenni a venire? Prendiamo in considerazione tutto ciò che è possibile per far evolvere la cultura aziendale e renderla adeguata alle necessità esterne.</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Come la Sua azienda gestisce i cambiamenti? Attraverso una forte leadership che guida il cambiamento culturale e aiuta a renderlo poi operativo.</td>
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**Le Roy Merlin Italia Srl**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>La Vostra azienda in Italia</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nome: LEROY MERLIN ITALIA SRL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sede: Strada 8 Palazzo N 20089 Rozzano Mi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Dimensione:</td>
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<td>4. Fatturato annuo:</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Numero e % dei dipendenti</td>
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<tr>
<td>- under 25: 5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>- tra i 25 e i 50 anni di età: 91,5%</td>
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<td>- over 50: 3,5%</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Numero e % dei dipendenti con origini straniere:</td>
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<tr>
<td>- &lt;30% (X) 68 dipendenti</td>
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<td>- 30-50%</td>
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<td>- &gt;50%</td>
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**In dettaglio:**
- Europea (specificare le nazionalità): 13
- Africana: 11
- Nord-Americana: 2
- Latino-Americana: 17
- Asiatica: 8
- Caucasica: 12
- Medio-Oriente: 5

8. Quando avete cominciato ad avere un personale eterogeneo dal punto di vista etnico, culturale e linguistico?

9. Età media del personale dipendente |
| - totale: 35 |
| - nazionale: 35 |
| - con origini straniere: 29 |

10. Quando avete preso coscienza dell’invecchiamento della vostra forza lavoro?

**Work Organisation della Vostra azienda**

1. Quale è il contratto di lavoro maggiormente presente tra il personale dipendente nazionale? Quale quello tra il personale dipendente con origini straniere? Il contratto è il medesimo per ogni collaboratore. Integriamo la famiglia dei consiglieri di vendita in apprendistato o a tempo indeterminato al 5 livello del ccnl commercio

2. Il personale dipendente con origini straniere si concentra in alcune specifiche professioni/categorie all’interno della Vostra azienda? Prevalentemente come consiglieri di vendita

3. Avete introdotto qualche misura/disposizione specifica per motivi religiosi e di credo (orario di lavoro, luogo di lavoro etc.)? NO

4. Come gestite le differenze culturali e linguistiche all’interno della Vostra azienda? Non lo gestiamo

5. Contratto di lavoro maggiormente utilizzato tra il personale dipendente senior (over 50) contratto a tempo indeterminato ccnl commercio

6. Avete introdotto qualche misura per i dipendenti senior (orari di lavoro, misure ergonomiche etc.)? NO

7. Come gestite la contemporanea presenza di diverse generazioni all’interno della Vostra azienda? Abbiamo attivato un cantiere di riflessione/analisi sul team grazie ad un

Formazione

1. Livello di istruzione del personale dipendente nazionale
   - istruzione primaria: 20%
   - istruzione secondaria: 70%
   - alta formazione: 10%

2. Livello di istruzione del personale dipendente con origini straniere Dato non disponibile
   - istruzione primaria:
   - istruzione secondaria:
   - alta formazione:

3. Quali sono i gruppi etnici che presentano il più basso livello di istruzione? Quali il livello più alto?

4. Quale è il principale skill gap presente all’interno della Vostra azienda? Colpisce qualche gruppo etnico in particolare? Quali strategie avete adottato per superare questo skill gap?


6. Avete programmi formativi specifici per i lavoratori senior? Se sì, cosa riguardano e come vengono strutturati? Oggi non vi è separazione tra junior e senior ma ci basiamo sulle necessità peculiari di ciascuna risorsa.

7. Garantite il trasferimento delle competenze da una generazione all’altra? Se sì, come?

Salute e sicurezza

1. Che tipologia di incidenti e malattie sul lavoro vengono riportati dal
   - personale dipendente nazionale: Diverse tipologie
   - personale dipendente con origini straniere: Come per i collaboratori nazionali
   - personale senior: Non vi è differenziazione

2. Quali misure avete introdotto per ridurre il numero e la gravità degli incidenti e delle malattie sul lavoro riportate dal personale dipendente con origini straniere e da quello senior? Attivato un programma di sicurezza diffuso in tutti i negozi.

Business

1. In che misura l’invecchiamento della popolazione ha cambiato il business della Vostra azienda?

2. In che misura la crescente diversità etnica culturale e linguistica presente nella popolazione italiana ha cambiato il business della Vostra azienda? Oggi abbiamo implementato nelle nostre gamme dei prodotti più adatti ad una popolazione senior (es le vasche da bagno), oppure alcuni prodotti più ricercati dai musulmani (vedi le doccette).

2. Quali sono le principali opportunità/aspetti positivi poste da una forza lavoro più diversa dal punto di vista etnico culturale e linguistico? Quali le principali sfide? Avere una forza lavoro che rappresenta la popolazione presente in un certo bacino facilita il rapporto con i ns clienti, ci fa risalire la peculiarità dei prodotti ricercati da questi ultimi.

3. Quali sono le principali opportunità/aspetti positivi poste da una forza lavoro senior? Quali le principali sfide? Le competenze mature, la conoscenza del contesto e dei codici culturali di una determinata realtà.


7. La Vostra cultura organizzativa favorisce l’apertura al confronto? Se sì, come? Attraverso l’opportunità, per ognuno, di potersi esprimere in modo libero e trasparente. Gli obiettivi aziendali, per esempio, sono definiti dal comitato di direzione ogni anno e tradotti in un piano operativo dalle squadre che costruiscono la strada per poterli raggiungere.

8. La vostra cultura organizzativa favorisce lo sviluppo e la crescita personale? Se sì, come? Attraverso incontri individuali periodici con il proprio responsabile atti ad avere un confronto maturo sulle capacità da allenare maggiormente o le competenze da acquisire, trovando quali potrebbero essere le situazioni di messa in situazione che permettono alla risorsa di provarsi. Inoltre in LM esiste un processo di valutazione e sviluppo che coinvolge tutti i collaboratori e non solo il top management.

9. I leaders della Vostra azienda cercano di capire in che misura le differenze di identità dei vari gruppi incidono sulle relazioni tra i dipendenti e su come il lavoro viene svolto? Se sì, come? Se intendiamo identità come caratteristiche intrinseche dell’individuo direi di sì.

10. Potrebbe descrivere brevemente almeno una buona pratica introdotta dalla Vostra azienda
   - per il personale dipendente non nazionale:
   - per il personale dipendente senior:

11. A Suo avviso, il sistema scolastico ha adeguatamente preparato i giovani a lavorare in un contesto multicultural? In caso di risposta negativa, quali sono le sue raccomandazioni in tal senso? Oggi penso che il sistema scolastico abbia un ruolo importante ma ancora più
importanti sono i messaggi, i principi che una famiglia trasmette. Oggi, soprattutto nelle principali città, i bambini si trovano inevitabilmente a contatto con culture, lingue, origini diverse. L’inclusione vera e propria, per me, però, è ben lungi dall’essere attuata. Trovo che l’opportunità che dobbiamo dare ai bambini ragazzi di effettuare scambi con altre realtà scolastiche nazionali ed estere, la possibilità di fare stage di lavoro fin dalle scuole superiori aiuti moltissimo i ragazzi ad entrare in contatto con realtà variegate e ambiti culturali diversi.

### Il futuro delle relazioni di lavoro

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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>A Suo avviso, come sarà l’azienda del suo settore nel futuro? <strong>Una realtà integrata dove il concetto di diversità non sia legato solo al concetto di rispetto verso l’altro ma di reale inclusione e valorizzazione delle caratteristiche di ciascuno.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>A Suo avviso, come sarà la forza del lavoro del suo settore nel futuro? <strong>Tecnologicamente sempre più preparata e abituata a relazionarsi e ad interagire con i canali più disparati. Come azienda la nostra volontà risorse umane è di lavorare sull’accoglienza – la relazione realmente differenziante che devi creare con il cliente. Rimarrà una delle poche ragioni di venuta in negozio oltre alla possibilità di testare i prodotti.</strong></td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>A Suo avviso, in che misura l’innovazione tecnologica cambierà le aziende e le relazioni di lavoro? <strong>Cosa sta facendo la Sua azienda per rimanere competitiva nei decenni a venire? Come dicevo in precedenza stiamo gestendo la trasformazione della nostra realtà in una realtà cross canale: ossia la possibilità per il cliente di vivere la stessa esperienza di acquisto, riconoscendo la stessa identità di brand indipendentemente dal canale utilizzato per venire in contatto con il negozio fisico – on line – device – etc.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>in questa prima fase stiamo facendo vivere concretamente ai ns collaboratori delle esperienze di acquisto rispetto ad un reale bisogno che potrebbe sorgere loro, facendogli effettivamente provare tutti i canali che ha a disposizione una azienda (fatto esperienze in altre realtà come Apple, Nike, Nespresso, Saturn, etc.).</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>A suo avviso, la transizione verso un’economia verde cambierà i lavori e le competenze? <strong>In caso di risposta affermativa, cosa sta facendo la sua azienda per rimanere competitiva nei decenni a venire? Oggi la nostra realtà è una realtà che vuole contraddistinguersi per l’attenzione alla sostenibilità sociale ed ambientale. Abbiamo lavorato molto sulle gamme per inserire prodotti eco, sulla catena logistica – sul volontariato sociale con missioni attinenti alla ristrutturazione della casa o degli spazi verdi e dove poter mettere a frutto maggiormente le nostre competenze mestiere.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Come la Sua azienda gestisce i cambiamenti?</td>
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Sources and References - Chapter 3


Eurostat. 2011. *EU LFS data extraction*.


Ravagnani, R. 2000. *Information Technology e gestione del cambiamento organizzativo*. Milano: EGEA.


Summary: 1.1. Demography – 1.1.1. The ageing of the workforce – 1.1.2. The increase of racial, ethnic and linguistic diversity in the workforce – 1.2 Technology – 1.2.1. Changing working time – 1.2.2. Changing workspaces – 1.2.3. Changing the way the work is done – 1.3. Economic trends of the future – 1.3.1. Globalisation – 1.3.2. The transition towards a green economy.


In addition to the above-mentioned books, some papers have been produced about the future of work but with a more national focus. About the U.S.: INSTITUTE FOR THE FUTURE. 2007. The future of work perspectives. Palo Alto, California: Institute for the
Future available online at: http://www.iftf.org/uploads/media/SR%201092-A_FoWPerspectives_screen.pdf (accessed February 10, 2011) which better analyses the effects of the above mentioned drivers of change, such as the increase in collaborative and interconnected work, the increase in diversity and the increasing of importance of health and sustainability in the workplace. With a EU perspective it is possible to mention REFLECTION GROUP ON THE FUTURE OF THE EU 2030. 2010. Project Europe 2030: Challenges and Opportunities. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union available online at: http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cms_data/librairie/PDF/QC3210249ENC.pdf (accessed January 15, 2011) which deals with the challenges that the EU is likely to face in 2030 - among them: a global economic crisis, States coming to the rescue of banks, ageing populations threatening the competitiveness of our economies and the sustainability of social models, downward pressure on costs and wages, the challenges of climate change and increasing energy dependence - and how it might address them. With reference to the UK’s context it is possible to mention: THE WORK FOUNDATION. 2009. The Deal in 2020: A Delphi Study of the future of employment relationship, available online at: http://www.theworkfoundation.com/downloadpublication/report/255_255_deal202_050710.pdf (accessed February 10, 2011) which describes the possible future scenarios and ACAS. 2010. The future of workplace relations – An Acas view, Acas Policy Discussion Papers, available online at: http://www.acas.org.uk/media/pdf/n/8/The_Future_of_Workplace_Relations_-_An_Acas_view.pdf (accessed February 10, 2011) which focuses more on workplace relations and the evolution of the role of trade unions. In Italy, the most relevant paper produced on the issue of the future of work is GI GROUP ACADEMY (in collaboration with OD&M Consulting and Gi Formazione). 2011. Il Futuro del lavoro, Il Lavoro del Futuro, according to which the most relevant drivers of change for the future of workplace relations are technological and scientific progress, diversity and climate change. The scarcity of studies at national level - the Italian one - underlines the need of further investigation in this field. This is one of the main reasons behind the current research project. In addition to books and papers, it is possible to identify also studies and reports produced by medium and large companies, employers’ associations or other labour market relevant actors, meaning that the topic is gaining increasingly attention by businesses as well: CISCO. 2011. Transitioning to Workforce 2020: Anticipating and managing the changes that will radically transform working life in the next decade, available online at: http://www.cisco.com/web/learning/employer_resources/pdfs/Workforce_2020_White_Paper.pdf (accessed in December 14, 2011), which focuses its attention on three drivers of change - globalisation, demography and technology; RANDSTAD. 2010. Bridging the gap, which gives some projections about the evolution of labour relations; and THE CONFEDERATION of BRITISH INDUSTRY (CBI). 2009. The Shape of business the next 10 years, available online at http://www.cbi.org.uk/media/934656/2009.11_cbi_shape_of_business_report.pdf (accessed in November 12, 2011).

1.1. Demography
Demography is undoubtedly one of the main drivers of change of current and future labour markets because it is the force that determines the size and the composition of the current and future workforce. In particular, two demographic changes are specifically relevant for the future of work and workplace relations: the “greying” and the “browning” of the workforce, JOHNSON, J.H.Jr. 2006. People and Jobs on the Move: Implications for Economic Development Practitioners & Communities, available at http://narc.org/uploads/File/JimJohnson.pdf (accessed in October 22, 2010). The first one refers to the ageing of the population that, consisting in higher life expectancy and lower fertility rates, will significantly change the age structure of the workforce. The second one refers to the increasing mix of ethnic groups, languages, religions and beliefs and cultures within the population as a consequence of a higher mobility of workers around the globe.

These two demographic changes are identified as major key-factors affecting future labour markets and working environments because, as stated by Marlene G. Fine, «diversity of the workforce is not fixed: over time, the particular mix of cultures will change», FINE, M. G. 1995. Building Successful Multicultural Organizations: Challenges and Opportunities. Westport, CT: Quorum Books, 48.


1.1.1. The ageing of the workforce


The seriousness of the challenges posed by the ageing of the population is highlighted not only by statistical data but also by the increasing attention given at political level. This is visible in the EU since the 1980s. Indeed, considering the EU Parliament’s resolutions about older workers’ condition and problems in the European Community (in OJ n. 66, 15.03.1982, p. 71), subsidies for older workers (OJ n. C 88, 14.04.1986, p. 17), a Community action to improve the social conditions of older people in the Member States and the proclamation of the European Year for older people (OJ n. C 148, 16.06.1986, p. 61), and considering the Communication of European Commission regarding older people (COM(90) 80 def. 24.04.1990), on 26 November 1990 the Council adopted the first important decision in favour of older people, setting a period (1.01.1991-31.12.1993) to carry out at Communitarian level in favour of this age group. Through the transfer of knowledge, ideas and experiences, the aim was to a) lay down those preventive strategies able to face the social and economic consequences deriving from the ageing of the population; b) identify those innovative forms of solidarity between generations and integration of older people into the society; c) value the positive contribution older people can give to the society. In the same decision, the Council declared 1993 the European Year of the Elderly and Solidarity between Generations, COUNCIL, Council Decision of 26 November 1990 on Community actions for the elderly, 91/49/EEC available online at http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:L:1991:028:0029:0031:EN:PDF (accessed November 1, 2011). As it appears in the report draft five years later, COMMISSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES, Proposal for a Council Decision on Community Support for Actions in favour of Older People - Community actions for older people 1991-1993 including the European Year of Older People and Solidarity between Generations: Evaluation Report 1994, COM(95) 53 final/2, Brussels, 5.05.1995 available online at http://aei.pitt.edu/4784/1/4784.pdf (accessed November 1, 2011), following the “White Paper on European Social Policy: A way forward for the Union” (COM (94) 333 final, 27.07.1994), the challenges of the ageing of the population – such as the social and economic dimension, the debate on pensions, competitiveness, discrimination – were already at the core of the European agenda in a way that they lead to the renewal of the support to those actions addressed to older people in the period 1.09.1995-31.12.1999. At the end of this period, and in parallel with the International Year of Older persons declared by the United Nations, UNITED NATIONS, International Year of Older persons 1999 available online at http://www.un.org/ecosocdev/geninfo/ageing/ageing-e.htm (accessed November 1, 2011), the European Commission published the Communication: COMMISSION, Communication from the Commission: Towards a Europe for All Ages – Promoting Prosperity and Intergenerational Solidarity, COM(1999) 221 final, Brussels, 2.05.1999, available online at http://ec.europa.eu/employment_social/social_situation/docs/com221_en.pdf (accessed November 1, 2011) in which it illustrated the consequences of the ageing of the population in terms of employment (HR management practices, age management, early retirement schemes, lifelong learning), social protection (pensions and public expenditures), and social and health services. In the same communication, the European Commission drafted some proposals for a policy strategy affecting the above-mentioned fields, which is mainly based on the strengthening of the cooperation between all the stakeholders involved, and on the solidarity between generations. Indeed, within the framework of the European Employment Strategy, launched with the Amsterdam
Treaty, and more precisely in art. 125 EC Treaty - Title VIII on employment policy, the aim is «to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion», Lisbon European Council 23 And 24 March 2000, Presidency Conclusions available online at http://www.europarl.europa.eu/summits/lis1_en.htm (accessed November 1, 2011). This document put special emphasis on the need to increase employment rates of older people, a point that is also stressed by the Stockholm European Council (23-24 March 2001) that agreed to set an EU target for increasing the average EU employment rate among older women and men (55-64) to 50% by 2010: Stockholm European Council, 2001. Presidency Conclusions, available online at http://www.consilium.europa.eu/ueDocs/cms_Data/docs/pressData/en/ec/00100-r1.%20ann-r1.en1.html (accessed November 1, 2011).

These assessments shed light on a problem well rooted in the European society. It became clear that the balance in European societies rested on a set of inter-generational solidarity relationships, which are more complex than in the past. Young adults live under their parents’ roof for longer, while, increasingly often, the parents have to support dependent elderly people. Equality between men and women, and equal opportunities more generally, would therefore appear to be key conditions for the establishing of a new solidarity relationship between the generations, COMMUNICATION FROM THE COMMISSION TO THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT, THE COUNCIL, THE EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE AND THE COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS, Promoting Solidarity Between Generations, COM(2007) 244 final, Brussels, 10.05.2007 available online at http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2007:0244:FIN:EN:PDF (accessed November 1, 2011).

encourage cooperation and synergies (for a review of all information and awareness activities promoted at European and national level before the European Year, please consider SANTE MARCHETTI, S. and G. SCARPETTI, 2010. “Le campagne di comunicazione sull’active ageing in Europa,” Collana Strumenti Isfol, N. 2010/9, available online at http://archivio.isfol.it/DocEditor/test/File/2011/Strumenti/Strumenti_Isfol_n%209_2010%20(2).pdf (accessed on November 15, 2011)); c) to offer a framework for commitment and concrete action for the adoption of innovative solutions; d) to promote activities which will help to combat age discrimination, to overcome age-related stereotypes and to remove barriers, particularly with regard to employability (art.2).


The ageing issue and the need to change economic and welfare patterns in order to transform the challenges into opportunities for growth and development is further stressed in the most recent COMMUNICATION FROM THE COMMISSION TO THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT, THE COUNCIL, THE EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE AND THE COMMITTEE OF THE REGIONS, Towards a Job-rich recovery, COM(2012) 173 final, Strasbourg, 18.04.2012, available online at


- The issue of the ageing of the population and the need of promoting active ageing policies has led various stakeholders to consider the employment and working conditions of older people in order to better enable their inclusion in the labour market. However, this issue encountered a first difficulty lying in the definition of who is “old” and “older worker” as pointed out by CEDEFOP. 2010. Working and ageing: Emerging theories and empirical perspectives. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, 60, available online at: http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/EN/Files/3053_en.pdf (accessed on December 1, 2011); ISFOL. 2011. Le azioni locali a supporto del prolungamento della vita attiva. Rome: Collana I Libri del Fondo Sociale Europeo, n. 159, 17-28; and CEDEFOP. 2006. Promoting lifelong learning for older workers: Promoting and international overview. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the

employment situation of older people and seeing how it is possible to enable their full participation in the labour market. Indeed, the real challenge of the ageing of the population lays not so much in the increase of the share of people over 65, neither in the increase of the old age dependency ratio. The real challenge is represented by the increase of the economic dependency ratio, defined as the unemployed and pensioners as a percentage of the employed. In other words, the lack of balance between the number of taxpayers and those entitled to pension. Indeed, the current European labour market cannot count on the full participation – and therefore contribution - of young people (1 out of 4 is unemployed), women (in 2011 their employment rate was 62.3%) and immigrants. This situation makes the pension system more unsustainable: EUROPEAN COMMISSION, White Paper: An Agenda for Adequate, Safe and Sustainable Pensions, COM(2012) 55 final, Brussels, 16.02.2012, 4; DIRECTORATE-GENERAL FOR EMPLOYMENT, SOCIAL AFFAIRS, AND INCLUSION OF THE EUROPEAN COMMISSION AND SOCIAL PROTECTION COMMITTEE. 2012. Pension Adequacy in the European Union: 2010-2050, available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=752&furtherPubs=yes&langId=en (accessed on November 16, 2012).


- Pension systems are undoubtedly one of the main factors affecting the labour supply and the economic dependency ratio. The normal and early pension eligibility ages are key parameters for employment rates of this age group, as stressed by the European recommendations to increase the retirement age and discourage early retirement schemes, EUROPEAN COMMISSION, White Paper: An Agenda for Adequate, Safe and Sustainable Pensions, COM(2012) 55 final, Brussels, 16.02.2012. Indeed, in observance of the White Paper, several European countries already reformed their pensions systems: Hungary and Sweden abolished their early retirement schemes while Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Italy, Poland, Portugal and Spain made more difficult to access to these schemes. The most common measure adopted by the


1.1.2. The increase of racial, ethnic and linguistic diversity in the workforce

The phenomenon of the increasing racial, ethnic and linguistic diversity of the workforce, which has been called as the «browning» of the workforce, JOHNSON, J.H. Jr., W.C. Jr. FARRELL and C. GUINN. 1997. “Immigration Reform and the Browning of America: Tensions, Conflicts and Community Instability in Metropolitan Los Angeles,” in International Migration Review, vol. 3, 1055-1095, is one of the main demographic trends expected to significantly affect labour markets and work organizations in the coming decades. This demographic trend is the consequence of the increase in migration flows, high fertility rates among foreign women and the increase of mixed couples and interracial marriages. For a better picture about migration flows see OECD. 2012. Connecting with Emigrants: a Global Profile of Diasporas. OECD Publishing, available at: http://www.iadb.org/intal/intalcdi/PE/2012/11326.pdf (accessed on January 28, 2013); UNITED NATIONS, DEPARTMENT OF

237
In Europe, the “browning” of the workforce is mainly the consequence of, first of all, the increase in migration flows within the EU and from countries outside the EU, HOLLAND, D., T. FIC, A. RINCON-AZNAR, L. STOKES, P. PALUCHOWSKI. 2011. Labour mobility within the EU – the impact of enlargement and the functioning of

In the last twenty years Italy, traditionally an emigration country, attracted large share of foreign people. In 2010 there were about 4.235.000 foreign citizens among which people from Rumania, Albania, Morocco, China and Ukraine represented more than 50% of the total foreign population living in Italy, ISTAT. 2011. *Noi Italia: 100 statistiche per capire il Paese in cui viviamo. Edizione 2011 (nota per la stampa).* Rome: Istat, 3 available online at: http://www3.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20110119_01/ (accessed on January 20, 2011). In the same year there were 2 million of foreign people working in the Italian labour market, RETE EUROPEA MIGRAZIONI EMN, MINISTERO DELL’INTERNO, CENTRO IDOS. 2010. *Mercato occupazionale e immigrazione.* Rome: Edizioni IDOS, available online at: http://ssai.interno.it/download/allegati1/rosa-6_thirdemnitalyreport_labourmarketandmigration_2010_ita.pdf (accessed on February 15, 2011). In 2011 there were 4.570.300 foreign citizens living in Italy accounting for 7.5% of the total population. The majority, 3.235.500, were citizens of non-EU countries, while the remaining 1.334.800 were citizens of other EU Member States. Generally speaking, foreign people living in Italy were mainly born in Romania (16.9% equal to 904.000), Albania (7.9% equal to 421.400) and Morocco (7.3% equal to 392.100). According to most recent data, on January 1 2012, the foreign population resident in Italy was about 4.9 million people, ISTAT. 2013. *Popolazione e famiglie,* available online at http://www.iastat.it/popolazione (accessed on March 19, 2013). ISTAT projections foresee an increase of the foreign population in Italy. According to the most possible scenario, by 2031 foreigners will be 10.7 million people (+ 1.3%), ISTAT. 2008. *Previsioni demografiche: 1° gennaio 2007-1° gennaio 2051.* Rome: Istat, 7, available online at: http://www3.istat.it/salastampa/comunicati/non_calendario/20080619_00/testointegrale_20080619.pdf (accessed on January 25, 2011) and see also ISTAT. 2012. *Natalità e fecondità della popolazione residente.* Istat statistiche report, available online at: http://www.istat.it/it/files/2012/11/nati-2011.pdf (accessed on February 3, 2013).


This demographic change has increasingly attracted the attention of policy makers who, however, tended to focus more on migration issues rather than its intercultural implications for labour markets and work organizations (About the intercultural implications see Chapter 2). The relevance of this demographic change at international level is demonstrated by, first of all, the United Nations High-Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development which took place in 2006, 2008, 2011 and in 2013 (see http://www.un.org/esa/population/migration/hlmimd2013/highlevelmim2013.htm). Secondly, by several reports and resolutions adopted by the UN Secretary-General among which: UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY AND ECONOMIC SOCIAL COMMITTEE, International Migration and Development, 3.08.2012; UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY AND ECONOMIC SOCIAL COMMITTEE, Protection of migrants, 3.08.2011; UNITED NATIONS GENERAL ASSEMBLY AND ECONOMIC SOCIAL COMMITTEE, Globalisation and interdependence: sustained, inclusive and equitable economic growth for a fair and more equitable globalisation for all, including job creation, 1.08.2011 (for the resolutions adopted before 2011 please see: http://www.un.org/esa/population/migration/ga/index.html). Finally, by other UN Declarations collected and available online at: http://www.un.org/esa/population/migration/index.html.


- To better understand the challenges posed by a more heterogeneous workforce,

- The employment situation of foreign workers in Italy is framed by several studies and research produced by national institutions. According to the most recent ISTAT’s publications, the foreign workforce represent 10.2% of the total workforce. The employment rate of foreign people (66.2%) is higher than the one of Italians (60.7%) and the same can be said as for the unemployment rate, which is 12.1% (foreigners) and 8.0% (Italians). On the contrary, the productivity rate of foreign people is higher than the one of the Italian workforce: 29.1% versus 38.6%, ISTAT. 2013. Noi Italia: 100 statistiche per capire il Paese in cui viviamo. Rome: Istat, available online at: http://www.istat.it/it/archivio/80433 (accessed on February 1, 2013), which updates the previous editions (2012 and 2011). A recent picture of the working conditions of foreign people living in Italy is given by 2013. Il rapporto annuale: Gli immigrati nel mercato del lavoro in Italia, 104-114, available online at:

- As stated in the previous sections, outside the European boundaries, the “browning trend” is mostly visible in the U.S.: CENTER FOR AMERICAN PROGRESS IMMIGRATION TEAM. 2012. Everything You Need to know About Our Foreign-Born Population, Current Immigration Policy, and the Voting Power of New Americans; CÁRDENAS, V., J. AJINKYA and D. GIBBS LÈGER. 2011.
Progress 2050 – New Ideas for a Diverse America, available online at: 

1.2. Technology

- Technological change is recognized as one of the main drivers of change affecting labour market – in terms of the set of skills required by companies (as reported by MANYIKA, J., S. LUND, B. AUGUSTE, and S. RAMASWAMY (McKinsey Global Institute). 2012. Help wanted: the future of work in advanced economies, available online at: http://www.mckinsey.com/insights/employment_and_growth/future_of_work_in_advanced_economies, accessed on April 2, 2013) – and work organizations – in terms of working time, workspaces and how the work is get done. This is not something new. Already twenty years ago JOHNSTON, W.B. and A.H. PACKER. 1987. Workforce 2000: Works and Workers for the Twenty-first Century. Indianapolis: Hudson Institute, 32-37 identified five technologies of greatest impact: information storage and processing; communications; advanced materials; biotechnologies and superconductivity. Already at that time, it was possible to recognize that these technological changes were gradually overcoming the barriers of time and distances that have organized work through the centuries. And it was possible to forecast that technology would enable workers to choose where and when to work and bring the necessity for constant learning and constant adaptation. Ten years later, JUDY, R.W. and C. D’AMICO. 1999. Workforce 2000: Work and Workers in the 21st Century, Indianapolis: Hudson Institute, 13-15, 127 reconfirmed those predictions. However, the authors put more emphasis on the fact that the technological change’s novelty lies not so much in its existence but rather in its accelerating pace. Technological change brings both winners and losers among industries, companies, occupations and individuals. It affects workplaces and workforce in multiple and contradictory ways. It alters the way work is done, the goods and services that the economy generates. As regard to the workforce, it requires updated set of skills, while for organizations, it needs to make sure they select the right tool for the right job (as showed by MORGAN, J. 2012. The Collaborative Organization. New York: McGrawHill, 105-132, there is a wide range of technological tools that organization can use: full-scale enterprise collaboration platforms; wikis; blogs; prediction market platform; forums; ideation platform; RSS Feeds; microblogs; social e-mail; collaborative file sharing; video) Therefore, the understanding of technological change’s implications, both at labour market level as well as at company level, is crucial for those change management practices that
companies will have to adopt in the near future in order to adapt to the evolving context and transform challenges into opportunities for growth and competitiveness.

- As reported by KOLDING, M. and V. KROA. 2007. *WHITE PAPER: e-Skills The Key to Employment and Inclusion in Europe*. London: IDC, ICT skills are becoming an important entry ticket to the job market and crucial for people that want to move into better jobs. This is relevant across both blue- and white-collar positions. Future demand for skills goes beyond basic skills to advanced and “e-business skills” and will continue to grow as a majority of staff is expected to possess them. This situation will become even more significant as there is great consensus about the belief that ICT skill levels of the workforce are crucial for the organisations’ future in terms of competitiveness, innovation and growth. However, the increasing requirements for more sophisticated skills may not be met so easily. Organisations clearly do not perceive that the education systems in the different countries are supplying all the necessary skills - and they also claim not to have the time or money to provide their existing employees with the necessary training. KOLDING, M., C. ROBINSON and M. AHORLU. 2009. *White Paper: Post Crisis: e-Skills are Needed to Drive Europe’s Innovation Society*. London: IDC, available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/ict/files/idc_wp_november_2009_en.pdf (accessed on July 2, 2012) report that the 2008 economic crisis has increased the urgency to address gaps between available ICT skills and what the market demands. This does not concern ICT professionals alone, as ICT skills are clearly needed for any individual to be a marketable and attractive participant in the European workforce, almost regardless of job role and industry sector. The continued decrease in enrolment in science and math education has contributed to the lack of ICT professional skills in Europe. Furthermore, ICT graduates need to enter the workforce with much stronger business understanding and “soft” skills, as well as knowledge of leading-edge technology, such as cloud computing and Web 2.0. This requires close ongoing collaboration between the ICT industry and the education sector.

activities with respect to formal and industry-based education and dealt with e-skills, which include “ICT user skills” (in particular digital literacy of citizens) and “ICT practitioner skills” and “e-business skills”. The study reports an increasing lack of e-skills in the European workforce resulting in a growing shortage of highly qualified ICT practitioners on the one hand and still insufficient digital literacy levels among workers and citizens in many countries which is acting as a barrier to economic growth, competitiveness and employment in these countries on the other. A clear message is that industry desperately needs highly skilled ICT practitioners and Europe needs more young people to become ICT practitioners to supply future increases in demand. The report EUROPEAN COMMISSION. 2010. Monitoring e-Skills Demand and Supply in Europe, available online at: http://www.eskills-monitor.eu/documents/e-Skills%20Monitor2010_brochure.pdf (accessed on July 2, 2013) monitors and tries to understand better the evolution of the supply and demand of e-skills (ICT practitioners’ skills) in Europe, in order to anticipate change and facilitate dialogue between policy makers and leading stakeholders, and to reduce e-skills shortages, gaps and mismatches. This reports forecasts that, as soon as economic growth resumes, demand for ICT practitioners will rapidly exceed supply again, whichever scenario is assumed. ICT practitioners will be in high demand in the future, which urges the overcome of the existing skill mismatches widespread in the EU, see EU SKILLS PANORAMA ANALYTICAL HIGHLIGHT. 2012. Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) sector, available online at: http://euskillspanorama.ec.europa.eu/docs/AnalyticalHighlights/ICT_Sector_en.pdf (accessed on July 2, 2013), and HÜSING, T., W.B. KORTE, N. FONSTAD, B. LANVIN, D. VAN WELSUM, G. CATTANEO, M. KOLDING, R. LIFONTI, 2013. E-Leadership e-Skills for Competitiveness and Innovation Vision, Roadmap and Foresight Scenarios. Bonn: Empirica, available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/enterprise/sectors/ict/files/eskills/vision_final_report_en.pdf (accessed on July 2, 2013).

- At company level, technological change has mainly affected the role working place and working time have been playing in the last decades. As showed by DONKIN, R. 2011. Il futuro del lavoro. Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, 169-277, technology has allowed new forms of communication, meeting and work organization. Today, employees have more the possibility to meet in virtual spaces – which reduces travel costs and waste of time; have a wide range of new communication tools (smart phones, instant messaging, online platforms etc.) and sharing material. Therefore, in some cases the laptop, or the smartphone, becomes the “real office” making the traditional working place a less important place where to perform a job. The author also underlines how the new use of social networks have change the way people communicate their key messages and strategies, do networking and create partnerships, find new people to hire and new occasions to size. In addition to the real world there is a virtual world where no hierarchy takes place: the real competitors are not those high ranking but those that have the most innovative idea. It doesn’t’ matter who you are: what really matters is your idea. GRATTON, L. 2011. The Shift: The future of Work is Already Here. London: Collins, 72-77, 119-120 also speaks about the force of technology when combine with certain assets. Indeed, traditionally, the productivity of work has been transformed primarily by innovations around technology. From 2000 onwards, the sources of productivity gains shifted from pure technology to a combination of technology and
organizational assets such a culture of innovation and teamwork. Cloud computing, mobile communications and collaborative computing, by creating multiple relationships, demonstrated to have the potential to simplify and share work. Technology has complemented the skills and experience of the employee in a way that, in a world of more and more complex technology, it is the highly skilled employees who will always find work. It is not just e-books and e-learning programmes that helped people across the world to reach their potential: it is also the self-generated content in website and webpages. Finally, technological developments made it increasingly easy to coordinate across the horizontal, without always resorting to vertical, hierarchical coordination. In other words, the web of devises, services and applications enabled organizations and people to work more collaboratively and efficiently in the Internet era. This had led to the emergence of “Enterprise 2.0”, “Leadership 2.0.” and “Management 2.0” (see paragraph 1.2.3), which can bring some advantages but also pose new challenges. MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 20-21 are the authors that better show the two sides of technology. Technology can equally be used to extend work into times and places that people would prefer to reserve for their leisure. It can be the catalyst for new work styles that empower employees (see EUROSTAT. 2009. Reconciliation between work, private and family life in the European Union. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, available at: http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_OFFPUB/KS-78-09-908/EN/KS-78-09-908-EN.PDF, last accessed on March 10, 2011), but it can also be an instrument for their employer to monitor and control them closely. It allows people to work more effectively but it can also distract them from their jobs. So, according to the authors, it is not the technology that changes our working lives, it is the way we choose to use it.

INSTITUTE FOR THE FUTURE. 2007. The future of work perspectives. California: Technology Horizons Program, 5-10, available online at: http://www.iftf.org/uploads/media/SR%201092-A_FoWPerspectives_screen.pdf (accessed on May 21, 2011) underlines another relevant implication of new technologies: the creation of a generation of amplified individuals, namely “workplace superheros”, who are highly social, collective, improvisational and augmented. To see other implications at company level deriving from technological change please consider also: CISCO. 2011. Transitioning to Workforce 2020: Anticipating and managing the changes that will radically transform working life in the next decade, 10-11, available online at: http://www.cisco.com/web/learning/employer_resources/pdfs/Workforce_2020_White_Paper.pdf (accessed on May 22, 2012), which identifies the following technological transformations that promise to greatly affect the workforce: collaborative tools that extend to stakeholders both within and outside the organizations; technologies that make easier for users to create, upload and consume video content; work environments that become direct extension of the human senses; more emphasis on instantaneous multiplatform content access; multisensory communication techniques; time-shifting technologies; knowledge repositories; mediating technologies.

1.2.1. Changing working time

• New information and communication technologies have made work less
dependent on time. Given the mobility and the level of connectivity of these technological tools, the work can be done at anytime, allowing greater flexibility to both employers and employees. Employers can rely on a “24hours workforce” while employees can better organize their time and conciliate their needs. In other words, flexibility is enhanced. As reported by MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 29-42, flexible working has been around for 40 years in various forms. It started with “flexi-time”, which gave people the opportunity to vary their hours within strictly limited boundaries. See also EUROFOUND. 2012. Foundation Findings: Working Time in the EU. Belgium, available at: http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2011/45/en/1/EF1145EN.pdf (last accessed on January 3, 2013). Today, if an organization employs people or any contract other than the conventional one, whether it is part time, job sharing, term-time work and so on, it is likely to be labelled “flexible working”. However, these various flexible hours options simply shift the time that the work is performed. The new change consists in the fact that Internet and the new technological tools transformed employees in “free agents”, who can choose a lifestyle without the ties and constraint of conventional employment, in a way that, as reported by DONKIN, R. 2011. Il futuro del lavoro. Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, 184, boundaries between full-time workers and those who work on a project or joint venture basis are becoming more permeable.

Working time is changing also under another perspective. Work is an activity that produces a desired result: it is performed to achieve outcomes, which contribute to the enterprise that has engaged the worker. In this regards a new approach is emerging: the amount of time is put in achieving the result is becoming more irrelevant. Achievements and results-based working count more: they are becoming the core element of future work, MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 40.

1.2.2. Changing workspaces

- ICTs have increasingly changed the way people live and work making the working place a less relevant place. GOLDEN, T. and A. FROMEN. 2011. “Does it matter where your manager works? Comparing managerial work mode (traditional, telework, virtual) across subordinate work experiences and outcomes,” in Human Relations, 2011, n 64(II), 1451-1475 speak about the “ubiquous work”: something that can be performed everywhere and at any time. NOONAN, M.C. and J.L. GLASS (Bureau for Labour Statistics), 2012. “The hard truth about telecommuting,” in Monthly Labour Review, June 2012, available online at: http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2012/06/art3full.pdf (accessed on October 26, 2012) illustrates the most current debateable aspects connected to the work performed in remote (such as the extension of working hours and the intensification of work), while the positive aspects and the benefits – such as the saving of wasted time, the ability to fit work around the rest of the life and improved output – are better underlined by THOMSON, P. 2010. Working at home: The productivity tool of the future, available online at: http://www.wisework.co.uk/sites/default/files/resources/HomeworkerProductivityReport.pdf (accessed on June 5, 2012). These advantages and drawbacks reasonably lead to the question “Does the office have a future?”, MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON.

1.2.3. Changing the way the work is done

- As reported by IBM INSTITUTE FOR BUSINESS VALUE. 2010. *A new way of working*, available online at: ftp://public.dhe.ibm.com/software/solutions/soa/pdfs/GBE03295-USEN-00.pdf (accessed on May 22, 2012) because of an increasingly complicated and constantly changing business environment, organizations are under intense pressure to get work done faster, cheaper and more effectively. The basic mechanics of work are being redefined. “Work” is no longer bounded by coworker proximity or time zone. It involves a much broader set of “workers” – not just employees, suppliers and partners, but customers, freelancers and an increasingly capable network of smart devices and interconnected systems, all tied together by business processes that span organizations, time and distance – and goes beyond the traditional way work has got done. Technology has undoubtedly introduced new ways of working that have lead to new form of organization and collaboration. A literature review about those new ways of working introduced as a consequence of technological change is given by BLOK, M., L. GROENESTEIJN, C. VAN DEN BERG and P. VINK. 2011. “New Ways Of Working: A Proposed Framework And Literature Review,” in *Ergonomics and Health Aspects*, 3–12, who, in particular, try to give a framework about the relationships between the new ways of working and business objectives. Internet has introduced new forms of working that, being dynamic, followed web’s evolution. One of the most striking change has been the shift from “Web 1.0” - is a system of interlinked hypertext documents accessed via the Internet (created by Tim Berners lee in 1989) to “Web 2.0”, a term coined by Tim O’Reilly in 2004, in which the user does not only read but contributes its self to the online content. At company level, it is possible to have an “Enterprise 2.0” when “Enterprise 2.0” companies buy or build those platforms in order to make visible the practices and outputs of their knowledge workers, MCAFEE, A.P. 2006. “Enterprise 2.0: The Dawn of Emergent Collaboration,” in MIT Sloan Management Review, Vol. 47 No.43, Spring 2006, available online at: http://adamkcarson.files.wordpress.com/2006/12/enterprise_20_-_the_dawn_of_emergent_collaboration_by_andrew_mcafee.pdf (accessed on July 4, 2013).
In the daily working life, the emerging key words – and practices – are “collaboration” and “social”. MORGAN, J. 2012. *The Collaborative Organization*. New York: McGrawHill, 16ss, explains the benefits deriving from collaboration via emergent collaborative software: knowledge sharing and transfer; alignment; identifying subject matter experts; thinking out loud; listening; cross-department, cross-company, and cross-boundary communication; collective intelligence and memory; inspiring employees and building trust; identifying new opportunities and ideas. All of them will have a role in the future.

### 1.3. Economic trends of the future

#### 1.3.1. Globalisation


- At labour market level, Fröbel et al. were one of the first academics to discuss the new international division of labour being generated by the relocation of low-wage labour-intensive production from developed capitalist economies to developing industrializing countries and enclaves, FRÖBEL, F., J. HEINRICHS and O. KREY. 1980. *The New International Division of Labour*. Cambridge: CUP. To this regard, L.C. Bresser Pereira added that this international division of labour between rich and middle-income countries follows a simple rule: tasks with higher value added per capita, which are not standardized or codified and require more skilled labour, would be performed by rich countries that have plenty of this kind of labour, whereas standardized or codified tasks would be transferred to low-wage workers in developing countries. This translates into an increase in inequality, but its origin lies not only in globalisation but also in advanced technology, which further divide who can catch up economic growth and who cannot, BRESSER PEREIRA, L.C. 2010. *Globalisation and Competition: Why Some

• FINKELSTEIN, M.S. 2004. *Net-works: workplace change in the global economy*. New York: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers Inc. offers a perspective on the discussion of how the global economy impacts the workplace (he takes into consideration the U.S. context). He proposes that there is a need to control over how that process unfolds and influences our working environment. He stresses that sociological insight is not only useful but also necessary in an ongoing organizational transformation that calls for increasing employee-management cooperation in order to have a more efficient working place. A perspective on companies is also given by SIMON, H. and D. ZATTA. 2011. *I trend economici del futuro: come cambieranno le imprese nel prossimo decennio*. Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, who outline how companies will evolve in the coming decades. However, it is GRATTON, L. 2011. *The Shift: The future of Work is Already Here*. London: Collins, 120-123, who give a better framework about the future implications for labour markets and companies. According to her, in the growing globalized world, where there is a wider range of good, services, products, to survive companies will have to continuously improve and keep their eyes alert for the next opportunity and well as strive to innovate and refresh their offer. This works for the future of consumers, but it also has implications for the future of workers. Indeed, the push for choice and cost advantage has impacted on world competition as more and more work is moved to areas of low wages, putting continuous pressure on workers as they compete with thousands of others across the globe. Multinational companies, competing for talent around the world, can gain from this new trend, MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. *Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 107. Trompenaars and Prud’Homme van Reine add that the impact of is that most companies must be successful in environments with more cultural diversity. That does not work with a corporate culture based on a set of values that only fits in one culture. The solution lies in not just funding a balance between global corporate culture and the necessary adaptation to local management practices, the culture of local employees, and the local market situations. A reconciled solution requires learning from local cultures on a continuous basis in order to improve the global effectiveness of the corporate culture. This is because globalisation imposes seemingly conflicting demands on companies: combining global effectiveness in production, distribution and service; exploitation of know-how on worldwide scale; integrating local managers into the global management infrastructure, and adapting to local circumstances and needs, TROMPENAARS, F. and P. PRUD’HOMME VAN REINE. 2004. *Managing Change Across Corporate Cultures*. West Sussex: Capstone Publishing Ltd, 43, 105.

### 1.3.2. The transition towards a green economy

March 19, 2012)), professions and skills by: OECD. 2012. OECD Environmental Outlook to 2050. OECD Publishing, available online at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264122246-en (accessed on March 12, 2012) which, drawing on the policy framework established by the OECD’s Green Growth Strategy argue that a specific set of policies – making pollution more costly than greener alternatives, valuing and pricing the natural assets and ecosystem services, removing environmentally harmful subsidies and encouraging green innovation - are able to tackle environmental challenges and deliver jobs; GRATTON, L. 2011. The future of Work is Already Here. London: Collins, 23-50, 95-96 according to which renewed interest in sustainability and widespread adoption of more energy-efficient ways of living will have a profound impact on the way that work gets done. For instance, the focus on the reduction of carbon footprints to limit unnecessary energy expenditure can be achieved through virtual working and e-commuting, as also demonstrated by some companies experiences reported by MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 61. Indeed, according to these two authors, environmental sustainability is one of the factors pushing companies to cut space and encourage remote working. The importance of sustainability for the future enterprise is also recognized by THE CONFEDERATION of BRITISH INDUSTRY (CBI). 2009. The Shape of business the next 10 years, 5 available online at: http://www.cbi.org.uk/media/934656/2009.11_cbi_shape_of_business_report.pdf (accessed in November 12, 2011). According to this study, businesses are already recognizing the need to move to a low-carbon economy, reduce resource use and integrate sustainability, which in turn are essential for their future competitiveness and attractiveness (see also UNEP. 2011. Towards a Green Economy: Pathways to Sustainable Development and Poverty Eradication, available online at: http://www.unep.org/greeneconomy/Portals/88/documents/ger/ger_final_dec_2011/Green%20EconomyReport_Final_Dec2011.pdf (last accessed on April 5, 2012)). INSTITUTE FOR THE FUTURE. 2007. The future of work perspectives. California: Technology Horizons Program, available online at: http://www.iftf.org/uploads/media/SR%201092-A_FoWPerspectives_screen.pdf (accessed on January 12, 2012) describes how the enterprise of the future will be “sustainable” in the way that today is “economical”. Today, a growing number of organizations are bringing sustainability from the edge to the centre of their enterprise, a phenomenon that impacts industry, organizations and people. Interest in sustainability is growing also at individual level. Consumer products that are environmental friendly are increasingly popular, and more significant is the growing availability of products or services designed to monitor and reduce personal energy consumption and carbon generation.


However, it is with the financial and economic crisis that the green economy has been identified as one of the main levers through which it is possible to have not just a more sustainable future but also a better and more inclusive labour market on the assumption that the transition towards a green economy creates more and better jobs, see COUNCIL OF THE EUROPEAN UNION. 2008. Energy and Climate Change – Elements of the Final Compromise, 17215/08, Brussels 12.12.2008, available online at http://www.consilium.europa.eu/uedocs/cmsUpload/st17215.en08.pdf (last accessed on February 10, 2011) and ILO. 2009. World of Work Report 2009: The Global Jobs Crisis and Beyond. Geneva: International Labour Organization (International Institute for Labour Studies) available online at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/documents/publication/wcms_118384.pdf (accessed on September 30, 2010). The public opinion started to speak about the emergence of “green jobs” which definition and labour potentialities present some contradictory aspects as better argued by RUSTICO, L. and M. TIRABOSCHI, 2010. “Le prospettive occupazionali della green economy tra mito e realtà,” in Diritto delle Relazioni Industriali, N. 4/XX – 2010, Milano: Giuffrè Editore. The potential of green jobs at the EU level is described by COMMUNICATION FROM THE COMMISSION, Energy For The Future: Renewable Sources Of Energy, COM(97)599, 1997, 9 available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/energy/library/599fi_en.pdf (accessed on February 3, 2013) and at


• The political debate and emphasis given to green jobs and green economy gave birth to several studies and research in this field, such as, for instance: CAMBRIDGE ECONOMETRICS, GHK and WARWICK INSTITUTE FOR EMPLOYMENT RESEARCH. 2011. Studies on sustainability issues – Green jobs; trade and labour, Final report for the European Commission, DG Employment, Cambridge Econometrics, Cambridge.


• As pointed out by UNEP et al., 2008. Green Jobs. Towards Decent Work in a Sustainable Low-Carbon World, 3, available online at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/@ed_emp/@emp_ent/documents/publication/wcms_158727.pdf (accessed on September 15, 2010), some additional jobs will be created (as in the manufacturing of pollution-control devices added to existing production equipment), some employment will be substituted (as in shifting from fossil fuels to renewables), and certain jobs may be eliminated without direct replacement (as
when packaging materials are discouraged or banned and their production is discontinued. However, it would appear that many existing jobs (especially such as plumbers, electricians, metal workers, and construction workers) will simply be transformed and redefined as day-to-day skills, work methods, and profiles are greened. In the fourth case we speak about “green jobs” even if there has been a lack of agreement about their definition, which hindered any certain measurement of their full potential, ILO. 2012. Methodologies for assessing green jobs, Policy Brief, 27 available online at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_ent/documents/publication/wcms_176462.pdf (accessed on April 1, 2012). The definition given by the OECD according to which green jobs can be considered all activities that measure, prevent, limit, minimize, or correct environmental damage to water, air, and soil, as well as problems related to waste, noise, and ecosystems (including activities, cleaner technologies, products, and services that reduce environmental risk and minimize pollution and resource use), OECD. 2004. Environment and Employment: An Assessment, Working Party on National Environmental Policy. OECD Publishing, 6, available online at: http://www.oecd.org/env/tools-evaluation/31951962.pdf (accessed on September 10, 2010) has been criticized by Cedefop, according to which this is a too broad definition that hinder any quantitative and qualitative measurement, CEDEFOP. 2010. Skills for Green Jobs. European Synthesis Report, 13, available online at: http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/EN/Files/3057_en.pdf# (accessed on September 10, 2010). This opinion is shared by the OECD according to which it is not possible to speak about “green jobs” as “one-size-fits-all” MARTINEZ FERNANDEZ, C., C. HINOJOSA, G. MIRANDA, 2010. Greening Jobs and Skills. The local labour market implications of addressing climate change. OECD Publishing, 18, available online at http://www.oecd.org/cfe/leed/44683169.pdf (accessed on January 3, 2011). It appears that the most correct definition is the one given by the EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE, Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee on “Green jobs” (2011/C 48/04) available online at: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2011:048:0014:0020:IT:PDF (accessed on July 7, 2011) and EUROPEAN ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL COMMITTEE, Opinion of the European Economic and Social Committee on ‘Promoting sustainable green jobs for the EU energy and climate change package’ (own-initiative opinion) (2011/C 44/18) available online at: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=OJ:C:2011:044:0110:0117:EN:PDF (accessed on accessed on July 7, 2011) according to which today it is better to speak about “greening jobs” rather than “green jobs”. Despite this debate about the definition, there are no doubts that “green jobs /greening of jobs” are becoming a reality: a number of successful experiences from around the world are available here: ILO. 2013. Green jobs becoming a reality: Progress and outlook 2013. Geneva: International Labour Office, available online at: http://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_ent/documents/publication/wcms_213586.pdf (accessed on June 5, 2013).

- As stated before, the unclear definition of “green jobs” hindered quantitative and qualitative assessments, for a general framework in the EU see EUROFOUND, 2013. Greening of industries in the EU: Anticipating and managing the effects of quantity and quality of jobs. Dublin: Eurofound, available online at: http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/pubdocs/2012/48/en/1/EF1248EN.pdf (accessed on
Chapter 2
Company of the Future: New Challenges

Summary: 2.1. The new workforce – 2.1.1. New challenges in terms of: work organization – 2.1.2. ... Health and safety – 2.1.3. ... Learning and training – 2.2. The new work office – 2.2.1. Flexible time and labour – 2.2.2. Flexible space – 2.2.3. New communication – 2.3. The evolving employment relationships – 2.3.1. Between employer, employee and trade unions – 2.3.2. Rewarding work not time.

2.1. The new workforce


The implications of the two above mentioned demographic changes need further consideration today because of the challenges they will pose in terms of work organization (see among the others: EUROFOUND. 2009. Working conditions in the European Union: work organisation. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities), health and safety, learning and skills development which knowledge is essential for companies to anticipate changes and get prepared without losing their competitiveness.

2.1.1. New challenges in terms of: work organization

• In view of an older workforce, flexible working arrangements (such as part-time) and measures to increase working time flexibility (working time accounts,

- A more heterogeneous workforce - in terms of cultures, ethnic groups, religions and languages – can pose both challenges and opportunities for companies’ work organizations. Taylor Cox was one of the first academic researchers to elaborate an Interactional Model of Cultural Diversity (IMCD), which explains the impact of diversity on organizational configurations taking into account the interactions of individuals and their environment, COX, T. Jr. 1993. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research&Practice. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 1-10. Cultural diversity is an asset to organizations that can be used to enhance organizational performance. However, there is also evidence that heterogeneity in workgroups has certain disadvantages compared to homogeneous workgroups. Everything depends on how diversity is managed (see Chapter 3). Among the potential performance benefits of diversity, Taylor Cox reports: attracting and retaining the best available human talent; enhanced marketing efforts; higher creativity and innovation; better problem solving; more organizational flexibility, COX, T. Jr. 1993. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research&Practice. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 27-38. Kossek and Lobel add the following benefits: enhanced profitability; adaptive/flexible; multicultural balance; increased effectiveness in organizational process, KOSSEK, E.E. and S.A. LOBEL (edited by). 1996. Managing Diversity: Human Resource Strategies for Transforming the Workplace. Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell Publisher ltd, 15. Other benefits added later are: implementing the values of fairness and respect for all people; improving quality of personnel through better recruitment and retention; improving marketing strategies, COX, T. Jr. 2001. Creating the Multicultural Organization: a Strategy for Capturing
Among the potential problems for diversity the same author identifies: group cohesiveness and communication, COX, T. Jr. 1993. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research & Practice. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 27-38, and conflicts among groups, COX, T. Jr. 2001. Creating the Multicultural Organization: a Strategy for Capturing the Power of Diversity. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass, 5. Richard studied how racial diversity, interacted with business strategy, determines firm performance, by measuring it in three different ways: as productivity, return on equity, and market performance. The results of his study demonstrate that cultural diversity does in fact add value and, within the proper context, contributes to firm competitive advantage, RICHARD, O.C. 2000. “Racial Diversity, Business Strategy, and Firm Performance: A Resource-Based View,” in The Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 43, No. 2 (April, 2000), 164-177. At macro level (labour market), migrants can provide for the much needed flexibility of the labour market during an economic downturn but, as argued by Zimmermann et al. - ZIMMERMANN, K.F., M. KAHANEC, C. GIULIETTI, M. GUZI, A. BERRETT and B. MAÎTRE. 2012. Study on Active Inclusion of Migrants. IZA Research Report No. 43, available online at: http://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?langId=en&catId=89&newsId=1160&furtherNews=yes (accessed on February 15, 2012) - this can only work well if they are integrated in the labour market. This need for integration and flexibility is a very strong argument for active inclusion policies that can result in a win-win situation: integrated migrants, flexible labour markets, and a smoother adjustment during the business cycle. To this aim, discrimination should be certainly combated. Unfortunately, few data are available on this topic. As reported by Eurofound, it appears that ethnic or racial-based discrimination complaints related to the labour market seldom lead to juridical cases or verdicts in most European countries. They mostly concern employment access, career opportunities and working conditions, EUROFOUND. 2011. Working conditions of nationals with a foreign background, 24, available online at: http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/ewco/studies/tn1012015s/tn1012015s.htm (accessed on April 4, 2013).

2.1.2. Health and safety
systems, injury reporting procedures, on-site medical care, injury follow-up, strong health and safety culture at workplace level, language training. The importance of these practices, above all training and safety culture at workplace level have been more recently underlined by several studies framing the current situation, such as: S.O. CAUSA, J., M. JIMENEZ and I. WANNER (OECD). 2007. Migration In OECD Countries: Labour Market Impact And Integration Issues. Economics Department Working Papers No. 562, 23, available online at: http://www.oecd.org/migration/46607889.pdf (accessed on April 4, 2013) which reports that language training’s impact is clearly positive for newly-arrived immigrants (in particular at the very beginning of their stay); RETE EUROPEA MIGRAZIONI EMN, MINISTERO DELL’INTERNO, CENTRO IDOS. 2010. Mercato occupazionale e immigrazione. Roma: Edizioni IDOS, 51, available online at: http://ssai.interno.it/download/allegati1/rosa-6_thirdemnitalyreport_labourmarketandmigration_2010_ita.pdf (accessed on February 15, 2011), which reports that there is a positive correlation between training and reduction of injuries and illnesses at workplace level; and MINISTERO DEL LAVORO E DELLE POLITICHE SOCIALI. 2012. Secondo rapporto annuale sul mercato del lavoro degli immigrati – 2012, 119, available online at http://www.integrazionemigranti.gov.it/Documenti/Documents/Lavoro/II_Rapporto_immigrati_2012.pdf (accessed on August 10, 2012), which confirms that the lack of adequate training and information are still the main causes among work related accidents reported by the foreign workforce.

2.1.3. …Learning and training

• Education and Lifelong learning, defined as «all learning activity undertaken throughout life, with the aim of improving knowledge, skills and competences within a personal, civic, social and/or employment-related perspective» see EUROPEAN COMMISSION, Making a European Area of Lifelong Learning a Reality, COM(2001) 678 final, 9, Brussels, 21.11.2001, available online at: http://eur-lex.europa.eu/LexUriServ/LexUriServ.do?uri=COM:2001:0678:FIN:EN:PDF (accessed on January 6, 2011), play a key role for the full participation of older people and those with a foreign background in the labour market.

which is the first that provides an overview of discussion on the two topics – older workers and lifelong learning – that at that moment were the subject of separate discourses. This publication also reports European approaches and experiences. It appears that Nordic countries are often cited as best practices in terms of training and lifelong learning for older workers, as reported, among the others by TIKKANEN, T., B. GUDMUNDSSON, L.E. HANSEN, S. PALONIEMI, H. RANDLE and J. SANDVIK, 2008. Active Learning and Ageing at Work: New visions and opportunities for older workers in the Nordic countries and ANGOTTI, R. and S. BELMONTE. 2012. “Age gap e benefici della formazione in età matura nei primi risultati della Indagine INDACO,” in Osservatorio Isfol, Guerini Associati, anno II, n.2/2012.


The ageing process does not only imply the risk of skills obsolescence but also a risk of loosing those skills and experiences older people acquired throughout their working life if proper skills transfer processes towards the youngest generations are not guaranteed. There are few experiences available in the EU in this field: see EUROPEAN
Employment policies to promote Active Ageing.

- Education and lifelong learning activities are fundamental for the inclusion and foreign people in the labour market and their full participation at workplace level.

CEDEFOP. 2011. Migrants, minorities, mismatch? Skills mismatch among migrants and ethnic minorities in Europe. Research paper n. 16. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union, available online at: http://www.cedefop.europa.eu/EN/Files/5516_en.pdf (accessed on July 13, 2013) gives a framework on the educational and training levels of migrant workers, their level of skills mismatches and on the available training activities to improve their situation in the EU. This publication reports that Europe is currently adapting its migration policies by forging closer links between the skills migrants have and the needs of our economies. However, to see new migration waves as the only solution to skill shortages would be short-sighted. Substantial progress should be made, on the one side, by looking at how the skills and potential of migrants and ethnic minorities already present in our societies can alleviate future skill shortages. This is particularly relevant if we consider that young people with a migrant background are generally at greater risk of exiting the education and training system without having obtained an upper secondary qualification, EUROSTAT. 2011. Indicators of Immigrant Integration – A Pilot Study. Luxembourg: Publications of the European Union, 158-169 available online at http://epp.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/cache/ITY_OFFPUB/KS-RA-11-009/EN/KS-RA-11-009-EN.PDF (accessed on January 26, 2012). On the other side, by making progress in the recognition of foreign titles and qualification. This message is also given by EUROPEAN MIGRATION NETWORK. 2011. Satisfying labour Demand through Migration, 108. This publication affirms that, in order to ensure that the EU remains competitive, there will be a need to improve both the tools and methods used to identify and manage labour demand, including forecasting of shortages of workers and skills, as well as removing the difficulties associated with the recognition of qualifications and skills obtained outside the EU. Indeed, the problem of overqualification is still a big issue that must be tackled: one in three foreign-born persons aged 25 to 54 overqualified for their job, EUROSTAT. 2011. Migrants in the EU: One in three foreign-born persons aged 25 to 54 overqualified for their job compared with one person in five among the native-born, available online at: http://europa.eu/rapid/press-release_STAT-11-180_en.htm (accessed on January 23, 2013). EUROPEAN MIGRATION NETWORK. 2011. Satisfying labour Demand through Migration, 51-53 Section 4.3, provides an overview of the mechanisms in place in the Member States for skills assessment and recognition of qualifications of migrants (Section 4.3.2) when arriving in EU Member States for the purpose of employment.

In Italy it is possible to observe some training and orienteering policies aimed at integrating foreign workers into the labour market – see MARUCCI, M. and C. MONTEDORO (edited by). 2010. L'integrazione degli immigrati tra politiche attive del lavoro e politiche sociali: esperienze ed eccellenze in quattro regioni italiane. Roma: Collana Strumenti Isfol, available online at: http://sbnlo2.cilea.it/bw5ne2/opac.aspx?WEB=ISFL&IDS=17097 (accessed on April 16, 2013) – but in the future, these programmes need to be further supported and

2.2. The new work office

2.2.1. Flexible time and labour

- Working time has been always at the core of the “conflict” between trade unions and managers. Patricia Hewitt retraced the factors that enabled the shift from the old model of working time to the new one: the increase in employment amongst married women with children; the increase in other “non-standard” groups of workers; the pressure from men for shorter working hours; the expansion and changing structure of the service sector; the “24-hour service economy”; the pressure within manufacturing industry for longer and more flexible operating hours; the post-war transformation in international communications; and finally, the need for education, training and retraining throughout the working lifetime. According to her, all these factors enabled the shift, at the beginning of the 1990s, towards other forms of working time (such as flexitime, four-days weeks or nine-day fortnights, weekend-only jobs, term-time working, new shift arrangements, “week on, week off” contracts etc.) that better responded to both employee and organizational needs. The organisation of working time was already at that time becoming more flexible, more varied and more individualised, HEWITT, P. 1993. About time: The revolution in work and family life. London: Rivers Oram Press, 1-7. A description of this shift from standard to more flexible working times is also given by BASSO, P. 1998. Tempi moderni, orari antichi: l’orario di lavoro a fine secolo. Milano: Franco Angeli, 33-118, who also frames how the working time changed in our country, Italy, at that time: BASSO, P. 1998. Tempi moderni, orari antichi: l’orario di lavoro a fine secolo. Milano: Franco Angeli, 197-306. The transition towards reduced and more flexible working times in the Italian context during the 1990s is also given by: VALLI, V. (edited by). 1988. Tempo di lavoro e occupazione. Roma: La Nuova Italia Scientifica, 13-38, who explains how reduced and flexible working times have been introduced in order to raise employment rates. The unemployment explanation for the shift towards reduced and more flexible working times is also mentioned in Nyland’s work where, however, the central theme is that the changing nature of working time is primarily explained by the changing nature of production processes, NYLAND, C. 1989. Reduced working time and the management of production. Melbourne: Press Syndicate of the University of


- This shift towards a greater flexibility is likely to sharpen in the future – see, among the others, EQUAL OPPORTUNITIES COMMISSION. 2007. *Enter the timelords: Transforming work to meet the future*, available online at: [http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/uploaded_files/publications/eoc_transformation-work_time_lords.pdf](http://www.equalityhumanrights.com/uploaded_files/publications/eoc_transformation-work_time_lords.pdf) (last accessed on December 10, 2013) – as a consequence of the dynamics of the economy, the massive use of technologies and new form of reward based not on time but on results (see paragraph 2.3.3.), posing new challenges for both managers and trade unions. According to Hewitt, managers, who are used to managing full-time workforces on standard hours will have to manage the complexity given by people employed in the wide variety of hours and jobs, with implications in term of trust, responsibility and control, HEWITT, P. 1993. *About time: The revolution in work and family life*. London: Rivers Oram Press, 138-149; SEO Economic Research. 2013. *Flexibility @work 2013*. Amsterdam: Randstad, available online at: [http://www.randstad.com/documents/Flexibility%20at%20work%202013%20(2).pdf](http://www.randstad.com/documents/Flexibility%20at%20work%202013%20(2).pdf) (last accessed on September 10, 2013). Achieving the right balance between standard working hours and accepting or even promoting working time flexibility will be a challenging issue for trade unions too, HEWITT, P. 1993. *About time: The revolution in work and family life*. London: Rivers Oram Press, 150-164. But a more flexible working time will be challenging for workers as well. The “ubiquous work” of the future – something that can be performed any time, will change the traditional notion that we used to have about working time, GOLDEN, T. and FROMEN, A. “Does it matter where your manager works? Comparing managerial work mode (traditional, telework, virtual) across subordinate work experiences and outcomes” in *Human Relations*, 2011, n 64(II), 1451-1475. Telework is analysed, among the others by: EUROFOUND. 2010. *Telework in the European Union*, available at: [http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/studies/tn0910050s/tn0910050s.htm](http://www.eurofound.europa.eu/eiro/studies/tn0910050s/tn0910050s.htm) (last accessed on February 15, 2012).

2.2.2. Flexible place

- The massive use of communication technologies in our daily and working life raises the question “Is the office really necessary”? Maitland and Thomson do not expect, unlike some other predictions made back in the 1980s that everyone will work from home and that offices will disappear any time soon. Online collaboration can be highly successful by there are times when employees will need to be together in person, face to face, to make things work. Therefore the office will lose its function of “working place” but will increasingly become a “meeting place”, MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. *Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work*. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 80-81. In addition to this, it is possible to affirm that companies in the future will be no more closed environments. Indeed, as reported by Finkelstein, globalisation has created a “Net-Work” world in which virtually every individual inside and outside of an organization may be linked, FINKELSTEIN, M.S. 2004. *Net-works: workplace change in the global economy*. New York: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc., 4-5. The idea of an “open enterprise” due to the development of relationships’ networks inside and outside the firm is also confirmed by BIRKINSHAW, J. “Network Relationships Inside and Outside the Firm, and the Development of Capabilities” in BIRKINSHAW, J. And P. HAGSTRÖM (edited by). 2000. *The Flexible Firm: Capability management in network organizations*. New York: Oxford University Press, 1-17. Networks are self-generating social systems of communication, where time and space are compressed so that interactive communication may be instant for anyone regardless the actual distance that separates them. The workplace is “no-place” with little if any specific location, since an organization may exist in cyberspace. The workplace can be temporary: the short-term work project rivals the permanent long-term workplace. Workplaces are less hierarchical and bureaucratic and more horizontal, FINKELSTEIN, M.S. 2004. *Net-works: workplace change in the global economy*. New York: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, Inc, 4-5.

2.2.3. New communication

- Multilingualism is a direct consequence of the increasing diversity taking place within the population deriving from migration flows and the integration of economies and countries. SCHJERVE, R.S. and E. VETTER. 2012. *European Multilingualism. Current Perspectives and Challenges*. Bristol / Buffalo / Toronto: Multilingual Matters, provides a sociolinguistic perspective about European multilingualism revealing what way the terms “linguistic diversity” and “multilingualism” mean and are linked to the concept of “diversity”. The main conclusion of this volume is that, apparently, multilingualism lacks a clear definition at EU level, both as a scientific concept and as political programme. Thus, it is not a surprise that in the meaning and in the making multilingualism is contradictory. In the field of multilingualism in the labour market and workplace, comprehensive studies and research are lacking. Just some contributions
dealing with specific aspects of multilingualism have been identified. For instance, the papers collected in BRAUNMÜLLER, K. and C. GABRIEL. 2012. *Multilingual Individuals and Multilingual Societies.* Amsterdam/Philadephia: John Benjamins Publishing Company, deal with the major issues that might arise in multilingual and multicultural settings, such as: language acquisition, learning and use. In addition to this, FOREY, G. and J. LOCKWOOD (edited by). 2010. *Globalisation, Communication and the Workplace.* New York: Continuum International Publishing Group try to frame how in the truly globalized workplace, English language and communication skills are increasingly performed and tested. In particular, two contributions of this volume that help to identify the tow abovementioned trends arising at workplace level - the use of English and the relevance of communication skills. NICKERSON, C. in FOREY, G. and LOCKWOOD, J. (edited by) 2010. *Globalisation, Communication and the Workplace.* New York: Continuum International Publishing Group, 25-37, show that, as the dominant language of global business and technology, the use of English as a lingua franca has both facilitated and contributed to the process of globalisation and it is likely to continue in the coming decades. HULTGREN, A.K. and D. CAMERON. 2010. in *Globalisation, Communication and the Workplace,* by FOREY, G. and J. LOCKWOOD (edited by) (New York: Continuum International Publishing Group), 41-56, affirm that communication skills will be among four skills required by workers. This is because language has become a commodity and carefully managing it is seen as a way of ensuring competitive advantage.

- The introduction of the new technologies in our daily and working lives has also changed the way we communicate at work. As predicted by Morgan, in the future these new communication tools will further ensure that communication flows throughout the organization and that information will be shared between employees, departments, across organization as a whole, MORGAN, J. 2012. *The Collaborative Organization.* New York: McGrawHill, 22. The author argue that this sharing process also enable new form of learning through which employees stay productive and innovative, MORGAN, J. 2012. *The Collaborative Organization.* New York: McGrawHill, 220 as well as the increasing importance of the “Community Manager” profile in the company of the future: the Community Manager will be the key for the success of communication’s organization within the company and outside the company of future, MORGAN, J. 2012. *The Collaborative Organization.* New York: McGrawHill, 183-184, 194-195.

2.3. The evolving employment relationship

2.3.1. Between Employer, employee and trade unions

- Faced with the profound changes in the structural functioning of the organization caused by globalisation, the power basis of organized labour is severely undermined. The reason for this is, as argued by Vilrokx, the blurring of the distinction between manager and worker, VILROKX, J. 1999. “The Political Economy of the Firm in Global” in *Globalisation and Labour Relations* by LEISINK, P. (edited by) (Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited), 57-77. As reported by Maitland e Thomson, leaders need to understand how work is changing, both in terms of technology and physical environment and in terms of workforce attitudes. In the near future they will need to: recognize that individuals are more powerful that ever, with
networks that transcend corporate boundaries; understand employees’ different motivations; make flexibility a corporate value; be comfortable with non-traditional career paths. Managers will have to rely more on trust and overcome hierarchy. Among the skills that will characterize the way managers will approach to their employees, Maitland and Thomson mention: delegation; relationship-building; inspiring and motivating; resilience; responsiveness; adaptability; and team building. MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 68, 112-113, 120-123. Richard Donkin also recognizes that the leadership will increasingly become “collaborative”: the role of leader – today played by managers – will be interchangeable, DONKIN, R. 2011. Il futuro del lavoro. Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, 254-276.

• The future relationships between employers, employees and external key actors, will be also affected by the existing mix of cultures. In other words, working within and with a culturally diverse workforce requires a conceptual understanding of culture and cultural integrity so that it is possible to recognize and open to learn about new cultures as we encounter them. Hofstede was the first one to analyse the relationships between organizational culture and the culture of the country. This study enabled him to identify five culture dimensions that determine behaviour in the workplace: 1) power distance; 2) individualism vs collectivism; 3) masculinity vs femininity; 4) uncertainty avoidance; 5) short-term orientation vs. long-term orientation, HOFSTEDE, G. 1984. Culture’s consequences: international differences in work-related values. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications further deepened in HOFSTEDE, G. 2003. Cultures and organizations: Intercultural Cooperation and its importance for Survival. London: Profile Books Ltd. Marlene G. Fine describes the main features of the different cultures – American, Asian, Hispanic, African – which knowledge and understanding is fundamental for better managing diversity at workplace level, FINE, M.G. 1995. Building Successful Multicultural Organizations: Challenges and Opportunities. Westport, CT: Quorum Books, 48-93. Morant et al. identify those categories that characterize and differentiate each culture: sense of self and space, communication and language, dress and appearance, food and feeding habits, time and time consciousness, relationships, values and norms, belief and attitudes, mental process and learning, work habits and practices, MORAN, R.T., P.R. HARRIS and S.V. MORAN. 2007. Managing cultural differences. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Inc., 6-10. Moran et al. report the main differences at work between the Latin American and the U.S. population, MORAN, R.T., P.R. HARRIS and S.V. MORAN. 2007. Managing cultural differences. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Inc., and also the differences between the Western and the Asian cultural view in terms of values, communicato styles and organizational patterns, MORAN, R.T., P.R. HARRIS and S.V. MORAN. 2007. Managing cultural differences. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Inc., 121, and how Arabs, Mexicans, Australians, Japanese, Chinese and Africans do business, MORAN, R.T., P.R. HARRIS and S.V. MORAN. 2007. Managing cultural differences. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Inc., 240-654.

• The union movement is frequently criticized for being resistant to change and for negotiating outcomes that hamper employers’ flexibility. Some observers have suggested that this feature of unions and bargaining hampers the management of diversity that it is predicted to increase in the future organizations. Delaney and Lundy argue that, although unions are far from being perfect, they have sought, on average, to
negotiate uniform rules that are applied to workers consistently. In the short run, this approach could adversely affect diversity outcomes. Over time, however, it is likely to promote diversity, DELANEY, J.T. and LUNDY, M.C. 1996. “Unions, Collective bargaining, and the Diversity Paradox,” in Managing Diversity: Human Resource Strategies for Transforming the Workplace by KOSSEK, E.E. and LOBEL, S.A. (edited by) (Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell Publisher ltd), 265.

- Undoubtedly, to be competitive, both employees and employees will try to establish a more collaborative organization. This can take place at two levels: personal relationships involving mutual obligations, reciprocity and trust and social relationships and connections constructed between and among a variety of groups or organizations. This is the network conceived by Finkelstein “Net-Work” FINKELSTEIN, M.S. 2004. Net-works: workplace change in the global economy, New York: Rowan & Littlefield Publishers, Inc., 3-4. In the new future collaborative organization and enterprise, employees will play a key role: they will be asked to participate in the profits making process of the enterprise. Employees will no more in a vertical position of their managers but they will be almost on the same line, MORGAN, J. 2012. The Collaborative Organization, New York: McGrawHill, 259. Thus the structure will be less hierarchical and more horizontal: everybody has a role to play, everybody can be an player and a

2.3.2. Rewarding work not time

As illustrated by Maitland and Thompson, and Donkin a new approach is emerging: it is called results-based working and is a core element of future work, MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON, 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 39 and DONKIN, R. 2011. Il futuro del lavoro. Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, 276. The novelty is the introduction of systems that just look at the results and ignore other traditional management constraints. So the amount of time put in achieving the result is irrelevant; it is what is achieved that counts. This system is already becoming widespread, because, in the opinion of HR experts, this system is more transparent and meritocratic towards employees, DONKIN, R. 2011. Il futuro del lavoro. Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, 276-285. But of course this new approach implies several other changes. First of all, work will not just expressed as job description but as a series of targets, and daily or weekly checks on output may be needed, MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan, 39-42, 132. Secondly, HR managers will further work on the human capital development as showed by DONKIN, R. 2011. Il futuro del lavoro, Milano: Gruppo 24 Ore, 285-313.
Chapter 3
How companies can thrive in the new world of work


3.1. Change and diversity management

3.1.1. Change management

• The concept of managing change arose out of the organization development movement. This was founded by a group of theorists of 1940s, including Kurt Lewin who sought to apply psychological insights in an organizational context. Kurt Lewin, in particular, elaborated the basic model for change according to which change is a complex process following these steps: unfreezing (the moment in which there is an aptitude for a change), transformation (it is the movement of change) and freezing (the change become the new permanent status of balance). This process of change applies also to organizations as demonstrated by HABERBERG, A. and A.RIEPLE. 2008. Strategic Management. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 721. For a brief reconstruction of the theories formulated in the field of organizational change management, please refer to RAVAGNANI, R. 2000. Information Technology e gestione del cambiamento organizzativo. Milano: EGEA, 101-107.

• Today’s business environment is much more complex, interdependent, unpredictable, and unstable than it was several decades ago, CONNER, D.R. 1992. Managing at the Speed of Change: How Resilient Managers Succeed and Prosper where Others Fail. New York: John Wiley & Sons. Developing and sustaining the success of an organization requires coping with ongoing change in this complex environment. Change itself is inevitable. In fact, we live in a culture of change that we have incorporated as a natural part of our behaviour. In reality, we live in a world where we have become prescribers of change, DE ANCA, C. and A. VAZQUEZ. 2007. Managing Diversity in the Global Organization. New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 14. Thus, the real issue becomes successful change management, BOWMAN, C. and JARRETT, M.G. 1996. Management in Practice: A framework for Managing Organizational Change (3rd edition). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann; CARNALL, C.A. 2003. Managing Change in Organizations. Edinburgh: Pearson Education Limited. Indeed, badly managed change can result in: negative organizational memory about change and how change is managed; retarded ability to undertake any change programs in the future; negative impacts on organizational performance and morale; negative bottom-line impact; accelerated onset of crises. Thus, in preparing our organizations for the 21st century, new change management processes must provide a mechanism for surfacing and rethinking our deeply held assumptions. Otherwise
meaningful change is not possible, TROMPENAARS, F. and P. PRUD’HOMME VAN REINE. 2004, *Managing Change Across Corporate Cultures*. West Sussex: Capstone Publishing Ltd, 7, 279. Given this framework, these authors elaborated the concept of reconciling corporate culture. According to them, the concept of reconciling corporate culture offers a dynamic model for creating, understanding and changing corporate cultures “in flux”. Reconciling corporate cultures have an inherent capacity to connect seemingly opposing value orientations in an ongoing dialogue. This way of looking at corporate cultures acknowledges that providing stability goes hand in hand with tension and potential conflict between opposing values orientations. In reconciling corporate cultures, the energy in this tension is used to sustain ongoing change. This model allows for looking at change as something that is necessary to preserve continuity and identity, so that change becomes a way of life, TROMPENAARS, F. and P. PRUD’HOMME VAN REINE. 2004, *Managing Change Across Corporate Cultures*. West Sussex: Capstone Publishing Ltd, 279-280. Moran et al. express a similar concept. According to them, the nature of change is that it is inevitable and constant. The novelty is the acceleration or compression of change. To survive and develop, leaders not only need new skills for coping with change, but must learn to create an environment that is open to dynamic change, both within systems as well as within their own lifestyles and those of their colleagues, MORAN, R.T., P.R. HARRIS and S.V. MORAN. 2007. *Managing cultural differences*. Burlington, MA: Elsevier Inc., 104. These authors report the framework elaborated by Beatty and Ulrich who sustain that four principles can serve as the framework if change and renewal are to be understood and implemented in mature organizations:

1) organizations renew by focusing on the costumers’ perspective and demands; 2) organizations renew by increasing their capacity for change; 3) organizations renew by adjusting both the hardware (strategy, culture and systems) and software (employee behaviour and mind-set) within their company; 4) organizations need empowered employees to act as leaders at all levels, BEATTY, R. and ULRICH, D. 1991. “Re-Energizing the Mature Organization,” in *Managing cultural differences*, by MORAN, R.T., P.R. HARRIS and S.V. MORAN. 2007 (Burlington, MA: Elsevier Inc.), 116-117.

To help organisations manage change more effectively by providing change managers with feedback on how organisational members perceive the change itself, how well it is being managed and its impact on them John Hayes Associates and Peter Hyde Management Consulting developed The Change Management Indicator (CMI) has been developed by as a structured means of providing this feedback. CMI is intended to be used once a major change process is underway, but not yet complete. It can be used in a number of ways: as a one-off diagnostic instrument to identify major areas of concern for remedial action; as a barometer of opinion at a series of points in time, indicating whether the trend is in the desired direction; to compare the situation in different departments, functions, locations and organisational levels and thereby identify localised problems; as an intervention in its own right, to get people thinking about the issues and to promote dialogue; to benchmark against other organisations which are undergoing similar changes, see HAYES, J. and HYDE, P. 2008. *The Change Management Indicator*, available online at: http://www.peterhyde.co.uk/documents/TheChangeManagementIndicator.pdf (accessed on December 10, 2012). On this topic see also: HAYES, J. 2007. *The theory and practice of change management*, Basingstonke: Palgrave Mcmillan. The process of change management and how to deal with it is also given by BACA, C. 2005. *Change
3.1.2. Diversity management

- As described by DE ANCA, C. and A. VAZQUEZ, diversity management exploded on to the U.S. scene explicitly in the 1970s, although, diversity was nothing new at the time. Indeed, as far as 1911, BIRD, M. in the book Women at Work, illustrated how cities were being transformed by women working in administration, DE ANCA, C. and A. VAZQUEZ. 2007. Managing Diversity in the Global Organization. New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 53. The moment of change in diversity policies came explicitly to companies in the 1970s, when new civil rights laws were enacted that made the penalties for gender or racial discrimination at work much tougher. At this time the traditional focus did not look at this as a way of managing diversity, but rather a way to correcting injustices from the past. These antidiscrimination policies were maintained in the 1980s. Into the 1990s, companies in the US and in Europe began to apply a more integrated approach, known as diversity and integration policies, which aimed not only to correct certain social injustices but also to profit from the potential benefits of diversity. These policies focused in creating a general atmosphere of integration, in which all members of the organization could develop their full potential, DE ANCA, C. and A. VAZQUEZ. 2007. Managing Diversity in the Global Organization. New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 54. Among the several definition given to “managing diversity”, the following one is taking into consideration: «planning and implementing organizational systems and practices to manage people so that the potential advantages of diversity are maximized while its potential disadvantages are minimized», COX, T. Jr. 1993. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research&Practice. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 11.

- By reviewing the existing literature on diversity management practices (as part of HRM, see FOOT, M. & C. HOOK. 2011. Introducing Human Resource Management. Harlow, England: Prentice Hall, Pearson Education Limited) and how to deal with more diverse organizations, the following theoretical steps for successfully managing diversity at workplace level can be identified:
  1. Conceive “diversity” in connection with company’s objectives and goals: make it a business case;
  2. Provide the necessary basis for the successful promotion of diversity: flexible environment and organizational culture promoting and valuing differences;
  3. Adopt the learning-and-effectiveness paradigm;
  4. Assess how mature or developed the organization is in terms of creating inclusive working environment in order to successfully identify, implement and review diversity initiatives/programmes/policies.

3.2. Evidence from some Italian companies

As showed by R. RICCÔ “La gestione “consapevole” delle diversità in impresa: una soluzione strategica ancora da scoprire in Italia” presented during the IX Workshop, L’Organizzazione fa la differenza?, 7-8 February 2008, diversity management appears something not yet fully acknowledge in the Italian context. One of the purposes of the current research project is to investigate how Italian companies are facing the drivers of change and what measures they are adopting to transform challenges into opportunities – through change and/or diversity management practices – in order to see if the predictions anticipated in Chapter 2 are grounded and whether management practices theorized in the past (Chapter 3) are adopted. More precisely the questionnaire has been structured in order to:

- Investigate whether companies recognize the existence of the drivers of change;
- Assess whether companies are undertaking some action in order to prepare themselves for the future workforce, working environment, and scenario;
- Obtain more information about those practices that companies might have adopted to deal with change and diversity;
- Identify and disseminate best practices.

Following these objectives the elaboration of the questionnaire, which can be considered as an instrument for reflecting the truth about reality following the research framework (in this case it is represented by the desk research carried our for the topics covered by Chapter 1, Chapter 2 and Chapter 3) and getting responses that are relevant to it, ALVESSON, M. and KÄRREMAN, D. 2011. Qualitative Research and Theory Development, London: Sage Publications Ltd, 99, started with the consultation of two main publications: HOLLWAY, W. and T. JEFFERSON. 2000. Doing Qualitative research differently, London: Sage Publications Ltd and CORBETTA, P. 2003. La ricerca sociale: metodologia e tecniche – I paradigmi di riferimento, Bologna: Il Mulino.

The questionnaire resulted in 7 sections according to the macro-areas identified for investigation: general data of the company (1), how demographic change is affecting company’s work organization (2), training (3), health and safety (4), business (5), how company reacted in terms of diversity management (6) and how the company foresee the future of labour relations (7).

The data gathered from the questionnaire submitted to Italian companies belonging to different sectors (among which CAMST, Cisco, Gruppo Amadori, Le Roy Merlin, Sodexo, etc.) will be elaborated in order to find an answer to the research questions of the current research project and therefore, filling the gap existing in the literature.

3.3. Guidelines for shifting from the old to the new world of work

- Starting from the description of the drivers of change, the presentation of the main predictions about the future of work and companies, and the material gathered from the case studies, this last paragraph will provide some general guidelines that can
help companies to shift from the old to the new world of work. These guidelines will implement and further contribute to what has been already said in this field. Some authors gave general guidelines, some other focused on the above-mentioned specific issues. On the first side, Maitland and Thomson draw up five principles for organizations that want to make a successful transition from the old to the new world of work. They call them the “TRUST” principles: 1) Trust your people; 2) Reward output; 3) Understand the business case; 4) Start at the top; 5) Treat people as individuals, see MAITLAND, A. and P. THOMSON. 2011. Future Work: How business Can Adapt and Thrive in the New World of Work. Basingstoke: Palgrave MacMillan. On the second side it is possible to identify the following according to the topics:

Concerning diversity in terms of cultures, ethnicities, languages, one of the way to better manage it at work is to create organization in which members of all sociocultural backgrounds can contribute and achieve their full potential: in other words, transform monolithic and plural organizations into “multicultural” ones, COX, T. Jr. 1993. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research&Practice. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 225. According to Cox, it is possible to create
“multicultural organizations” by integrating five key elements into the organization: strong leadership; support research; education; audit and follow-up. The same author also identifies the tools that organizations can use to promote change toward a multicultural organization: promoting cultural change; creating pluralism; creating full structural integration; creating integration in informal networks; eliminating institutional bias; reducing intergroup conflict, COX, T. Jr. 1993. Cultural Diversity in Organizations: Theory, Research & Practice. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 225-259. All these element constitute the so called “Model for Cultural Change”, COX, T. Jr. 2001. Creating the Multicultural Organization: a Strategy for Capturing the Power of Diversity. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass, 18-142. According to Marlene G. Fine, it is possible to respond to diversity in the workplace and meet the goals of the multicultural organization through three key issues: diversity should be approached as a strategic business issue; transformation requires a strong leadership but also consensus among employees; diversity should be promoted through education, support-groups and human resource initiatives, FINE, M.G. 1995. Building Successful Multicultural Organizations: Challenges and Opportunities. Westport, CT: Quorum Books, 131-138. Advices on multicultural diversity management in the Italian context are available in SODALITAS and UNAR, 2008. La multiculturalità, valore per l’impresa, 2008.

• In the field of changing working environment, Finkelstein is the one that provides some steps for creating workplace change: 1) Employing the stakeholder model: joint planning and preparation are the central ingredients for embarking on any change process; 2) Planning a new direction: it means establishing a vision for the future, plan the direction of workplace change, and provide the support and guidance necessary to carry it out; 3) Fostering and communicating the next steps: it is about shaping the culture of the organization; 4) Getting trained and learning the process: training and education must be provided for groups such as middle managers and supervisors to orient them and re-socialize them toward their new roles and the ways of organizing work; 5) Implementing the Process-Restructuring Work; 6) Renewing the process – Follow-up and assessment, FINKELSTEIN, M.S. 2004. Net-works: workplace change in the global economy. New York: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers Inc., 154-160.

• As anticipated in Chapter 2, as a consequence of the widespread introduction and use of new technologies in the workplace, the organization of the future will be more and more collaborative. However, as illustrated by Morgan, to have a real and successful collaborative organization, companies will need to develop a successful collaboration strategy in which the following should be considered: culture and collaboration is crucial; encourage internal entrepreneurship; give the innovators a place to congregate and innovate; leadership must create an enabling environment; accept failure but protect your team from negativity; be patience; technology is not a panacea; complexity kills; launch, learn and iterate, MORGAN, J. 2012. The Collaborative Organization. New York: McGrawHill, 255. The same author also underlines that every organization has a different approach to enterprise collaboration, but what is necessary is the need to be adaptive, as he demonstrate with his adaptive emergent collaboration framework, MORGAN, J. 2012. The Collaborative Organization, New York: McGrawHill, 133-159.