New Directions in the Future of Work

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Foreword: Demystifying the Future of Work

I am trained as an organisational taxonomist (no, there are not very many of us!). Taxonomists seek patterns in events, themes in ideas, and order from randomness. Over the years, I have heard many speak passionately about 'future of work' and I have silently nodded my head affirming the value of the topic, but privately wondering what 'future of work' really meant. Under this broad banner, it included eloquent discussions of technological innovations, climate change, demographics, social justice, political systems, economic gaps, immigration patterns, industry disruptions, government policies, sustainability principles, organisation reinvention, workforce and workplace dynamics, employee experience, leadership requirements, governance systems, etc.

Of course, each of these topics will create ideas that shape the nature of work. But sometimes I felt lost in the randomness of all these ideas and could not find an order or pattern to make sense of future of work.

Without a doubt, questions (where, how, who, when, and what) about *work* matter. Individuals spend a large part of their waking hours working and their work shapes personal identity, experience, and well-being, or a positive workforce. Organisations with effective work processes succeed in the marketplace with customers, investors, and communities thus creating a better workplace. And, the *future of work* will shape how individuals and organisations operate. It is helpful to glance backwards to learn from what has happened; it is more helpful to fixate on the future so that it can be created.

But ordering all the ideas about the future of work into patterns and themes related to the future of work turns an otherwise interesting set of nearly random insights into specific actions with choices that leaders can make to work better.

So, I am delighted to read Monica and Ramon's book. They recognise that 'content is king, but context is the kingdom'. In this case, the context (or kingdom) sets the conditions for the what, where, and how work will be done. In a relatively condensed time frame, the world faced multiple crises of global pandemic (health and social isolation), social unrest (refugees and black lives matter), political squabbles (dysfunctional government elections and bickering), technological advancements (AI and cloud data) leading to a digital age, economic turbulence, and emotional malaise.

From this context, the content of work has had to change. Leaders have had to:

- redefine the boundaries of where work is done (work is not a place, but a shared set of values);
- how work is done (through a mix of face-to-face interactions and virtual settings);
- who does work (with a melding of people and technology); and
- what impact work has on employees (helping employees believe, become, and belong from their work activities), customers (adapting work to changing customer expectations), investors (ensuring confidence in the future through intangibles), and communities (being socially responsible).

In this changing context of work, Monica and Ramon create a useful typology of eight dimensions of the content of the future of work, bringing order to work choices. Their classification leads to very thoughtful chapters on how work will affect individuals (talent, vulnerable employees, education, and well-being), leaders (values and competencies), and organisations (forms and flexibility, technology, and policies). Each chapter offers insights on how individuals and leaders can make choices to shape the future of work to respond to changing contextual conditions.

I leave this book more aware of what 'future of work' really means. With this meaning more clear, I am more able to demystify the future of work from a set of interesting insights to specific actions and choices that will help me (and others) imagine, invent, and implement a work setting that works.

Dave Ulrich
January 2021

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'This book is dedicated to my family and especially to my children. I hope they value the importance of effort and passion in each step and project in life'. (Mónica)

'To my family'. (Ramón)

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Chapter 1

New Directions in the Future of Work: An Introduction

Mónica Santana and Ramón Valle-Cabrera

There is currently an intense debate about the impact of technological developments on the future of work (FoW). Messages about robots taking jobs from humans, the 'robots tax' debate and the challenges in the adoption of new technologies in our daily job routines are continuously surrounding us. However, before discussing the impact of new technologies on the FoW, it is essential to thoroughly understand what the FoW entails.

Bhattacharyya and Nair (2019) state that there is a lack of studies aiming to define the concept of 'the future of work'. The definition proposed by Balliester and Elsheikhi (2018) conceptualises this term through five dimensions: the future of jobs (job creation, job destruction and the future workforce structure); wage and income inequality (average growth and distribution); job quality (future working conditions and sustainable social protection systems); industrial relations (evolution of the labour institutions in this context); and social protection systems. In the same line, concerning the relationship between technology and the FoW, Anner, Pons-Vignon, and Rani (2019) highlighted the need of incorporating five dimensions to foster workers' well-being and social cohesion, which are: inequality, labour regulations, jobs, social protection and trade unions. Despite the lack of common comprehension of the FoW concept (Stoepfgeshoff, 2018), the classifications offered by Balliester and Elsheikhi (2018) and Anner et al. (2019) represent inspiring insights, as their five dimensions allude to the influence of technological changes and to socio-economic and political factors involved in the FoW. It is necessary to humanise the impact that the FoW has on organisations and observe the implications beyond the technological element.

In line with these results, Santana and Cobo (2020) present a classification of four key FoW's outcomes, aimed at better understanding this concept: technological, social, economic and political. According to these authors, the technological sphere of the FoW is related to themes such as digital transformation, gig

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economy, new forms of work, telework, e-HRM, skills mismatch and so on; the social dimension considers aspects such as older workers, vulnerable workers, job satisfaction, stress, talent management, leader's values and spirituality; the economic dimension refers to the employment, wage inequality, job polarisation and job insecurity; and the political sphere is referred to the labour markets, industrial relations and educational policies. Thus, despite the fact that the literature on the FoW focusses on the technological and changing nature of work, it is also pertinent to address the social, economic and political dimensions.

For the purpose of this book, we have replicated an updated bibliometric analysis with SciMAT (Cobo, López-Herrera, Herrera-Viedma, & Herrera, 2012), using the same keywords they utilised in Santana and Cobo (2020) search. The findings are in line with their results (Fig. 1).

In turn, each of these topics has more associated subtopics. For instance, spirituality includes subthemes such as leadership, values and even satisfaction and mindfulness; talent management refers to subthemes such as career, performance, talent identification, talent development, expatriates and emerging markets; telework covers aspects such as work-life conflict, flexibility and flexible

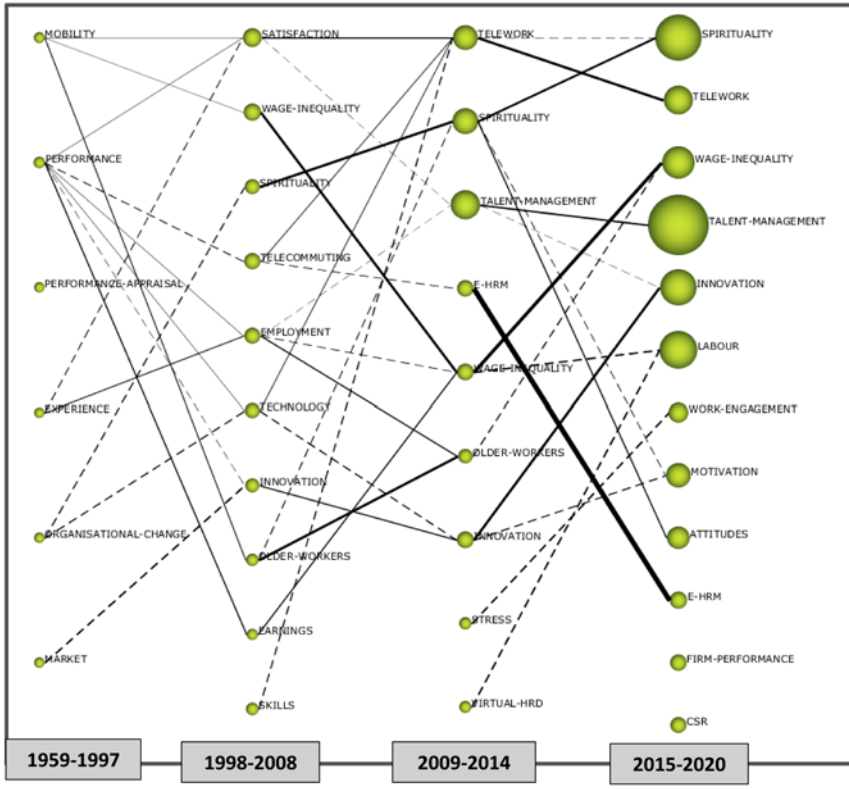

Fig. 1. Evolution Map of the FoW Research Themes in the Periods of 1959–1997, 1998–2008, 2009–2014 and 2015–2020.

work arrangements; innovation refers to themes such as big data, competencies, creativity and digital transformation; wage inequality covers themes such as job polarisation, technological change, skills, labour market and employment; labour covers themes such as decent work, precarious employment, gender, gig economy, job quality and unions; and other themes such as older workers, stress and motivation are also part of the FoW literature. Thus, a broad variety of themes corresponds to the FoW. For the purpose of this book, and considering the relevance of each theme, these vast topics can be structured as follows:

- Leadership and values for the FoW.
- Talent management for the FoW.
- New forms of work and flexible arrangements.
- Artificial intelligence (AI), digitalisation and HRM.
- Vulnerable workers and the FoW (older workers, vulnerable workers, gender).
- Job polarisation, competencies and education for the FoW.
- Employment and industrial relations for the FoW.
- Well-being, happiness, satisfaction and burnout for the FoW.

In Chapter 2 'Leadership and Values for the Future of Work', Prof. Simon L. Dolan, the new technological developments (e.g. mobile devices, information technology (IT), big data, etc.) affect the way in which leaders exert their leadership in organisations and the leaders' decision-making process, which is now importantly based on intelligent analysis of big data (Schwarzmüller, Brosi, Duman, & Welpe, 2018). According to Cascio and Montealegre (2016), we are in the digital era, in the era of the ubiquitous computing in which computational technology surrounds us everywhere. Indeed, information and communication technologies are enabling novel means of coordination, monitoring and collaboration.

In order to steer organisations and help them reap the benefits from such digital transformations, leaders may need to develop a variety of different skills. Cortellazzo, Bruni, and Zampieri (2019) present the main skills leaders need in the digital transformation era that have been highlighted in the literature: communicating through digital media, high-speed decision-making, managing disruptive change, managing connectivity and the renaissance of technical skills. Boyatzis (2008, p. 5) stated that 'emotional, social and cognitive intelligence competencies predict effectiveness in leadership roles'. Indeed, leaders need to understand how their organisations are influenced by the ubiquitous digital technology. They need to ask the correct questions, respond to exceptional situations informed by algorithms, and act beyond machines (Dewhurst & Willmott, 2014).

Nowadays, leaders need to promote the employees' development of problem-solving, creativity and information processing competencies to cope with today's challenging job demands. Moreover, the increasing use of teleworking is also pushing leaders to develop different competencies and behaviours to coordinate the virtual workforce. For instance, Taylor and Joshi (2018) listed some actions through which leaders can benefit from the increasing IT crowdsourcing in the current work landscape: enabling collaboration, focussing on outcome-based management and maintaining access to digital talent. Activity- and home-based

work lead to different behaviours of employees. Supervising styles will change from command-and-control towards goal-setting-and-trust (De Leede & Heuver, 2016). Cascio and Shurygailo (2003) reviewed the challenges for e-leaders to manage virtual teams, and concluded that, in this context, manage disperse teams requires effective leadership. In addition to facing the outcomes of the technological challenges on the workforce, leaders must also manage a diverse and complex workforce (in terms of gender, ethnicity and age), with distinct working styles and needs (Marcus, 2019).

Understanding the work values of the current and future workforce is essential for designing a human resource management system that attracts, motivates and retains talent. Froese (2013) provides an updated, in-depth analysis of the work values of the next generation of business leaders in the commercial centres of China, Japan and Korea. Dolan and Altman (2012) reported that twenty-first century leaders' main objective is the implementation of a corporate culture grounded on shared values, presenting a model of values with four axes: economic–pragmatic, ethical–social, emotional–developmental and spiritual dimensions. Spirituality at work entails that workers have spiritual needs and search for a meaningful job and a connection with other individuals (Ashmos & Duchon, 2000). Leaders in the twenty-first century have to communicate the message of their values and vision to enhance performance (Carton, Murphy, & Clark, 2014) and guide employees to meet todays' challenges.

In Chapter 3 'Talent Management for the Future of Work', Prof Eva Gallardo-Gallardo and Dr David Collings, the talent management refers to subthemes, such as career, performance, talent identification, talent development, expatriates and emerging markets. Talent management is defined as the attraction, identification, development and retention of talent (Scullion, Collings, & Caligiuri, 2010). These authors use various terms to refer to talent, such as excellent abilities, key employees and high potentials. This diversity of terms alludes to the central debate in talent management concerning whether talent management should focus on all employees or a select group of employees. Traditionally, human resource management has been focussed on all employees, while talent management targets a set of valuable pools, individuals and positions (Tarique & Schuler, 2014). Marchington (2015) states that the management of human resources should target the sustainable development to all employees and offer opportunities to all of them, grounded on shared principles and fairness at work. Thus, the identification, attraction, engagement, development and retention of talented employees are necessary to obtain strategic sustainable corporate success (Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

In the current rapidly changing environment, organisations willing to compete in the FoW must implement strategies for recruiting, developing and retaining talent. Indeed, due to the lack of crucial competencies and capabilities in todays' organisations, talent management becomes crucial (Pricewaterhouse-Coopers, 2017). There is a vivid debate on the talent challenges that organisations are facing and how to manage them (Thunnissen, 2016), that is, how to develop and maintain a motivated and capable multiethnic and multigenerational workforce whose priorities should be in line with the technological changes

that organisations are dealing with. Cappelli (2008) proposed four principles to manage talent in the twenty-first century, based on the supply chain and operations management disciplines: build and acquire to handle risk; accommodate to the uncertainty in talent request; meliorate the return on investment to develop employees; and protect the investment by balancing employee–employer needs. Gallardo-Gallardo, Thunnissen, and Scullion (2020) highlighted the importance of context in talent management; indeed, factors such as technology, globalisation and socio-economic and political changes increase the need to effectively manage talent within organisations.

Furthermore, organisations are increasingly witnessing the mobility of human resources through globalisation, and an intensification of knowledge-based economies (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). As globalisation increases, talent becomes increasingly important, since company success relies more and more on people (Glaister, Karacay, Demirbag, & Tatoglu, 2018). In this sense, HRM is needed to respond to the new challenges in the employment context. Talent management practices are even more important in emerging economies, where talent scarcity urges the need for organisations to manage talent with a strategic approach (Glaister et al., 2018). In the emerging market context, there is an increasing need for recruiting, developing and retaining experienced and talented employees who can lead international activities and deal with different barriers, such as managing culturally and geographically different teams and engaging with diverse partners and stakeholders in different countries (Meyer & Xin, 2018). Thus, academic interest in talent management is growing (Thunnissen & Gallardo-Gallardo, 2019). In this sense, implementing effective talent management strategies in increasingly diverse, digitised and automated contexts will pose a challenge for organisations (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2017).

In Chapter 4 'New Forms of Work', Prof. Eva Rimbau-Gilabert and Dr Susana Pasamar – experts in teleworking and work-life balance, respectively, the work, tasks and services are increasingly being digitalised and are becoming more mobile and flexible. In fact, as has been stated by Santana and Cobo (2020) and Mandl, Curtarelli, Riso, Vargas-Llave, and Georgiannis (2015), technological developments have brought new forms of work (e.g. gig work, crowdwork, on-demand work, platform work, etc.) and more flexible work arrangements. The Eurofound categorised the new organisations of jobs into three groups: employee-oriented (casual work, job sharing and interim management), self-employment-oriented (collaborative job, crowdwork and portfolio work, which coordinates customers with providers through virtual platforms), and mixed-jobs (ICT-based mobile work and voucher-based work) (Mandl et al., 2015).

Gig work is an important new form of work. It refers to the link of single service providers or workers with customers through digital platforms, and it can be categorised as remote or local gig work (Duggan, Sherman, Carbery, & McDonnell, 2019; Wood, Graham, Lehdonvirta, & Hjorth, 2019). Examples of remote gig work are organisations such as Fiverr, Upwork and Amazon Mechanical Turk, whereas examples of local gig work are organisations such as Glovo and Uber, that is, services related to food delivery, transport or manual labour. In addition, remote gig work is better known as crowdwork, while the local delivery

of labour services via digital platform is known as gig work (Fernandez-Macias, 2017). Duggan et al. (2019) offer another typology of gig work grounded on technological characteristics: app-work, crowdwork and capital platform work. Some authors consider that gig work has a 'negative' meaning, and they prefer to use platform worker as a neutral term (Pesole, Urzi Brancati, Fernandez-Macias, Biagi, & Gonzalez-Vazquez, 2018). Gig work, crowdwork and other new forms of work have brought many labour law concerns that will be covered in Chapter 8.

Telework is also a relevant outcome of the influence of technology on the nature of work. Many occupations have been affected by the use of information and communication technology to perform work outside the traditional workplaces while on the move or at home. Sewell and Taskin (2015) listed diverse factors that explain the growing impact of teleworking: the development of technology, the increasing importance of certain service industries (e.g., the knowledge sector), the growing concern about mobility and sustainability aspects, cost and space problems, and workers' preferences. In addition, the recent pandemic situation has accelerated the use of teleworking. Governments have recommended to stay-at-home and, thus, the amount of remote workers has increased significantly. For instance, in only one month, from March to April 2020, 31% of US workers had switched to teleworking (Brynjolfsson et al., 2020).

Telework covers aspects such as work-life conflict, flexibility and flexible work arrangements (Santana & Cobo, 2020). Felstead and Henseke (2017) found that teleworking is related to higher organisational commitment, job-related well-being and job satisfaction, although these advantages involve the drawbacks of job intensification and difficulties to disconnect from the job. Teleworking and flexible arrangements can contribute to work-life balance. In this sense, Chung and van der Horst (2018) highlighted that mothers using flexitime and teleworking do not reduce their working hours after childbirth. Thus, there exists evidence that flexible work arrangements and teleworking support mothers' careers and contribute to gender equality in the labour market. Thus, the irruption of technology in jobs has created new forms of work and flexible arrangements, which must be conveniently addressed.

In Chapter 5 'AI, Digitalisation and HRM: Foundations, Extensions and New Directions on AI, Digitalisation and HRM', Dr Maarten Renkema, Berman and Bell (2011) analysed the evolution of digital transformation within organisations. In the 1990s, the organisations exploring digital products and services (e.g. entertainment, electronics, etc.) and infrastructure with the aim of improving their efficiency and productivity (e.g. telecommunication, software, etc.), and implemented digital transformation. In the 2000s, organisations enrolled in the digital transformation tendency to enhance their digital distribution and their web strategy and e-commerce (e.g. retail, electronics, etc.) or to improve their efficiency through a web strategy (e.g. government). In the 2010s, organisations introduced digital transformation into their business models (e.g. mobile revolution, social media and the power of analytics). Customers are now the main force behind digital transformation in all sectors.

When social researchers refer to the impact of technology on HRM, the term 'digital' usually arises to refer to all types of technological developments, such as

AI, machine learning, the Internet of Things and big data, as well as the Internet, although the crucial digital revolution has been brought by AI and its implementation within organisations and society in general. Kaplan and Haenlein (2019) provide a description for some terms; as they highlight, AI is a fuzzy concept, mainly due to the different definitions of intelligence itself and to the variety of AI definitions. According to these authors, AI is the system's ability to comprehend and learn from external data and use that information to attain particular tasks and objectives through versatile adaptation, while machine learning is an important but limited part of AI. Big data involves the collection of data through different sources such as (mobile) social media programmes. In order to offer a typology of AI, it would be helpful to observe the requisite managerial competencies of successful performance. In this sense, based on the three types of intelligence, that is, cognitive (competencies referred to structured thinking and pattern recognition), emotional (self-confidence and achievement stance) and social intelligence, Kaplan and Haenlein (2019) define three different AI systems: analytical, human inspired and humanised. These AI system types can be observed through their applications within organisations. For instance, analytical AI within organisations are the AI algorithms to manage employees and customers' portfolios; human inspired AI is the facial identification at checkouts to implement remedial actions; and humanised AI is comprised by virtual agents who deal with complaints. These technological advancements call for corporate social responsibility, as well as considerations of legal aspects to maintain security, privacy and transparency (Keenan, Kemp, & Owen, 2019).

Two of the most relevant applications of these new developments to organisations and to the human resource discipline are electronic human resource management (E-HRM) and human resource analytics (HR analytics). E-HRM consists of a set of IT applications that include 'all possible integration mechanisms and contents between HRM and ITs aiming at creating value within and across organisations for targeted employees and management' (Bondarouk & Ruël, 2009, p. 507). E-HRM plays a critical role within organisations in collecting, allocating, and studying data in order to select employees, predict employee turnover and ascertain employee competencies, to map out career plans and HR costs, or predict and evaluate employee performance. However, the use of E-HRM requires ethical and legal considerations (Strohmeier & Piazza, 2013). HR analytics is considered as

> an evidence-based approach for making better decisions on the people side of the business; it consists of an array of tools and technologies, ranging from simple reporting of HR metrics all the way up to predictive modeling. (Bassi, 2011, p. 16)

Marler and Boudreau (2017) appeals to distinguish HR analytics from HR metrics, and Lawler, Levenson, and Boudreau (2004) indicate that HR analytics are not measures but statistical and experimental tools to report the influence of HR functions. Despite the significant influence of technology on the HRM function, more research is needed to assess this relationship (Stone et al., 2015).

In Chapter 6 'Vulnerable Workers and Future of Work', Paul Boselie, Rik van Berkel, Jasmijn van Harten, Laura van Os, and Rosan Haenraets, the vulnerable categories of employees refer to older workers, younger workers, temporary workers, temporary self-employed platform workers, women, ethnic minorities, temporary migrants, new immigrants, unskilled or long-term unemployed and disabled (Burgess, Connell, & Winterton, 2013; Hall, Hall, & Bernhardt, 2020; Hennekam, 2015; Le Fevre, Boxall, & Macky, 2015; OECD, 2019; Sgobbi, 2015; van Berkel, Ingold, McGurk, Boselie, & Bredgaard, 2017), that is, precarious work categories that 'place people at risk of continuing poverty and injustice resulting from an imbalance of power in the employee–worker relationship' (TUC, 2013). As a result of the ageing population (OECD, 2011), it is necessary to carry out studies that shed light on the factors that influence older workers' employability and labour participation. Hennekam (2015) conducted an interesting investigation differentiating older workers between veterans (born before 1945) and baby boomers (born in 1945–1964), finding relevant differences between the two groups of older workers, which can help to adopt decisions about human resource practices within organisations. The veteran generation had a better attitude towards their employability, with a higher self-rated employability, ease of finding a job quicker and preference to retire later than the baby boomers, while the baby boomers focussed on the barriers that hindered their employability, such as negative bias about stereotypes and high wages, which reduces their chances at the labour market. In line with vulnerable groups, Ho and Yeung (2020) focussed on the conflict that may arise within organisations between older and younger workers, and they found that managers and employers should emphasise on employees' firm identification and create a fair job atmosphere that facilitates positive relations between younger and older workers. Atkinson and Sandiford (2016) explored the importance of older workers' temporal and work-role flexible work arrangements, which help to sustain their working lives with the use of i-deals and ad hoc flexible work arrangements by firms to serve the needs of this diverse group.

Regarding self-employed platform workers, they are at risk of not receiving a decent compensation or a decent contract for services, and thus some voluntary self-regulation initiatives have arisen to avoid injustice in the labour market. For instance, the Dynamo Guidelines for Academic Requesters encourages academics using Amazon Mechanical Turk to pay decent wages and be fair employers, the Crowdsourcing Code of Conduct in Germany signed by eight platforms prevents employers from mistreating their platform employees (OECD, 2019). Moreover, according to the OECD (2019), the number of migrants is increasing, especially in those countries with ageing populations, where there is a shortage of young workers to cover these positions. In addition, many migrant workers are concentrated in jobs at high risk of automation or are more likely to be in low-qualify positions, despite their high educational level. Therefore, it is necessary to conveniently address the management of vulnerable migrant workers. Deng (2018) found that career development, decent work conditions and an integrative organisational culture contribute to attracting, developing and retaining migrant workers.