The ageing population and knowledge work: a context for action

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### Abstract

Purpose - This paper aims to investigate a workforce policy response to the ageing workforce, emerging social and demographic trends, ongoing and rapid change, the growth in complexity and the changing nature of work

**Design/methodology/approach** – The main method for constructing this paper is analysis of selected texts rather than the more conventional empirical studies. The approach is that of scenario construction, guided by the criteria established by Nowotny et al. Evidence is gathered of emergent trends that affect management practices and structures now and in the foreseeable future. These trends are identified and woven into a commentary that links them in a focus on the priorities for Australian organizations.

Findings - The findings from this research suggest that "command-based" management structures of the bureaucracy, given emergent trends, present as an impediment to organizational success. Rather, a workforce policy reform agenda for both understanding and managing noted historical conditions in a coherent way is proposed.

Practical implications - The conclusions of this paper are significant for large organizations faced with the dynamism of the modern era and the difficulties associated with emerging demographic and social trends. They suggest a workforce policy reform agenda for both understanding and managing these historical conditions in a coherent way.

Originality/value - This paper deals with a topic that is exercising policy makers in all the developed economies. It offers practical advice to assist the development of workforce policy to better manage emergent trends.

Keywords Ageing (biology), Knowledge management, Lifelong learning, Employee development, Workplace, Society

Paper type Research paper

n this paper I discuss the positives and challenges associated with Australia's emerging population trends. First, I introduce the topics of change and the ageing workforce. I then point to Australia's emerging population trends illustrating the potential consequences of ageing and low fertility rates on workforce availability, practice and procedure. The implications associated with the influences of globalization, ICTs and ageing on the work force are then discussed. Solutions to some of the problems generated by these historical changes are canvassed.

Nowotny et al. (2001, pp. 33-49) identify an historical shift from what they refer to as "Mode 1" Society to "Mode 2" society. The organisational mechanisms of these kinds of societies are different. Nowotny (2002) states that:

In Mode 2 there is greater interaction . . . characterised by an overall increase in complexity which embraces a pervasive and inherent uncertainty, greater institutional permeability, the emergence of new forms of economic rationality, the emergence of a greater degree of self-organization, and a profound shift in our notions of time and space

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Nowotny *et al.* (2001 p. 36) describe "the accumulation of uncertainties affecting social choice and behaviour, individual life-styles and identities" as unending. In this accumulation, society's "stable categorisations" (Nowotny *et al.*, 2001) that once provided for differentiation, have been eroded revealing a much more fluid, volatile and transgressive existence. Similarly, the elimination of distance, induced by information and communication technologies, the compression of space associated with the merging of global and local and the emerging "self-organising capacity of science and society" have fundamentally altered existence (Nowotny *et al.*, 2001).

In a Mode 2 society, to "know" is to be capable of competent participation in the complex web of relationships among people and activities (Gherardi *et al.*, 1998). Life now moves at the speed of technology, connection between individuals is expanding, the concept of "remote" is disappearing and technology is feeding individuality (Romer, 2002). Roles are also changing. The young are teaching the old (Davis, 1997; MacKay, 1997) and ways of learning are changing. The co-evolution of society and technology has revealed new modes of organization for society and business (Malone, 2002). Knowledge has become a major organising principle for human development (Nowotny *et al.*, 2001).

Entry into this knowledge society will require new patterns of collaboration and new modes of partnership (Krogh et al., 2000). These new ways of doing things emphasize the skills that individuals can bring to the workplace, especially the skills of cooperation and communication (Davenport and Prusak, 2000). However, contrary trends may compromise the potential value that is expected to flow from the economic, technological, social and political dynamism of the new era. Indeed, the combined effects of ageing, low fertility rates and vocational instability among younger workers may lead to a destabilising skills shortage, a reduction in the number of workers of prime working age (Morrison, 1999; Grant et al., 2004) and a shift in dependency ratios (National Academy of Science, 2001). These trends carry with them a number of economic challenges. As the working-age population decreases, countries may begin to experience declines in human capital (Grant et al., 2004), shortages that may impact economic growth potential, add to inflationary pressures and negatively impact productivity growth. These emerging pressures also have implications for the future performance of capital markets and "[in Europe] ... will have a huge impact on the success of the current generation of pension reforms" (Böersch-Supan, 2004). In the wake of this potential, policy that seeks to support the continued participation of the large pool of older, experienced and skilled workers in paid work emerges as an important mechanism to protect productivity and economic growth potential.

For example, baby boomers are set to retire from the workforce during the next decade or so and, in their retirement, will take with them, in the medium term, irreplaceable levels of experience (Centre For Strategic and International Studies, 2000; Corporate Leadership Council, 2002a, b). At the same time low fertility rates will reduce the supply of younger workers joining the workforce (Access Economics, 2001). These trends will, in combination, produce labour market shortages, generating heightened competition for skilled and able employees. Employers will need to move quickly to capture and protect difficult to replace intellectual capital (Corporate Leadeship Council, 2002a, b). Indeed, the decreasing availability of scientific and technical workers is already of particular concern (Clarke, 2002; Corporate Leadeship Council, 2002b). Organizations must, therefore, look to new ways of retaining existing employees and to make better use of their older workers' skills and experience (Baltzell, 2000; Corporate Leadeship Council, 2002b). Firms will also need to continue to advance and develop their younger workers. Managing this dyad will present special challenges for all organizations.

Many organizations already emphasize the role of the individual and the importance of partnership and collaboration as new and important organising principles. However, the question of how this emphasis will be realized, largely, remains open. Indeed, it would seem that the ageing population, low fertility rates and the looming skills shortage combined with the influences of globalization and information communication technologies (ICTs), if not handled well, might constrain the capacity of Australian organizations to achieve their goals and to meet stakeholder obligations. Significantly these trends are also accompanied by

concerns regarding the quality of the future workforce. I now turn to a brief examination of the Australian labour market.

In 2001, only 59 percent of Australian 17 year olds had a year 12 or equivalent education (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002). This standard of attainment which has remained largely unchanged over the last 40 years has lead to predictions that Australia will have the lowest proportion of upper secondary qualified citizens in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) by 2010 (Cosier, 2002). This statistic is complicated by the expectation that nearly half of the Australian workforce, listed as having a post graduate qualification in 2001, are expected to retire in the next decade (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002).

The looming skills shortage combined with the relatively low standards in educational attainment will present as difficult challenges for all organizations. Government, professional associations and organizations have taken some early steps to respond to these challenges though much of this remains embryonic. The Commonwealth Government's (Australia) recent announcement on superannuation reform continues this trend of adjustment (Commonwealth of Australia, 2004) marking out an important element of the ageing workforce reform agenda.

Notwithstanding the value of this recent initiative Australia's emerging demographic trends and educational attainment standards may constrain the capacity of business and government to implement their agendas. While comparative year 12 completion rates are of concern, post-secondary achievement standards are also of concern. For example, in 2001 approximately 60 percent of year 12 qualified Australian 17-year-olds did not go on to tertiary education and of those who did, approximately 60 percent are expected to achieve a recognized qualification by the age of 24 years (Cosier, 2002). Indeed, by the decade 2020-2030, given current educational attainment data, many older workers may not have the basic skills needed to gain entry into or to secure ongoing paid employment (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2002; OECD, 1998a, p. 129).

In seeking to manage forecast workforce and skill shortages and to make better use of current employees, change to retirement policies that lengthen working life can be used to partially offset the projected fall in labour force growth and forecast skills shortages (OECD, 1998a). However, the incentives to retire and the disincentives to late retirement need to be adjusted in tandem with workplace reform (Carey, 1999; McMorrow and Roeger, 2000). The recent Australian Federal Government superannuation policy shift takes positive steps in this direction (Commonwealth of Australia, 2004). Business also has a role to play.

Given the weight of emerging demographic trends and forces for change many organizations may need to reconsider the appropriateness of existing working arrangements for older workers. Older workers could move from full-time work to new forms of part-time work according to the evolving needs of the employer and the individual. Individuals could take up new forms of tenure and contingent employment as internal consultants or as employees working to adjusted schedules. In so doing, these workers could contribute their skills and experience directly to specific projects and, in the process, transfer knowledge to younger workers (Office for an Ageing Australia, 1999). Measures such as these are likely to assist organizations to maintain their leadership bench strength at a time of critical vulnerability. There could also be periods of intense work, interrupted by pauses for sabbaticals and the like. Starting at age 50 or so, mature employees could begin a planned transition from full-time work to full retirement (Baltzell, 2000; Office for an Ageing Australia, 1999). Employees no longer competing for promotion or for "sought after jobs" could move from supervisor or manager to mentor, coach or adviser (Office for an Ageing Australia, 1999).

In providing for phased retirement for its able, adaptable and healthy individuals, employers could save some of the costs of hiring and training new employees while also maintaining the institutional memory and technical knowledge of its older workers (Kelly, 1997; Van Yoder, 2002). Indeed, a positive return on the training and development investment in older employees, due to the low quit rate of older employees, is likely (OECD, 1998b; Agarwal and De Groote, 1998).

However, the expansion of working time corridors and the intrusion of work into life, a product of the technologically induced collapse of time, space and distance (Docherty *et al.*, 2002; Lowe, 2004; Nowotny et al., 2001), often associated with "low quality work" has left many feeling disenchanted. The ideas of choice, opting out, seizing control and "sea change" now feature prominently in popular literature. Workplace reform proposals therefore, also need to recognise and respond to the intrinsic and extrinsic value that individuals place on work. This suggests that reform efforts should move away from the "generic", towards individual tailoring and reminds that flexibility in retirement goes hand-in-hand with individual choice and flexible careers.

The modern workforce is characterized by flexible careers where employees work in a number of different organizations and occupations during their working lives. Though, for many public sector employees, such as in Education Queensland where average tenure is around 12 years, the mobility that characterizes employment in the private sector would be a unique experience (Department of Industrial Relations, 2001, p. 20). In the general population the wide variety of experiences accrued through the routine of professional and personal development, contributes to the acquisition of expertise across various domains (Van der Heijden, 2002). However, employers and employees in the private sector also face challenges. Many highly qualified employees, over the age of 40, are confronted with a progressively declining degree of re-employability (Van der Heijden, 2002). While this may not have been a problem in the past, in the face of constant organizational change (Davenport and Prusak, 2000) many older workers may lack the skills to adapt and are at risk of being left behind.

For public sector employees the lack of mobility is a complicating factor, particularly when judged against evidence that suggests that life-long learning has not been widely adopted in some jurisdictions (Grimbeek, 2003). Indeed, in the modern era the need for continuous education in adults is especially important among professionals where the limited shelf-life of new degrees has been reduced to less than five years (OECD, 2002b). Equally important, adults will not only have to learn more, continuously, they will also have to "unlearn" more than ever before (OECD, 2002b). These emerging requirements resonate with the debate surrounding "The rise of the creative class" postulated by Florida (2002).

Creativity ... is now the decisive source of competitive advantage (Florida, 2002 p. 5).

With the shift to an ideas and creativity driven environment, success follows those who can exploit "intangible" knowledge and information and convert them to tangible benefits – financial, cultural and social. Given forecast workforce and skill shortages members of the ageing workforce, knowledgeable, skilled and experienced, may well have to be relied on as an important creative force for the future.

Several possibilities follow. Measures that improve the attraction and retention of older workers, deal with the physical decline associated with ageing, maintain trainability, focus on learning, improve work-life-balance and deal with ageism are now discussed.

The importance of skilled people to organizational success (Baltzell, 2000) and creativity will compel organizations to look to older workers to supplement the skills and knowledge that they need to succeed. In particular, workforce ageing will also mean that many organizations will increasingly rely on mid-to-late-career workers and a greater share of workers aged 45 years and over (OECD, 1998a). Indeed, at age 55, many employees may prefer to remain in the workforce (Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee, 1995) and may not have the financial resources, despite recent initiatives, to fund their retirement (Hume, 2002).

If organizations are to succeed in attracting and retaining older workers, the implementation of policy that seeks to remodel employment practices and processes to better accommodate the needs of older workers while continuing to meet the needs and aspirations of younger workers would seem to be a useful approach. However, the task of accommodating these needs, to design sustainable work systems (Docherty *et al.*, 2002), will not be easy (Zemke *et al.*, 1999). The physical decline associated with ageing will present specific challenges.

Changes in musculo-skeletal capacity can be pronounced after the age of 45-50 years. For example, strength at 55 years of age is approximately 80 percent of strength at age 35

(McMahan and Phillips, 1999). Change in the physical work capacity of individuals has also been associated with a decline in the functionality of the cardiovascular system (Ilmarinen, 2001). Accordingly, when job demands exceed an older worker's capability, the older worker may be forced to compensate by using increased physical effort or by taking fewer rest periods (McMahan and Phillips, 1999). Compensating practice of this type can lead to the development of cumulative trauma disorders. This would be an unwelcome outcome for affected employees and for employers struggling under the weight of ballooning workers' compensation levies and charges. Job design and measures such as quality workplace initiatives (Docherty et al., 2002) emerge therefore as important reform tools.

Notwithstanding these concerns regarding the physical decline associated with ageing, research quoted by Access Economics (2001), shows that work methods and strategies resulting from older persons' experiences may raise their levels of effectiveness to a standard greater than what it was in their earlier years (Access Economics, 2001; Ilmarinen, 2001). Indeed, the functions of information processing change very little with age. Moreover, some cognitive functions, such as language or the ability to process complex problems improve with age (Ilmarinen, 2001). In most work tasks, speed and precision can be substituted by the high motivation, experience and wisdom of ageing workers (Ilmarinen, 2001). Research has also shown that in Australia mature workers have good learning capacity and retain information better than their younger counterparts (Office for an Ageing Australia, 1999) and as well as offering continuity, contribute to the blending of skills throughout the workforce. Similarly, recent research has shown that the brain maintains its plasticity throughout life. Consequently, learning can, and should be, life-long (OECD, 2002b). There is also a "use-it-or-lose-it" element to the cognitive capacity of older workers to acquire new skills (Van der Heijden, 2002). Indeed, the feasibility of change is contingent on the character of early training and the opportunities provided for retraining (Ryder, 1965). This underscores the importance of life-long-learning (Ilmarinen, 2001) and reminds of the, potentially, adverse implications for ageing workers who have been isolated from the learning agenda (Schienstock, 1999).

Despite the general evidence of a physical decline associated with ageing, the degree of physical change in older workers is strongly dependent on the effectiveness of exercise and the adoption of healthy lifestyle choices, heredity, and the environment (Ilmarinen, 2001; Scroop, 2000). A recent release from the OECD notes the growing evidence that supports the value of non-pharmacological and behavioural interventions for contributing to improved performance into old age (OECD, 2002b). For example, task improvement correlates with improved cardio-vascular function (OECD, 2002b). Motivation has also been shown to be more important than youth for successful learning (OECD, 2002b). Accordingly, an ageing workforce policy mix that safeguards health through a combination of redesigned workplace practices and procedures that are matched to individual capabilities, along with the modification of lifestyle factors appears warranted (Ilmarinen, 2001). The example provided by Lockheed Martin Tactical Aircraft Systems provides a useful illustration of an effective ageing workforce policy approach.

The experience of Lockheed Martin Tactical Aircraft Systems in their approach to their ageing workforce has shown that the costs associated with the redesign of jobs, tools and practice, can be offset through improved performance, lower claims and reduced medical costs (Van Yoder, 2002). Given this experience it would appear likely that in implementing an ageing workforce strategy, similar benefits would also flow to Australian organizations. Importantly, such an approach is also likely to assist in the transmission of highly desirable work traits from older to younger workers such as loyalty and a strong work ethic. To assist in this process, older workers would need to be provided with enhanced development opportunities (OECD, 1998b), to maintain their trainability, new modes of tenure, encouragement to adopt healthy lifestyles and customised working arrangements.

If older workers are to acquire the necessary levels of adaptability, the literature suggests they would need to participate in broad training and development programmes in new domains, concentrating on expanding their capacity to cope with future employment challenges throughout their careers. Importantly, workers employed in a learning

environment, are much less susceptible to a decline in trainability (OECD, 1998b). It would seem wise therefore, when seeking to enhance employability, that all individuals acquire more than one area of professional expertise. In this regard regular cross-functional job changes are likely to assist (Van der Heijden, 2002). Opportunities such as participation in research partnerships with universities, project-based and "stretch" assignments, work shadowing as well as secondments, attachments and shadow cabinet (for potential executives) designed to facilitate wider learning or to address the specific needs of individuals would also be appropriate. Succession planning, talent management, individual development planning for high-performing employees and the like also emerge as positive intervention strategies. Importantly, the value of the learning that would flow from these types of formal and informal activities could also be recognized and accredited, ensuring that the application of individual effort is appropriately recognized. More broadly, the increasing prevalence of transdisciplinary studies and approaches to work will assist all workers to grow and learn, life-long (Koizumi, 1999 as cited in OECD, 2002b).

The drivers for learning are also associated with modern working conditions. The average worker is confronted with new tasks and problems and has to develop new skills and competencies more frequently than before (Schienstock, 1999). For individuals then, life-long learning has become an essential for both employability and career progression. At the same time, fewer occupations can now guarantee lifelong employment. Rather, security of employment now resides in the capacity of individuals to build their employability. The "new" contract revolves around employee motivation, job enrichment and competency development (Schindlmayr, 2001).

Importantly, since the life-cycles of occupations and functions offered by organizations have shortened significantly in the last 20 years, the mastering of learning and coping strategies is relevant to all employees regardless of age (Van der Heijden, 2002). Accordingly, it would seem reasonable for organizations to adjust their professional development models to focus on keeping employees' skills relevant and employees functionally mobile, through formal and informal means and by expanding the training time horizon. By investing in its employees throughout their careers and in utilising formal and informal methodologies employees will be assisted to maintain their trainability and employability. While skills learnt "on-the-job" tend to be less portable than formal training and may expose workers to the risks of functional immobility, a balanced, formal and informal development regime is likely to achieve the desired end (OECD, 1998a).

More specifically, training for younger and older workers is likely to be more successful when the training regimes seek to capitalize on the qualities and attributes that the different age groups bring to the training experience (Casey, 1998). Importantly, age specific risks need to be dealt with early during working life (European Foundation, 1999). If older workers can be trained to cope with new technology and work methods, and are provided with a flexible benefits and work package as well as "quality work" they would be much more likely, and able, to stay longer. Accordingly, in creating conditions that let employees manage and balance their lives, learning and careers, business and government would provide their workers with the capability to learn throughout their working lives. The introduction of measures aimed at improving work-life-balance along with other measures such as the provision of individual learning accounts and development plans will assist. Similarly, the introduction of "quality employment" measures (Docherty *et al.*, 2002; Lowe, 2004) will also assist employers to attract, retain and develop an engaged and competent workforce for the future. In particular, measures that seek to accommodate the work-life-balance aspirations of individual employees appear to offer an important set of reform strategies.

Modern employees now need to be autonomous and self-motivated learners. In the future knowing how to improve one's own learning and performance will be especially important (UK Cabinet Office, 2001). Learning accounts along with development incentives, particularly for high potential and high performing employees, will provide organizations with the means to achieve preferred, organizational and individual, learning and development outcomes. In turn, individuals could shift their development goals to accord with their life-cycle phases, career aspirations and ambitions, adjusting the pace of their

lives to suit their emerging, planned or short notice needs. However, many outside considerations can affect the lives of employees both on and off the job impacting the capacity of individuals to engage in life-long learning. For example, in Australia and the USA elder care is emerging as a growing concern (Hume, 2002; Van Yoder, 2002).

Recent evidence in Australia shows that increasing numbers of older people are living alone with the likelihood that care-giving responsibilities are set to expand (Trewin, 2000). Despite the expanding role of women in society, attitudes remain "strikingly" robust (United Nations, 1997), with women continuing to bear the brunt of the care giving responsibilities (Hignite, 2000; OECD, 2000a). In a recent *Harvard Business Review* article on women in management, 67 percent of respondents reported family commitments as a barrier to advancement (Wellington *et al.*, 2003 p. 19). While Encel (2003) notes a rise in the labour force participation rate among women over the last 20 years, the growth in the number of single parent households and the growing need for elder care may well see the gains of the recent past lost. Accordingly, the introduction of policy to assist women in their care-giving role will assist to maintain and, perhaps, increase the participation rate of women (McMorrow and Roeger, 2000). Time scarcity will provide an added complication.

Increasingly, working adults, sharing the same households, will move towards divergent shift and work schedules, complicating their efforts to build sustainable work-life patterns (Castells, 2000; Glenn, 1995). Time scarcity will, become a dominant factor for individuals seeking to balance their lives, work and study (Lowe, 2002). Equally so, the trend towards an increasing proportion of single-parent households with dependent children will be an added complication (Castells, 2000). Under the weight of these "new" living arrangements the predominance of contingent employment practices for women in Australia may expand further (OECD, 2002a). Accordingly, the introduction of policy that assists business and government employees to access a greater range of flexible time off options including leave packaging and flexible working time provides ways of generating the necessary flexibilities (Office for an Ageing Australia, 1999). Ageism will present as a particular difficulty.

An ageing society means that greater numbers of older people may want or need to remain in the workforce for longer periods (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 1999). However, prejudices can also exacerbate many of the "problems of ageing" (European Foundation, 1997 p. 6; Laws, 1995). Older people often encounter barriers to full participation in society (Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission, 1999). This is most marked with respect to employment. For example, a common stereotype of older workers is that they are less productive in the workplace. Prejudices such as these exacerbate many of the "problems of ageing" (European Foundation, 1997, p. 6; Laws, 1995). Accordingly, as the workforce ages, it seems reasonable to assert that employers must confront their own prejudices through education and training and learn how to manage older employees more effectively (Capowski, 1994). Significantly, a failure to address ageism may lead to the loss of the potential value that older workers can bring to an organization.

Ageism is a particularly insidious form of discrimination and does not just target the elderly. Ageism deals with a broad category and involves negative attitudes about people who are simply older than others (Gudykunst, 1994). These negative attitudes can extend to a deep-seated uneasiness, revulsion or distaste for growing old (Gudykunst, 1994) and are most commonly covert, "... evasive and easily masked" (Encel, 2003 p. 4). Indeed, when the self-concepts of individuals are threatened individuals tend to respond by seeking ways to bolster their self-image (Gudykunst, 1994). Often this is done through positive comparison.

Generally young people tend to associate ageing with disability, dependency, or irrelevancy (Gudykunst, 1994). Older people, on the other hand, may, through a lack of effective interaction, adopt self-protection strategies (Gudykunst, 1994). Combined, these stereotypes can contribute to a break down in communication and collaborative effort. Accordingly, a focussed education and policy approach that deals with the full complexity of ageing and ageism would, in principle, appear warranted.

However, policy approaches that deal with ageing and ageism also need to be carefully framed so as not to stigmatise older workers (European Foundation, 1997), isolate younger workers or to impose obligations on older workers who simply do not have the health or desire to continue in full time or part time employment. The logic of a well-implemented ageing strategy is that it will improve morale, teamwork, cooperation and productivity across all levels of the organization (European Foundation, 1997), to create a sustainable work system. Key success factors include backing from senior management, supportive human resource structures, the commitment of the ageing workers, flexible and patient implementation and financial backing. Accordingly, an integrated and balanced policy approach, tailored to meet the needs of work and life in the modern era would provide a feasible policy response to the trends of ageing, low-fertility rates and less than ideal educational attainment standards. I now turn to discuss learning and diversity in the socio-cultural context of organizational life.

Expert knowledge is a fusion of knowing, know-how and reflection constructed from social interaction within a specific socio-cultural setting (Gherardi *et al.*, 1998). Yet such (tacit) knowledge is difficult to tap into because it is arcane, complex and elusive (Krogh *et al.*, 2000; Florida, 2002). Indeed, "know-how and know-who" tend to remain tacit, socially embedded and resist codification (Paquet, 2000, p. 5). In order to surface tacit knowledge and to build new cognitive associations (Kleiner, 1995) collaboration based on trust, openness and reciprocity between entities is required (Holton, 2001; Davenport and Prusak, 2000).

Difficulties associated with capturing "lessons", experienced by many organizations, (Davenport and Prusak, 2000) can be attributed, in part, to a reliance not only on the technical aspects of knowledge management but also a dysfunctional socio-cultural context (Lowe, 2002). Tacit knowledge is a key learning element but resists codification (Florida, 2002) and can only be shared through cooperation and interaction (European Foundation, 1996; Lundvall and Borrás, 1997; Krogh *et al.*, 2000). Thus, trust, interpersonal and communication skills and mutual commitment are now very important (European Foundation, 1996; Wenger *et al.*, 2002). Individuals however, can only communicate and cooperate in a socially cohesive environment (Lundvall and Borrás, 1997).

Ageism therefore presents as a potent dis-integrating factor. Given the importance of social cohesion to successful learning and organizational performance, the ageing of society, external and internal trends and the continued growth in diversity, the need for modes of work and organization that contribute to the development of social cohesion and which truly value workforce diversity among a community of cooperating individuals are thus re-emphasised.

Through community, knowledge can be shared and exchanged, providing the opportunity to apply new knowledge to new contexts and in so doing enhance individual learning. Indeed, high-level skills and knowledge in individuals flows from "learning" that comes from socialized knowledge (Zack, 1999). This underscores the importance of participation, integration and interaction (Hartog, 1999) and reminds that an effective response to the ageing of the workforce may also contribute to improvements in knowledge management. Indeed, the combination of complimentary competencies, the alignment of the purposeful parts (Gharajedaghi, 1999), has become the linchpin of the knowledge economy (Amidon, 1997). "Learning" has become a form of social calculus, a framework to integrate vertical, horizontal and temporal capabilities (Gharajedaghi, 1999).

Organisational effectiveness now relies on the purposeful association of an organization's members, their mutual commitment and their sense of belonging. Accordingly, in seeking to respond to the challenges posed by demographic, social and technological trends the incorporation of new management processes that recognize the dynamics of knowledge work as well as the development of new ways to build, capture and utilize new ideas through learning set in the social context of the organization would be feasible initiatives.

The growth in knowledge work, in company with the technological and societal dynamism of the modern era, also raises the need for structural and procedural reform, tailoring, high job quality and new ways to support and develop key employees. These interventions resonate with the ageing agenda and are now discussed.

Notwithstanding the forces for change noted earlier, Lundvall and Borrás (1997) argue that efficiencies will only follow if accompanied by organizational flexibility and new forms of managerial control. Thus, hierarchical and complex modes of organization with simple jobs are being replaced by decentralised and network-oriented organizations with more complex jobs (European Foundation, 1996). The emphasis has shifted to "communication, teamwork, reliability, problem solving" (Garvin, 1993) "and includes the incorporation of a positive attitude to learning" (Seltzer and Bentley, 2001 p. 19). More broadly, in response to ageing and the dynamism of the modern era, an integrated organizational response that seeks to harness the benefits of knowledge work while mitigating the risks associated with the ageing population and emerging skill shortages is likely to facilitate goal achievement. Approaches that provide for tailoring, enhance flexibility and seek to develop a quality workplace emerge as feasible approaches.

If older workers are to be encouraged to remain in the paid workforce they also need a reason to extend their working lives. Factors such as occupational stress and illnesses, the intensification of work, extended working hours, intimidation and harassment are unlikely to assist in reshaping older workers attitudes towards an extended working life (European Foundation, 2002). The creation of an organizational reputation of being an ethical, trustworthy and a generally good place to work is likely to deliver additional benefit to (Hewitt Associates, 2000). For example, the promotion of quality jobs, characterized by the attributes of openness, job-depth, participation, individual autonomy, open communication, learning and growth opportunities and individual tailoring, has been shown to attract and retain high performing and motivated employees (Docherty et al., 2002; Lowe, 2004; Presidency of the European Union, 2001; Wenger et al., 2002). By adjusting the rhythm of work, investing in tailored training and development and by providing flexible structures, benefits and remuneration, business and government in Australia would have the means to demonstrate their commitment to their employees. These measures would assist in engendering loyalty (Corporate Leadeship Council, 2000; Presidency of the European Union, 2001), contribute to the well-being of employees and boost organizational performance (Presidency of the European Union, 2001).

Yet, for many younger workers the static and functional isolation of their specialty areas might be regarded as "low quality", by failing to adequately capture the wide applicability of their bachelors' degree and professional knowledge (Lowe, 2001). For example, many teachers regard much of the content based exchange between teacher and student as a low risk low skill arena where their professional expertise is under-utilized (Hargreaves *et al.*, 2001; Zimmer and McKern, 2000). On the other side of the coin, few recent graduates have the necessary leadership and teamwork skills (Lowe, 2002) to effectively engage with others across the organization. For many, these skills are more likely to be acquired through experience. These factors underscore the importance of action learning, making an increased use of existing talent (Baltzell, 2000) and the adoption of formal and informal learning approaches that emphasize cooperation, communication, community and project based or cross-functional employment opportunities to name a few (Hargreaves *et al.*, 2001; Lowe, 2002). For high performers and high potentials, individual development strategies emerge as key.

In turn, a move away from functionally based careers to team based practices and improved opportunities to access cross-functional employment (Tiwana, 2000) and promotion, individual development, mentoring, coaching and career planning would follow. Initiatives such as these can assist professionals to extend their learning well beyond their "book knowledge" (Quinn *et al.*, 1996 p. 188). Opportunities such as the ones described here have been advocated by (Drucker, 1988) who, in "The coming of the new organization" forecast the rise of work performed by specialists working together and sharing mutual responsibility in task forces that cut across traditional departments.

Further, senior executives and those with hard to replace expertise and experience, who are approaching retirement, could, as part of their phased retirement programme, become mentors imparting their experience, advice and network access to directly assist newly appointed executives, managers and supervisors. In so doing these newly appointed managers would be given the opportunity to capture corporate learning through

engagement with their assigned mentors (Fullan, 2003) thus realising and capturing the social capital investment in older workers (Glaeser, 2001). In turn, the lessons of the past would not have to be re-learned.

I now discuss an alternative mode of organization and the role of the individual. I do this so that the preceding discussion is linked to structural and procedural reform initiatives proposed here.

In many organizations the model of organization is mechanistic tending towards centrism (Gharajedaghi, 1999). The mechanistic form lacks the ability to restructure itself or to take full advantage from the knowledge of staff. As Stiglitz (1994) observes, centralization does not work because it stifles the bottom-up approach and ignores the individual (Paquet, 2000). Indeed, decentralization as a mode of organization has been forecast "to become more critical" to organizational success in the future (Drucker, 1988 p. 16) while control from the centre is becoming impossible (Allee, 2003). Drucker (2001) adds that emergent structures are too complex, too volatile and changeable for the routine of management that emphasizes hierarchy, top down decision making and functional "silos". Drucker's observation rejects the deterministic hypothesis (Laszlo, 1996; Prigogine, 1997) and points to the adoption of a multi-dimensional organizational design that recognizes the interdependence of technology, outputs and the environment as a preferred mode of arrangement (Gharajedaghi, 1999; Paquet, 2000).

In the future, for change to be enabled it is a prerequisite to have a flexible, adaptive, and agile schema that recognizes the value of knowledge and learning (Fullan, 2001). The preferred model of organization for knowledge worker is a model that delivers "power-to-do" (Gharajedaghi, 1999), multiplied and duplicated across an organization, rather than "power-over".

As Prigogine (1997) notes, chaos cannot be solved at the level of individual trajectories but only at the level of "ensembles". Under such a construct, the role of the Centre is properly one of ensuring that the interface between operating elements, the ensemble, is robust (Prigogine, 1997). Indeed, in the model proposed here, and in acknowledging the complexity of modern organizational life, the role of the centre is less the management of structure and the topology of networks, and more the focussing on the complex dynamics that take place along the links (Gharajedaghi, 1999). Under such an arrangement, the Centre's role is the management of the architecture, interactions and relationships between entities rather than setting a direction down a linear path (Fullan, 2001). This role involves the adoption of measures that enable collaboration, the flexible provision of resources and infrastructure, facilitating innovative practice and enhancing the flow of information between interdependent elements. In effect, the Centre's role would move to support learning about learning (Fullan, 2001). Such a scheme of arrangement recognises the multi-dimensionality of organizational life, that knowledge growth is facilitated through sharing and that through learning a socio-cultural system acquires the capacity to adapt (Gharajedaghi, 1999). Issues associated with the ageing of the workforce serve to underscore the importance of adopting a socio-cultural and systems approach to learning and flexibility. The role of the individual is central in such an arrangement.

Given the forces for change in the world of work and the growth in complexity, both externally and internally, organisational arrangements that emphasize communication, flexibility, fast decision making, the role of the individual, participation and collaboration are now important. Relationship skills that deliver the capacity for individuals to engage across disciplines in the socio-cultural context of organizational life now need to be emphasized (Davenport and Prusak, 2000). Higher levels of individual skill, flexibility and adaptability are also needed to accommodate ongoing workforce and workplace developments (Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee, 1995). Accordingly, it would seem prudent for business and government when reviewing their responses to the ageing of the workforce to reconsider their organizational forms, to not only embrace the concepts of complexity (Laszlo, 1996) and organizational flexibility but also to respond to the needs of individuals and the communal networks that connect them to their daily work (Allee, 2003).

In this endeavour programmes that emphasize networking and collaboration through professional communities of practice (Fullan, 2001), weaved into the organizational hierarchy will assist (Hasse, 2003). A range of measures that facilitate improved learning opportunities, workforce and workplace flexibility, include structural and procedural reform and deal with the complexities of ageing and workforce and skill shortages will deliver an improved capacity to deal with the dynamism of the modern era in a integrated and coordinated fashion.

## Conclusions

To conclude this paper, forecast workforce shortages in Australia combined with ongoing low levels of educational attainment will see the competition for skilled labour increase markedly. Increasingly, success will depend upon being able to attract and retain the best and the brightest (Van Yoder, 2002). Significantly, employers and society in general hold inaccurate perceptions about the capability of older workers (Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee, 1995).

Consequently, many older people have a wealth of knowledge and skills that are not being fully utilized (Senate Employment, Education and Training References Committee, 1995). In turn, business and government in Australia can no longer afford to discard the most loyal, committed and experienced element of its workforce (Corporate Leadeship Council, 2002b). Indeed, the literature suggests that premature retirement dilutes organizational diversity, narrows the leadership development pool, contributes to higher training costs, reduces organizational flexibility and interferes with the processes of learning and innovation. Accordingly, an employment strategy that recognizes the value of its older workers would be a futures oriented response to the forces at work in the external environment.

It follows that business and government in Australia also needs to benefit from the knowledge, skills and intelligence of all its workers (Wells, 1998) other than bidding them a premature goodbye. More broadly a sustaining structure and culture that supports the ongoing development of core skills (Wells, 1998) according to the needs of individuals and those of the organization are indicated by the literature (Wells, 1998). The introduction of flexible employment policies, quality work and flexible benefits will assist in this regard. For older workers, customized working arrangements and higher levels of investment in life-long learning will help to ensure that workers' skills remain relevant (Carey, 1999). In the future, focussed initiatives for older workers will provide the means to retain institutional knowledge and specialized skills (Rappaport, 2001).

Organisational flexibility and new forms of management control are also needed. The literature suggests that a broad framework that supports organisational change, workforce mobility, quality of employment, the physical decline associated with ageing, formal and informal training for new skills, a willingness to experiment and a recognition of the needs of the individual along with flexible work and benefits will be required. Business and government also need to shift the organizational focus to work units and sub-groups, and expand the roles of its employees. Training to promote networking and transdisciplinarity, to support autonomy and to provide for the fluid exchange of information is likely to assist in this effort. Similarly, horizontal career moves, assigning individual responsibility for career management and learning and the use of development incentives are also likely to be beneficial (Corporate Leadeship Council, 2002b). Thus, in seeking to respond to the challenges posed by the ageing of the workforce, low fertility rates and the dynamism of Mode 2 Society a transgressive reform agenda that embraces a multiplicity of approaches rather than single-issue reform proposals would appear to offer a long-term remedy.

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