

**THE INFLUENCE OF EMPLOYEE AGE ON EMPLOYEE AND  
ORGANISATION OUTCOMES: A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE  
LITERATURE**

**BY**

**INDIATSY CHRISTOPHER MASINDE**

**REG NO D80/80261/2009**

**SUPERVISOR**

**PROF: PETER K'OBONYO**

**An independent conceptual study paper submitted in partial fulfilment  
of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of philosophy (PhD) in  
Business Administration**

**SCHOOL OF BUSINESS**

**UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI**

**SEPTEMBER 2011**

University of NAIROBI Library



0360325 5

## DECLARATION

This Conceptual Independent Study Paper is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University.

Sign-----



22/12/2011

-----  
**INDIATSY CHRISTOPHER MASINDE.**

**ADM NO. D80/80261/2009**

**DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION,**

**SCHOOL OF BUSINESS,**

**UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI.**

The Independent Study Paper has been Submitted for Examination with my approval as the University Supervisor.

Sign-----



11/02/2012

**PROFESSOR PETER K'OBONYO,**

**Date**

**SCHOOL OF BUSINESS,**

**UNIVERSITY OF NAIROBI,**

**NAIROBI, KENYA.**

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This study was accomplished with the help of People to whom I am deeply indebted to:

First, I wish to thank my Supervisor Professor Peter K'Obonyo and Dr. Ogutu, for the help, additions and Critical Comments they made to this work. They rendered me innumerable support and assistance by patiently reading and suggesting corrections and additions to the preceding drafts.

Secondly, I would also thank my Classmates/Colleagues in the PhD class for their positive comments and Critiques during Discussions and Group Presentations.

## TABLE OF CONTENT

### CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1	Over view .....	1
1.2.	The concept of age .....	2
1.3.	Culture and age .....	
1.4	The paradox of age and lifespan .....	2
1.5	The Age Mix of the Workforce .....	4
1.6	Age Analysis .....	5
1.7	Age discrimination.....	5

### CHAPTER TWO: AGE AND EMPLOYMENT

2.1.	Influence of Age on Employment behavior.....	8
2.2.	Other Demographic factors .....	8
2.3.	Economic activity of people between 50 and 60 years of age .....	9
2.4.	Minimum Age for Employment .....	10
2.5.1	Age and retirement .....	12
2.5.2	The notion of Relevant age .....	13
2.5.3	Socio – Economic Security in Retirement .....	14
2.5.4	Reasons for retirement.....	15
2.5.5	Factors influencing retirement.....	16

2.5.6	Experience of work .....	18
2.5.7	Gender and family .....	18
2.5.8	Health .....	19
2.5.9	Finance .....	19

**CHAPTER THREE: EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES**

3.1	Employee Outcomes .....	21
3.2	Job satisfaction.....	21
3.3	Organizational commitment.....	22
3.5	Work performance.....	23
3.6	Career orientation.....	23
3.7	Person environment Fit .....	24

**CHAPTER FOUR: AGE AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES**

4.1	Performance appraisal, satisfaction and employee outcomes .....	26
4.2	Leader – member exchange .....	26
4.3	Effect of a person’s career fit on his / her outcomes.....	27
4.4	Impact of overtime work on age and employee outcomes.....	27
4.5	General effects of age on employee outcomes.....	28

4.6	Employment policy .....	29
4.7	Pensions and social security policies .....	29

**CHAPTER FIVE: ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES**

5.0	Basic Concepts and definitions .....	30
5.1	Approaches to measuring organizational outcomes.....	30
5.2	Organizational leaders capacity.....	30
5.3	Work Stress .....	31
5.4	Morale.....	31
	Morale in the work place .....	31
5.5	Absenteeism in the work place.....	32
5.6	Workplace factors .....	33
5.7	Key recommendations on age barriers.....	33

**CHAPTER SIX: AGE AND ORGANISATIONAL OUTCOMES**

6.1	Commitment and Organizational Outcomes .....	36
6.2	Commitment outcomes across Career stages .....	36
6.3	Reincher’s Version of Career Stages: early, Mid and Late .....	36
6.4	Turn over and turnover intentions .....	37

6.5	Performance .....	38
6.6	Absenteeism.....	39

## CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

7.1	The proportion of young versus old workers in the world economies.....	41
7.2	The age mix of the workforce .....	41
7.3	Age discrimination .....	42
7.4	Extension of retirement age.....	42
7.5	Minimum age for employment.....	42
7.6	Institutional factors .....	42
7.7	Future conflict among generations.....	43
7.8	<b>Conclusion</b>	44
7.9	<b>Recommendations</b>	45-47

REFERENCES .....	48 - 50
------------------	---------

APPENDIX 1 CONCEPT OF AGE .....	i
---------------------------------	---

APPENDIX 2 GENERAL CONFERENCE OF INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION ON MINIMUM AGE OF EMPLOYMENT.....	ii-iv
---	-------

## ABSTRACT

This paper is a critical survey on the link between age of employees and organizational outcomes. The paper examines the influence of age on employee performance. It is followed by assessing the advantages and disadvantages of employing both young and older employees in an organization. The lifespan in selected countries is also reviewed to assess circumstances under which organizations in a country could be forced to employ young or old people. The paper also reviews age discrimination in the workplace and how it impacts on employee commitment to the organization hence their performance.

Retirement, its reasons, its influencing factors and how it impacts on employee performance is also highlighted. Age and employee outcomes are highlighted in terms of the effect of a person's career fit on his or her outcomes. Impacts of overtime work on age and effects of age on employee outcomes is also analyzed. The paper also reviews how age impacts on organizational outcomes such as turnover, performance, absenteeism and commitment.

Most organizations prefer young workers or recruits because they have recent experience in the learning process, can be trained faster than older workers, can easily adopt to changes in technology, are more flexible in their attitudes to change and have less family commitments hence more committed to their organizations.

The review clearly reveals that the policy on age and employment should take into account the following facts: firstly, age is a poor predictor of performance. secondly, it is misleading to equate physical and mental ability with age as the results of the review on analysis support the premise that recruiting older workers may sound counter intuitive because they incur higher health care costs, but older workers have few dependants and offer other cost saving measures e.g. low turnover, training new and young workers due to their wealth of experience hence saving on costs.

Most firms view the personal qualities of older workers and the skills acquired during their career life as an important asset, which more than compensates for any additional overheads.



Older worker's added qualities include accuracy, reliability and good communication skills acquired during their long career life which are difficult to replace. More of the population is living active healthy lives as they get older. Recommendations are given to various stake holders including central government, social partners to combat age barriers, in particular human resource managers are urged to practice age diversity management inspired by a managerial philosophy which different age related attitudes and competencies as resources are oriented to facilitate mutual understanding among different age groups.

Assessment, valorization and exchange of skills and experience of old and young workers accompanied by knowledge transmission in both direction. More recognition of old workers by involving them in mentoring projects. Enhancing job satisfaction, especially addressing young peoples' expectations of autonomy, mid generation's needs for flexible working. Old generation's needs to avoid too heavy demanding jobs.

All these are aimed at enhancing productivity of all employees regardless of age. To reap maximum benefits from all categories of employees.

## **CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Overview**

This paper is a critical literature survey on the link between age of employees and organizational outcomes. The paper intends to examine the influence of age on employee performance. It is followed by assessing the merits and demerits of employing both the young and old employees in an organization. The lifespan in selected countries is also reviewed to assess circumstances under which organizations in a country could be forced to employ young or aged employees.

The paper also reviews age discrimination in the work place and how it impacts on employee commitment to the organization, hence their performance. Finally the paper looks at beliefs, norms and judgements on the link between age and employment, followed by an analysis of retirement and age, the concept of age and employee outcomes.

### **1.2 The Concept of Age**

Age refers to the amount of time a human being, a creature or something has been in existence on earth. Age is determined from the time of birth in human beings and it is measured in terms of years, months, and days. Many communities in African societies have different ways of determining age (Mbiti, 1985). The Luhya for example, make use of stages in life to determine age e.g. when a baby grows the first lower and upper teeth they regard the baby to have reached the weaning age. When a baby starts leaking its toes, it was a stage marking the age for the mother's readiness to conceive another baby. The Maasai community considered one to have reached the age of an adult after passing through a circumcision initiation and qualifying by killing a lion. Most African communities determined transition from the age of childhood to adulthood through initiation rites (Mbiti, 1985).

An animal's life is usually divided into various stages. Historically, the life span of humans is divided into eight stages because biological changes are slow moving and vary

from person to person. Arbitrary dates are usually set to mark periods of life. In some cultures the divisions are quite varied. In the U.S.A adulthood legally begins at the age of eighteen, while old age is considered to begin at the age of legal retirement (approximately 65)

### **1.3 Culture and age**

In some cultures for example Serbian, there are four ways to express age; By counting years with or without including current year e.g. he is twenty years old or he is in the twenty first year of his life. In Eastern Asia – age recording is different from that found in western culture. Traditional Chinese culture uses a different ageing method called X susu (DD) with respect to common ageing which is called Zhousun DD. In this method people are born at the age of one and not zero because conception is considered to be the start of lifespan (Guilemaid, 1993).

There are variations in many countries as to what age a person legally becomes an adult. Most legal systems define a specific age for when an individual is allowed to be obliged to do something. These ages include:- Voting age, drinking age, age of consent, age of majority, age of criminal responsibility, marriageable age, age of candidacy and mandatory retirement age. Admission to movies for instance, depends on age according to motion picture rating system (Snell 2007).

### **1.4 The Paradox of Age and Lifespan**

One of the successes of economic and social development in Europe over the past fifty years has been the extension of the individual life span. However, the rise in the numbers of older people and the fall in birth rates means that the proportion of older people outside the work force is growing, to be supported in the future by a smaller base of the working adults (Karppinen J, 2006). Britain's population profile is becoming ever more weighted towards the over fifties. In the next few years it is' likely that many people over the present retiring age will have to work. As the number of people in the economy continue to fall, there will be fewer workers to pay for the up keep of the economy.(To

keep the economy going, as well as provide for themselves). As the proportion of the young increases, services of health, education and social welfare will also increase (Cole G, 2002).

European policy makers, employers and trade unions are increasingly having to come to terms with a new paradox concerning age and employment. On the one hand there is an increase in the average age of the economically active population in the EU (Graham, 1998). Over the next ten years the structure of population of the working age will change significantly. The numbers of the people aged (15-19) will decline by 9 million (-17%) while the number of aged 50-59 will grow by 5.5 million (+) and the (60- 64) age group will grow by 1 million (European commission 1996). However on the other hand as a result of the operation of age discrimination in the labour market, people over 40 are regarded as nearing the end of their working lives (Foundation - focus 2006). This same scenario is seen in other developed countries such as the USA, Canada, and Germany etc.

However, in Africa and other developing countries the scenario is different. It is exactly the opposite of the above. Developing countries have high birth rates and that majority of the population is made up of young people aged between 12-19 (Karuga, 2004). This makes the situation to have majority of the young population who have the ability and willingness to work but job opportunities available can't accommodate these high numbers of unemployed. This situation makes developing countries to have a large number of youths, hence lack of enough job opportunities. Also due to diseases like HIV/Aids the lifespan has reduced drastically to 45 years. This increases the dependency ratio due to the high number of youths and reduced lifespan. The HIV/Aids is claiming high number of deaths among the young who possess high level skills and capabilities. The government is forced to increase health services, education and social welfare. This is in sharp contrast with Europe and other developed countries like USA, Canada and Australia (Karuga, 2004)

## **1.5 The Age Mix of the Workforce**

Graham H and Bernnet R,(1998) refer to the above situation in developed countries as the Demographic time bomb and say that this refers to the fact that the average age of the work force is increasing, there by creating a shortage of younger workers. Younger people are preferred by employees for a number of reasons. Younger workers have completed their education more recently and are thus more up to date than their older colleagues. On the whole, younger workers tend to be more flexible in their attitudes and less resistant to change than older workers, who might have vested interests in maintaining the status quo. The family commitment of older employees are typically more extensive than for young people, so that older workers usually expect higher levels of remuneration.

Since young recruits have recent experience in the learning process, they can usually be trained faster than older workers, who may have forgotten the basic techniques of 'how to learn. Snell, S. and Bohlander, (2007) say that imbalance in the age distribution of the labour force has significant implications for employers. Companies such as Pacific Gas and Electric, and Dow chemical, are finding that large proportions of their workforce are nearing retirement and will have to be replaced. Managers are concerned that the expertise of these employees is likely to be drained too rapidly from the company. As a stop gap measure, employers are making positive efforts to attract older workers, especially those who have taken early retirement (Bohlander, 2007)

The new and increasingly urgent paradox has to be addressed at both micro and macro levels (by policy makers and within organizations). Several European governments, including Austria, Finland, France and Germany, are currently reversing the public support they previously gave to early exit from the labour force and are seeking ways of reducing the opportunities for and costs of early retirement (Delsen and Reday,1996). Some employers are also reassessing their attitudes towards older workers, with some even constructing a positive 'business case' for employing this group.

This business case is built upon five points. First, the return of investment on human capital, Second, the prevention on skill shortages. Third, maximizing recruitment

potential. Fourth, responding to demographic change and fifth promoting diversity in the work place. In short there is an emerging case of combating age barriers in job recruitment and training on the grounds of pragmatism, commercialism, good human resource practise and the interests of justice and fairness (Guillemard and Walker. 1994).

## **1.6 Age analysis**

This paper is a critical survey on the link between age of employees and organizational outcomes. The paper examines the influence of age on employee performance. It is followed by assessing the merits and demerits of employing both young and older employees in an organization. The lifespan in selected countries is also reviewed to asses circumstances under which organizations in a country could be forced to employ young or old people. The paper also reviews age discrimination in the workplace and how it impacts on employee commitment to the organization and hence their performance.

## **1.7 Age discrimination**

Milkovich and Bourdreau ,(1988) found that organization downsizing resulting in lay offs and early retirement of older workers has increased interests in age discrimination. In recent years, age discrimination complaints have grown at a faster rate than any other discrimination issues. The biggest issue of all, in the field of age discrimination is mandatory retirement. It is currently acceptable for an employer to require all employees to retire, whether they want to or not, at a predetermined age. (Torrington et al. 2005). The authors also found that while advertisements are generally less obviously discriminatory in respect to age, according to the Equal Opportunities Review (1998) employers still use coded language to indicate that they are looking for a specific age group, and found phrases such as “young”, “articulate youngsters”, “ second jobber” and young dynamic environment”.

Higginbottom and Roberts, (2002) reporting on a poll of 2000 adults found that they viewed age discrimination as the prime cause of discrimination at work. Philpot. (2003)

reports that in a survey of 6000 retired people, two fifths believe they had suffered discrimination in some way, age discrimination being the most frequent form. Given that by 2020 almost 40% of the working population will be over 45 and the current shortage of many skills, this presents a critical problem for organizations. On the basis of their research, Snape and Redman,(2003) argue that discrimination for being too young is at least as common as that of being too old. Both forms of discrimination adversely affected commitment to the organization and hence, it can be argued, performance. This paper proposes an empirical survey linking age, order of entry and strategic orientations to firms' performance. The factors also come into play. Graham, and Bennet, (1998) say that justifications sometimes given for age discrimination, are that older workers are slow, have low productivity and are poor learners. Specific problems encountered by older workers include; early loss of employment because of age, difficulties in finding employment, targeting of older people in company downsizing exercises, compulsory early retirement schemes and exclusion from government retraining programs. And, where such programs exist, the training materials used to reskill older workers being based unsuitably on those applied to train very young people.

The above led to the enhancement of Age Discrimination in Employment Act (ADEA) in 1967 in the USA, to protect persons between the ages of 40 to 70 against arbitrary discrimination in employment practices. Its purpose is to "Promote employment of older persons on their ability, rather than age. To prohibit arbitrary age discrimination in employment, to help employers and workers find ways of meeting problems arising from the impact of age on employment. A subsequent amendment, which took effect in 1987 removed the upper age limit (Milkovich and Bourdreau, 1988).

However as Dessler, (2008) notes, the law still finds a way to let employers get away with discrimination against older workers. An employer can claim that the employment practice is a Bona Fide Occupational Qualification (BFOQ) for performing the job. This is prescribed in the law. BFOQ is the requirement that an employee be of a certain religion, sex, or national where that is reasonably necessary to the organizations normal operations as specified by the Civil Rights Act of 1964. As such the Age discrimination

in Employment Act, permits disparate treatment in those circumstances when age is a BFOQ. For example, age is a BFOQ when federal requirements impose a compulsory age limit, such as when the federal Aviation Agency sets the ceiling of age 65 for pilots.

Age discrimination is in most cases in favour of the young over the old employees. For employees who do that forget to look at the other side of the coin. Old employees have their merits which should not be overlooked. Old employees have a wealth of experience on their job.

This experience has been acquired and perfected over the long period of time he has done the job. Old workers require less training compared to the young employees which cuts down on costs. Old employees can be used to train other employees particularly the new ones. Some organizations prefer the old workers than young workers. This is due to the above reasons. In addition they argue that old workers are more efficient and effective (Dessler, 2008)



## CHAPTER TWO: AGE AND EMPLOYMENT

This section proposes that socially generated age effect results from age norms that evolve in parts from actual age distributions within organizations. Age norms are defined here as widely shared judgment of the standards. The section also highlights on minimum age for employment.

### 2.1 Influence of Age on Employee Behaviour

Age seems to play an important role in a wide range of employee behaviours. One interpretation of the role is that, it depends more on peoples' beliefs about age than on the ages themselves (Barbara 1986). Despite the significance of this distinction for human resource planning, it has received little attention in the organizational literature. Barbara (1986) in his article (New wrinkles in the theory of age. proposes an explanation for socially generated age effects and presents an exploratory study that uses data from electric utility.

“Looking around the basement, some of the team's brand new members could sometimes wonder what would happen to them when they turned thirty. Being young they would make a light of the questions, and say as one did when a computer engineer gets old, he gets turned out to pasture or else made into dog food (Kiddler 1981.p123).”

### 2.2 Other Demographic Factors

Evaluating and comparing employees ages is an everyday pastime in organizations. Insignificant in its appearance, yet significant in its results. In Kiddler (1981) account of the Data General career prospects, and notes the absence of older engineers with discomfort. These reactions are generated not from the inherent characteristics of, but from people's responses to chronological age. To the extent that such responses mould employee behaviour, and play an important role in organizations. Indeed people's beliefs, judgments and notions about age appear involved in a wide range of employment issues,

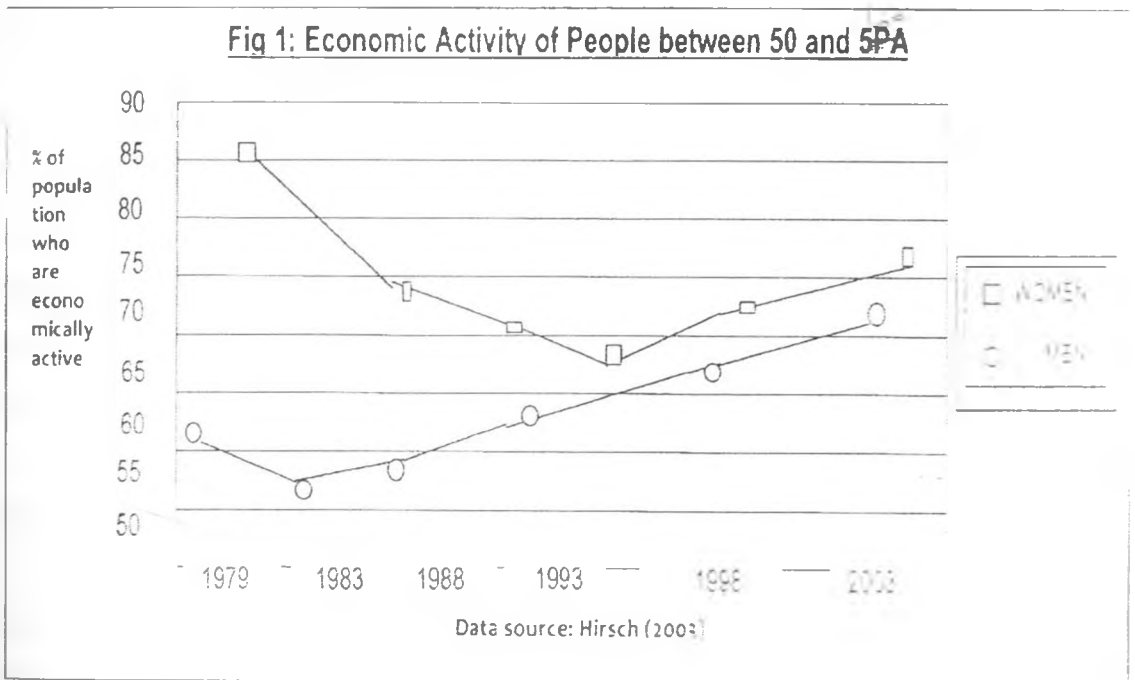
including hiring decisions, promotion opportunities and employee performance (Dalton and Thomson.1971).

Yet despite the significance of these employment issues, the organizational literature has given little attention to such age effects. Barbara (1986) in his article, "New workers in the theory of age, proposes that socially generated age effects results from age norms that evolve in part. from actual age discrimination within the organizations. Age norms are defined here as widely shared judgments of that standard.

### 2.3 Economic Activities of People between 50 and 60

The figure below outlines the economic activities of people between 50 and 60. It clearly compares the difference between men and women's' economic activity of ages 50 and 60

**Data Source: Graham H (1998), Human recourse management 9<sup>th</sup> edition, Prentice hill, London**



From the figure we see that: in 1979 women between 50 and 60 who were economically active were 85% compared to men who accounted for only 60%. In 1983 women

between 50 and 60 who were economically active accounted for 80% (a drop of 5%) compared to men who accounted for 53%. (A drop of 7%). In 1993 the percentage of economically active women was 68 and that of men was 60. In 1998 the percentage of economically active women dropped to 73% while that of men rose to 55%. In 1993 the percentage of economically active women was 68% and that of men was 60%. In 1998 the percentage of economically active men, rose to 70% while that of men rose to 65%. In 2003 the percentage for women rose to 77% and that of men rose to 72%.

In summary the percentage of economically active women was above that of men. This percentage declined from 1979 to 1993 and started rising steadily to 2003. The percentage of economically active women dropped between 1979 to 1983 and also started rising steadily to 2003.

#### **2.4 Minimum Age for Employment**

The general conference of the international labour organization, having been convened at Geneva by the governing body of the international labour office, was cited as the minimum age convention 1972. (<http://www.ageandemployment.org>) The main objective of the conference was to establish a general instrument which would generally replace the existing ones applicable to limited economic sectors, with a view to achieving the total abolition of child labour.

Child labour refers to the act of employing under age children in any meaningful job activity or confining these underage persons or children with the aim of forcefully engaging them to perform given tasks for an individual or an organisation for payment in return. Underage in this case refers to children below the age of eighteen years of age (<http://www.ageandemployment.org>)

According to <http://www.ageandemployment.org>, the recommendations and solutions were arrived at in form of articles as follows:

**Firstly.** Each member, for whom the convention is in force, undertakes to pursue a national policy designed to ensure the effective abolition of child labour and rise

progressively the minimum age for admission to employment or work to a level consistent with the fullest physical and mental development of young persons. No one under the recommended age shall be admitted to employment or work in any occupation. That the minimum age specified in pursue of paragraph one of this articles shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and in any case, shall not be less than 15 years. Not withstanding the provisions of the above paragraph, a member whose economy and educational facilities are in sufficiently developed may offer consultation with organization of employees and workers concerned. Where such exists, initially, specify minimum age of 14 years.

**Secondly,** The minimum age of admission to any type of employment or work which by its nature or circumstances in which it's carried out is likely to jeopardize the health, safety or morals of young persons shall not be less than eighteen years. The types of employment or work to which the above paragraph applies, shall be determined by natural laws or regulations or by the competent authority after consultation with organization of the employer and workers concerned. where such exists. For industry workers, recommendations were not less than 15years and for non industry employment a minimum of not less than 10 years was specified.

The conference made a number of Resolutions as narrated below:

All the necessary measures including the provision of appropriate penalties shall be taken by the competent authority to ensure the effective enforcement of the provision of the convention. Natural laws or regulations or the competent authority shall define persons responsible for compliance with the provisions giving effect to the convention. National laws or regulations or the competent authority shall prescribe the registers or other documents which shall be kept and made available by the employers. Such registers or documents shall contain the names and ages or dates of birth, dully certified wherever possible of persons of whom he employs or who work for him and are less than 18 years of age.

The convention doesn't apply to work done by children and young persons in school for general vocational or technical education or in other training institutions or to work done by persons of least 14 years of age in undertakings, where such work is carried out in accordance with the conditions prescribed by the competent authority, after consultations with organizations of employers and workers concerned. Where such exist, and is an integral part:- of a course of education or training, a program of guidance or orientation designed to facilitate the choice of an occupation or a line of training.

National laws or regulations may permit the employment of work of persons aged 13 – 15 years of age on light work which is, not likely to be harmful to their health or development. Not such as to prejudice their attendance at school, their participation in vocational orientation or training programs approved by the competent authority or their capacity to benefit from the instruction received. National laws or regulations may also permit the employment or work of persons who are at least 15 years of age but have not yet completed their compulsory schooling or work which meets the requirements set forth in these articles.

### **2.5.1 Age and Retirement**

Retirement is the point where a person stops employment completely. A person may also semi-retire and keep some sort of retirement job, out of choice rather than necessity. This usually happens upon reaching a determined age, when physical conditions don't allow the person to work anymore, (By illness or accident), or even the personal choice (usually in the presence of adequate pension or personal savings). The retirement with a pension is considered a right of the worker in many societies, and hard ideological, social, cultural and political battles have been fought over whether this is a right or not. In many western countries this right is mentioned in national constitutions (Roberts, 2002).

In most countries, the idea of a fixed retirement age is of recent origin, being introduced during the 19th and 20th centuries. Previously, the absence of pension arrangements

meant that most workers continued to work until death, or relied on personal savings or the supports of family or friends. Now days most developed countries have systems to provide pensions on retirement in old age, which may be sponsored by employees or the state. In many poorer countries, support for the old is still mainly provided through the family (Snell, 2002). The retirement age varies from country to country but it is generally between 55-70. In some countries this age is different for males and females. Sometimes certain jobs, the most dangerous or fatiguing ones in particular, have an earlier retirement age (Graham, 1998).

Many politicians, doctors, scientists, lawyers, television anchors and professors still work well into their 70s. However some actors, models, athletes and musicians only work until their 30s. Germany was the first country to introduce retirement in the 1880s when the life expectancy of workers averaged around 40 years. In Kenya the retirement age for the civil servants was raised from 55 years to 60 years in April 2009

### **2.5.2 The Notion of Retirement Age**

“Retirement” is a relative recent idea. Until the late 19<sup>th</sup> century, most people worked until they could no longer do so and were then supported by relatives for the brief period before they died. Since then, life expectancy has increased, and in all developed countries, the state has accepted some responsibility for supporting people after they finish paid work, while pension schemes (Employers or personal) have developed to provide better financial support during this phase of life (Porter et al. 1974). The reality of retirement changed in the last quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, and with improving health, most people can now look forward to around two decades of reasonably healthy and active life after leaving paid work. However, public attitudes have not always kept pace with the reality. It is still not uncommon for “the retired” or “pensioners” to be stereotyped frail and dependant burden on society rather than resources (Friedman, 1998).

This section will distinguish between “retirement” as a phase of life, for most of which individuals are independent and active, able and willing to contribute to society and

other communities and “ formal retirement”. The point at which an individual permanently leaves the main employment which they have pursued during their earlier life. The precise point at which this happens varies greatly from country to country and profession to profession. Few retire before their mid 50s and currently around 61 in the UK and 60 for Kenyans Civil Servants. Views on what the natural age for retirement should be can be influenced by larger labour market trends. Over the 1980’s the proportion of men between 50 - 65 in workforce fell from 84% to 65% as organizations downsized and restricted, and early retirement became more common. However, since 1993 this pattern has been reversed, and the portion has risen again to over 70% faster than the rise in the male employment rates overall (Walker, 1996)

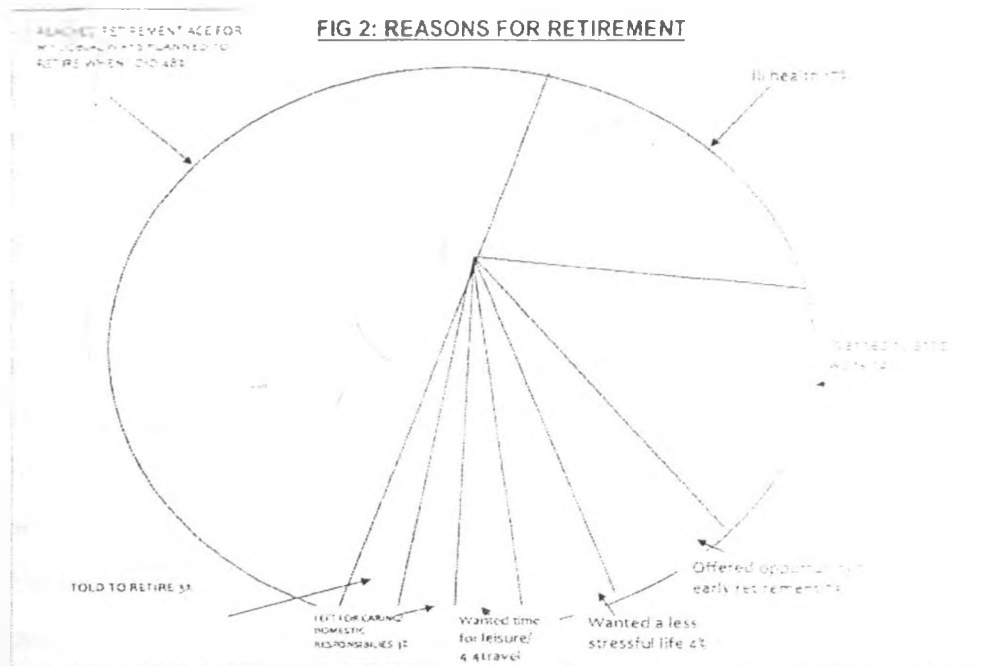
### **2.5.3 Socio-Economic Security in Retirement**

Retired workers support themselves either through pensions or savings. In most cases the money is provided by the government, but sometimes granted only by private subscriptions to mutual funds. In this latter case, subscriptions might be compulsory or voluntary. In some countries an additional “Bonus” is granted *una tantum* (once only) in proportion to the years of work and the average wages; this is usually provided by the employer. The financial weight of provision of pensions on a government’s budget is often heavy and is the reason for political debates about the retirement age. The state might be interested in a later retirement age for economic reasons (Delsen. 1996).

The cost of health care in retirement is large, because people tend to be ill more frequently in later life. Increasing numbers of older people, combined with an increase in the cost of the healthcare, has led to the funding of post retirement health care becoming a political issue. There is then pressure to reform healthcare systems to contain costs, or find new sources of funding. On a personal level, the rising cost of living during retirement is a serious concern to many older adults (EEC Bulletin, 2009)

## 2.5.4 Reasons for Retirement

When and how retirement happens matters to individuals, employers, and government. Because we are living longer and staying healthier, retirement forms a growing part of our lives. As more people retire and fewer young people enter the workforce, employers are increasingly concerned about skills shortages. Whole longer retirement is putting pressure on pension schemes and the social Security System. This section looks at the decision to retire. Why do people retire when they do, and what factors might change that decision in future? The paper draws on current research, and particularly on a national survey of job change and retirement undertaken by Centre of Research in Older Workforce (Crow, 2003).



**Data Source: EEC Bulletin (2009), London.**

From the figure above, Mandatory age of retirement takes the biggest share of the reasons for retirement 48%. Different countries have a fixed age of mandatory retirement. In Kenya it was changed from 55 to 60 years in the civil service. These ages vary from 50-70 years and from country to country. Retirement on health grounds takes the second lead for reasons for retirement 17%. Improved medical care in many countries especially in developed countries has drastically reduced retirement due to ill health. Voluntary retirement of workers due to personal reasons takes 14%. Employees who retire after



being offered opportunity to early retirement takes 7%. Employees who retire due to stress and want a less stressful life comprises of 4% entirely to get time for leisure. 3% retire to carry out domestic responsibilities and other 3% retire when told to retire.

Most people leave work at what they personally regard as the 'normal' age, although individuals vary in what they think this is. Surprisingly/although the quality of life after retirement depends significantly on financial security. Most people make the decision to retire before they make any assessment of their financial situation. However, those who have pensions and savings are more likely to have a secure retirement without adequate financial assessment live to regret it (Mulvey, 1996). According to Largertof, (2006) people retire because of Tradition; customs dictates that retirement age is the natural time to retire and Poor working conditions such as accidents, ill-health, low satisfaction and slowdown in the economy are other reasons why people retire.

### **2.5.5 Factors influencing Retirement**

Research on work and ageing shows that the following factors have an important influence on when people retire: **Feeling valued at work:** Workers who feel valued by their employers and colleagues and who believe they are making a positive contribution in their jobs, are more likely to stay at work. These people live longer, and have more active lives after formal retirement.

**Social environment.** The social networks which go with work are important to most people. They are more likely to stay in work if they go on well with their colleagues, and there are opportunities for social interaction. **Personal "mission":** For many people, work is focused on a cause of a long term sense of purpose, like contributions to the community, caring for others, or professional reputation. This can be a reason for remaining in work; or for moving to a voluntary role, where the "Mission" can be continued. **Control:** Many older people have developed ways of working which suit their personal styles and strengths and value the opportunity to have a say in how the work is organized and carried out (Robins ,2000).

**Flexibility:** Where employers offer opportunities for flexible work (part time, phased reduction in hours or responsibility, or working seasonably) people stay in work longer, most people would consider working beyond formal retirement and would do so on a flexible basis (Adams, 2002) **Health:** About one in ten people retire before the state pension age through ill health and disability. Those who do are more likely to continue in poor health and to have lower income after retirement. Early assessment to risk and appropriate action can reduce the likelihood of people becoming sick and disabled in their 50s (Adams, 2007). **Caring responsibilities:** During their 50s and 60s many people find themselves with growing responsibilities for elderly parents and sometimes for grandchildren or dependant partners. This is a common reason for people giving up paid or moving to flexible or less stressful roles (Robbins, 2000). **Family circumstances:** - Where both partners are working couples they tend to synchronize their retirement, leading often to “early” retirement for one or the other. Many of these factors are associated with work satisfaction for people of all ages (Robin 2000).

Most people see retirement as a natural process. They do not “decide” to retire for specific reasons (See figure 2) they do it because they have reached what they perceive to be “retirement age”, though they may not agree about what that age it should be”. Although there is no “state retirement age”, when workers reach state pension age, they loose most statutory employment protections, making it far easier for employers to dismiss them, and at present, UK employers can, and usually do, set a compulsory retirement age as a condition of service (Prescher, 2002). Will a ban on compulsory retirement age change the age at which people actually retire? It has been argued that the effect will be marginal, but positive, increase in the employment levels of older workers. While some older workers will want to stay in work past their present contractual retirement age, a majority of workers feel that people should be allowed to retire at 60 although this does not mean that individuals will necessarily want to take up that option (Tersin J, 2004)

It is likely that retirement pattern will continue to change for a variety of reasons. The current UK government plans are to harmonize male and female state pension ages at 65

by 2010 (Adams, 2002) and it has proposed offering financial incentives to those who opt to stay in work after state pension age. It also intends to change the tax rules to allow people to continue in work with the same employers while drawing their pensions. Since such schemes have yet to be implemented, their impact cannot be predicted, but is likely to lead rise in real retirement age (Adams 2002).

### **2.5.6 Experience of work**

Peoples' experience of work influences their attitudes towards retirement. Those who like their employer and colleagues tend to want to stay in work longer." Research by the American Association of Retired Persons found that workers whose jobs provide status and give them a sense of self-worth are most likely to want to stay in work longer, and where people have some sense of "Mission" in life which can be carried on after normal retirement. For some people, retirement happens at the peak of a career, but many careers level out before then, or peter out rather than reach a decision end. For those whose careers have "leveled off", there are physiological adjustments which need to be made, including the decision on when and how to retire. There is, however another group, who see work as a job rather than a career, which is less sense of continuity or mission, and their expectations are probably different (Tersin J, 2000).

### **2.5.7 Gender and family circumstances**

Men and women have different attitudes towards retirement, partly reflecting their different experiences in and out of paid work. The growth in two-income families make partners' career decisions increasingly interdependent, and marital and family circumstances are important in shaping an individual's decision on when to retire. Women's retirement decisions are more influenced by their partners than are men's, but there is evidence that the most successful retirement comes about when both partners choose independently when they want to retire (Adams, 2004).

Because people are living longer, many are spending their retirements caring for older relatives. Further, as more parents go to work, grandparents are planning a larger role in caring for grandchildren than previous generations. Older workers in general, and for some reasons, retirement happens not when they wish to leave work, but when one or more of these responsibilities becomes too intense (Bailey, 1995).

### **2.5.8 Health**

Poor health and disability are the commonest reasons for early withdrawals from the labour market, although it is not always recognized at the time of leaving as permanent. Although most expect to return to work, the chances of someone who leaves work through ill health or disability after the age of 50 re-entering the labour market are slim, and decline very rapidly as the length of unemployment increases. However, this is not inevitable where employers badly need the skills of individuals. They can often find ways of redesigning jobs, or making work more flexible to allow people with health and disability problems to stay in work.

Research in Finland suggests that it is possible for employers to intervene when people are in their 40s to reduce the chances of early withdrawal and ill health grounds in the 50s. (Robins 2000).

Health also has an important influence on quality of life in retirement, particularly for those who have left work for sickness or disability reasons and those who leave the labour market for these reasons are more likely to face financial hardships.

### **2.5.9 Finance**

In recent years there has been much public concern about the affordability of retirement. Many pension funds are contracting in response to reduced returns on investments, and to the actuarial costs of increasing life expectancy. Many employers have closed funds to new employees, and those currently in work are wondering whether they can afford to retire when they want. There are some signs in the USA, that the recent pension crisis is

leading to some older workers to delay retirement. However, the average age for retirement for men is still below state pension age 62.6 for men and 60.4 for women (Robins 2000).

Although financial security is important to quality of life in retirement, and is often a factor in the decision to retire, most people do not make a systematic assessment of their financial situation before they make the decision, and for the most people, other factors play a larger part. The National Association of Pension Funds found that, although half of all workers would like to save more, two thirds are still confident of having enough income for a comfortable retirement (Adams, 2007).

## CHAPTER THREE: EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

### 3.1 Employee outcomes

Employee outcomes include areas such as job satisfaction. Organisational commitment. Work performance, Person career fit. Career Orientation and Person environment fit.

**3.2 Job satisfaction** Describes how content an individual is with his or her job. The happier people are with their jobs, the more satisfied they are said to be. Job satisfaction is not the same as motivation, although it is clearly linked. Job design aims to enhance job satisfaction and performance. Methods include job rotation, Job enlargement and job enrichment. Other influences on satisfaction include management style and culture, employee involvement, employee Empowerment and autonomous workgroups. Job satisfaction is a very important attribute which is frequently measured by organisations. The most common measurement of job satisfaction is the use of rating scales where employees report their reaction to their jobs. Questions relate to the rate of pay, work responsibilities, variety of tasks, promotional opportunities, the work itself and co-workers. Some questions ask Yes or No, while others ask to rate satisfaction on a 1-5 scale (Bohlander, 2007).

Job satisfaction has been defined as a pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of ones job, an effective reaction to ones job, and an attitude to ones job. Delsa (2000), has argued that job satisfaction is an attitude but points out that researchers should clearly distinguish the objects of cognitive evaluation which are affect (emotion), beliefs and behaviours. This definition suggests that we form attitudes towards our jobs by taking into account our feelings beliefs and our behaviours. The most common method of measuring job satisfaction is the Likert scale. Others include yes/no questions, True and false questions, point systems, checklists and forced choice answers. The job description index (JDI) created by Smith, Kendel and Hullin (1969), is a specific questionnaire of job satisfaction in five facets; pay, promotion opportunities, co-workers, supervision and the work itself. The scale is itself simple. Participants either answer Yes or No or can't decide indicated by it in response to whether given statements accurately

describes one's job. Employee attributes are attitudes or viewpoints that employees have about many aspects of their jobs, their careers and their organisation. However, from the perspective of research and practice the most focal employee is job satisfaction.

**3.3 Organisation commitment** Involves the relative strength of an individual's satisfaction with and involvement in a particular organisation. Here the employee is seen to be emotionally attached, identifies with the organisation and is therefore committed to pursue the organisation goals. Porter et al (1974) Conceptualizes organisational commitment as unidimensional construct and proposes the organisational commitment questionnaire to measure it. Many of the applications of the organisational commitment in marketing use this conceptualisation. A further dimension resulting in conceptualisation of organisation commitment, is continuance commitment but also normative. Normative commitment refers to employee's feelings of obligations to stay with the organisation. Such feelings of obligations result from a process of internalization of normative pressure, either or following affiliation to the organisation (Snell, 2007).

The concept of employee commitment to the organisation has received increased attention in the research literature recently as both managers and organisation analysts seek ways to increase employee retention and performance. Employee commitment is important for several reasons. To begin with, recent findings indicate that commitment is a better predictor of turnover, than is Job satisfaction (http www 2005). Moreover findings by Mowdy, Porter and Dubie (1974), suggests that highly committed employees may perform better than less committed ones. Finally it has been suggested by some that commitment may represent one useful indicator of the effectiveness of an organisation theory and practice of management.

Organisation commitment is characterised by three factors; A strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation goals and values, willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the Organisation and a strong desire to maintain membership in the Organisation (Porter et al 1974). Although a variety of studies have been reported recently, examining certain aspects of commitment, several problems remain; Firstly, few

studies have taken a systematic or comprehensive approach to the topic. As a result of this, we have little information to guide us in Model building attempts. Secondly, cross validation studies in which hypothesis models are tested and then replicated in diverse settings are rare. Thus the external validity of many of the existing findings must remain in doubt. Thirdly, the majority of the existing studies treat commitment as a dependant variable. Consequently, little is known about the behavioural outcomes of commitment. ([http://www/jister, org](http://www/jister.org))

### **3.5 Work performance**

Performance = Potential – Interference

Potential is the ability to do something/achieve/improve on something and change in any scenario. It is our potential that forms the basis of this belief, the belief that we do indeed, all of us, have within us, the potential to achieve anything. Interference can be summed up as a little self doubt, an unfounded assumption, a fear of either failure or success. We all possess some of these interferences. To what extent they rule over our lives is of course dependant upon the individual. (<http://www/jister> 2009)

In essence our interferences are limiting beliefs, beliefs that we allow to influence our thoughts, actions and consciousness. Awareness of this limiting beliefs will ensure that we have the right amount of motivation and desire to overcome them, especially in terms of performance improvement (<http://www/Jister> 2009) Once you know what has caused your interference the next stage is to find enjoyment, finding out what you enjoy about your work will have an immediate impact on your working life. Work in our amble opinion needs to be more than just results.

### **3.6 Career orientation**

This is a pattern of job related preferences that remain fairly stable over a persons work life. Choosing a career can be a very difficult decision, with young people. Career choices, must be considered as early as high school and before entering university or college for many. At such an early age this is a stressful decision for young adults and one in which parents are often intricately involved. Adult career transition is becoming



increasingly common with many adults involved in different careers during their work life. Adults can find this transition is becoming increasingly common with many adults involved in different careers during their work life. Adults can find this transition especially challenging, factoring financial and family responsibilities, in addition to the desire to find fulfilment in the choice of career.([http://www/Jister 2000](http://www.Jister2000))

In order to have a meaningful engaging career, we have to bring our interests, talents and passions together in a productive, engaging vision.. Helping youth and adults understand their character is essential to the process of selecting the right career. Using character assessment tool Optimax and provide career orientation that considers a person's character profile. In addition Optimax is able to predict at what stage in a person's life certain career choices may be better than others (Bohlander, 2007).

Choosing a career can be a very difficult situation. With young people, career choices must be considered as early as high school and before entering university or colleges for many. At such an early age this is stressful decision for young people and one in which parents are intricately involved (<http://www/Jister2000>) **Adult career transition** is becoming increasingly common with many adults involved in different careers during their work life. Adults can find these transitions especially challenging factoring financial and family responsibilities in addition to the desire to find fulfilment in the choice of career.

### **3.7 Person Environment Fit**

Person environment Fit (p-E), or the match between individuals and their environment, has the focus of much research in the past thirty years. Few researchers have addressed the possible role of P-E fit in personnel selection. Recruiters aim to select those applicants who occupy the capacities that are necessary for the job and who fit in the organisation (Foundation Focus 1990). The later topic has received far less attention in the selection literature than the first one.

Person-environment fit (P-E) fit has drawn heavily on interactionistic models of human behaviour and Lewin's (1935) notion that behaviour (B) is the function of a person (P) and the environment (E) expressed as  $B = f(P, E)$ . Integrationist models assume that the interaction of a person and the environment influences a person's behaviour. ([http://www/Jister](http://www.Jister) 2000).

## CHAPTER FOUR: AGE AND EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

### 4.1 Performance appraisal, satisfaction and employee outcomes

Hoffman (1993) made a study on performance appraisal satisfaction and employee outcomes. The purpose of the study was to explore the alternative relationship between performance appraisal, satisfaction and employee outcomes in the form of self reported work performance, effective organization commitment and turnover intention.

Across sectional survey of 593 employees from 64 Norwegian savings bank, showed that performance appraisal satisfaction was directly related to effective commitment turnover intention. The relationship between performance appraisal, satisfaction and work performance, however was both mediated and moderated by employee's intrinsic work motivation. The form of the moderation revealed a negative relationship for employees with low intrinsic motivation and a positive relationship for those with high intrinsic motivation.

**4.2 Leader-Member exchange** How it relates between a mastery orientation and leader related in role job performance and employee outcomes. Findings of a study by Hoffman (1993) suggests that employees with stronger mastery orientations are more effective on the job because they tend to establish higher-quality exchanges with their supervisors. Important and recurring questions in organizational science are why employees perform well in their jobs and why they are satisfied with their jobs. Achievement goal theory and research suggests that employee job performance and job satisfaction depends on their goal orientations (Hoffman, 1993). Goal orientations are believed to create different perceptual-cognitive framework for how individuals approach, interpret and respond to achievement situations (Baron, 2000).

Most attention in the achievement goal, tradition has been given to two goal orientations. A mastery orientation focuses on developing competence, gaining skill and doing one's best, where as a performance orientation focuses on establishing one's superiority over

others. Employees differing in goal orientations are likely to differ in the way they develop and maintain relations with other actors in their work contest. According to Leader-member exchange theory, each employee establishes a unique social exchange relationship with his or her supervisor and the quality of this leader-member exchange is generally found to be positively related to job performance and job attitudes hence employee outcome.

#### **4.3 Effect of a person's career fit on his / her out comes**

A study was carried out by National GSS Survey to examine the effects of person-career fit on employee outcomes. It was based on a sample of 1128 research and development professionals and 222 project managers in South Korean organizations. This result revealed that a managerial career fit has a curvilinear relationship with job satisfaction. For example job satisfaction increased as career orientation increased towards career development opportunities and then decreased when career development opportunities exceeded career orientation (WABA. 2005)

In addition as expected, job satisfaction and career organizational commitment are higher when career orientation and career development opportunities are both high rather than low. For work performance contributions to organizations increases as managerial career orientation increases toward managerial career opportunities, then decreases when managerial career opportunities exceeded managerial career orientation (WABA. 2005)

#### **4.4 Impact of overtime work on age and employment outcomes**

Overtime has been a subject of concern in many organizations. Among the many issues that have emerged, include whether overtime has any impact on age and employee outcomes. This has initiated a number of studies to be carried out on the same issue. Allen Harris (2008) in his article age, overtime and employee health, safety and productivity outcomes carried out a survey on employee outcomes as influenced by age. The objectives of the survey were to expand the study of the impact of overtime on

employees' health, safety and productivity outcomes. Previously there were reported sets with tests comparing older versus younger workers on these relationships. One set of models compared overtime impact for three age groups <45, 45-49 and 50+ at the aggregate level. Two others compared overtime impact for three age groups by compensation type, hourly versus salaried.

Advancing age was limited to greater rates of adverse consequences as function of overtime, but these increases were largely confined to hourly employees working extended overtime. (Averaging 60+ hours per week) and occurred only four of the nine study outcomes. With respect to moderate overtime (48 - 59 hours) and to variables reflecting the possible impact of past overtime work (e.g. Prio disability episode) Increases in age among hourly employees did not lead to stronger associations between over timework and adverse outcomes on most tests and in fact many were linked to decrements in these associations. Salaried employees recorded no greater linkages between over timework and adverse outcomes with advancing age across all tests involving overtime effects or possibly a function of overtime effects.

#### **4.5 General effects of age on employee outcomes**

Torrington et al, (2005) found that older workers are seen to be more loyal and conscientious to have better interpersonal skills, and to be more efficient in the job. Their experience in the job counteracts any age related factors lowering productivity; older workers are generally more satisfied with their jobs and have fewer accidents and a better absence record. Older workers also have lower turnover rates which saves the organization finances.

Age and Management Practices is most usefully defined with respect to specific policy in the following categories; job recruitment and exit, training development and promotion, Flexible working practices, Ergonomics and jobs design (Casey, Metcalf and Lakey. 1993) In general terms we might say that good practice in the employment of older workers consists of combating age barriers, whether directly or indirectly, and providing

an environment in which each individual is able to achieve his or her potential without being disadvantaged by their age (walker 1997)

#### **4.6 Employment Policy and Age**

According to Spidla (2006), several states are making early retirement less attractive, promoting flexible pathways to retirement and rewarding those who extend their careers, some focus on making it more difficult for people to remain on unemployed benefits until retirement without actively looking for work. Government should not take any policy action which counteracts existing needs for companies to retrain staff. The need for general employment policies which put a greater emphasis on preventing unemployment and encouraging older workers to continue in employment.

Consideration should be given to provision of short term subsidies for employers taking on older workers for example in the form of reduction of taxes or social contributions, removal of age barriers in government job creation and training schemes, development of active labour market policies to aid the integration of disadvantaged groups such as older workers, through, for example, the improvement of labour market services. The development of preventive measures for those in and outside employment.

#### **4.7 Pension and social security policies**

Ban age limits in recruitment, encourage companies to establish comprehensive action programs in age and employment by publishing good practice guides, spreading information about successful initiatives, disseminating age awareness literature and course material. Action to set standards in training (age awareness quality standards) and particularly to encourage and assist SMEs in training. Funding for NGOs to develop pilot projects (Ornstein et al 1982 bulletin)

## CHAPTER FIVE: ORGANIZATIONAL OUTCOMES

### 5.0 Basic concepts and definition

Organizational outcomes such as absenteeism and morale can be distinguished from individual and family outcomes such as mental health or marital satisfaction (Lobel, 1996). Although work place policies and programs may have broad impacts outside work, organizational outcomes play a vital role as far as productivity is concerned.

### 5.1 Approaches to measuring organizational outcomes

As conceptualized by Lobel and Fought (1996) there are four basic approaches to measuring organizational outcomes; **The human cost approach** adopted by authors such as Iconved & Mangel (2000) and Kossel & Grace (1990), focuses on the savings associated with reduced labour costs, for example as indicated by absenteeism and turn over productivity that results from employers support. **The human investments approach** outlined by Cohen (1999), attempts to document the long term financial benefits that are related to employer support for example as indicated by recruitments, retention, morale and productivity (Waba, 2005).

**The stakeholder approach:** Refers to measures described by authors including Litchfield (1999) and Mirvis (1999) considers different types of benefits that are gained by members of the stake holders groups including not only employees and employers but also other firm stakeholders such as customers for example as indicated by attitudes, reputation, commitment to company or project satisfaction. **The strategy approach:** It assesses the extent to which work/life initiatives facilitate the company's ability to make progress on key business strategies for example as indicated by congruence of world life objectives and globalization growth (Strumph, 1981)

### 5.2 Organizational leadership capacity

This is an organizational outcome which can be determined by how the organization has developed effective organizational communication competence.

focusing on staff development to increase department reliance's to change, straining by, or exceeding their adaptive capacities and their well being (Davel, 2000). The element of perception indicates that human stress responses, reflect differently in personality as well as differences in physical strength or general health. Stress refers to physical, mental or emotional factors that cause body or mental tension. The body reacts to a change that requires physical, mental and emotional adjustments (<http://www.com/do/glossary/stress>).

Risk factors for stress related illness are a mix of personal, interpersonal and social variables. These factors include lack or loss of control over ones physical environment and lack or loss of social support networks. People who are dependant on others e.g. children or elderly or who are socially disadvantaged because of race, gender, educational level or similar factors are at greater risks of developing stress related illness. Other risk factors include feeling of helplessness, extreme fear or anger and cynism or distrust of others.

### **5.3 Work Stress**

In medical terms, stress is defined as the physical or psychological stimulus that can produce mental tension or psychological reactions that may lead to discomfort, restlessness or even illness. According to Richard s. Lazarus (2000) stress is a feeling experienced when a person thinks that demands exceed the personal and social resources the individual is able to mobilize

Stress can be caused by the following: Financial problems, strained relationship at the work place, strains on work, major life challenges, being too busy at work, negative self talk, unrealistic expectations, and inability to accept uncertainty, perfection and lack of assertiveness. Stress in humans results from interactions between people and other environment that are perceived to be unfriendly (Lazarus 2000).

**5.4 Morale** The state of the spirit of a person or group exhibited by confidence,



cheerfulness, discipline and willingness to perform tasks. The dictionary definition of morale states: the degree of mental or moral confidence of a person or a group. Spirit of optimism that makes members of a group succeed (Dictionary for Business Mcmillan1999).

Employee morale is achieved by various management styles like; employee recognition, employee motivation rewards, fair compensation among the employees, creating a balance between work and family.

### **5.5 Absenteeism in the workplace**

Failing to show up for work when you are scheduled to be there. The effects of absenteeism are directly proportional to decreased productivity. The company is at a loss trying to recover up the indirect costs involved to hire temporary staff and pay employees for over time. **According to Alan (2000)**, causes of absenteeism include the following:

**Personal attitude:** Employees with strong workplace ethics will respect their work and appreciate the contribution they make to their companies. Such employees will be dedicated and avoid taking on scheduled offs. Employees with very low or no work ethics are undisciplined and have a lot of integrity and behavioral issues. Since they feel no obligation towards the company. Absenteeism comes easily to them.

The younger employees are often restless. They want to spent time with their friends and have fun rather than being tied down with work responsibility. This lack of ownership often leads them to take unauthorized time off. With age, people gain experience and majority change which makes them focused and responsible. Their approach is rather professional and they prefer to stick to their chairs to get work done. If ever found absent then it could be due to sickness or other eventualities.

Employees who have been with the company for a long time are well adjusted with working culture and the job and therefore find no reason to be absent without permission. On the other hand, new hires are more prone to taking breaks to unwind themselves (Alan, 2009). Women generally do a balancing act by shifting their time between home and

work. Family being foremost priority. They don't think twice before taking a step towards absenteeism.

Lazarus (2000), pointed out the following as the workplace factors that cause absenteeism.

The pressure at work sometimes takes a toll on employees. This results in increased levels of stress. The employees then resort to excuses that help them stay away from work.

Doing same job over and over a period of time promotes monotony. The employee finds the job functions boring. They rather choose time off to do something interesting than come to work. If employees do not find their job challenging, dissatisfaction creeps in that leads to more absenteeism in the work place.

**Good practice in age management** is most usefully defined with respect to specific policies in the following categories: job recruitment and exit, training development and promotion, flexible working practice, ergonomics and job design (Casey Metcalf and Lacey, 1993).

In general terms we might say that good practice in the employment of older workers consist of combating age barriers, whether directly or indirectly and providing an environment in which each individual is able to achieve his or her potential without being disadvantaged by their age (Walker 1996).

## **5.7 key recommendations on age barriers**

These are recommendations according to European foundation for improvement of living and working conditions, (1997):

### **Employers**

Combating age barriers and developing good practice in age management has to be organization led. These are the key action points for employers. Development of an age-awareness policy aimed at all levels of the organization to be introduced in the form of an experiment that measures the impact on job recruitment, training and other aspects of

employment. Introducing of age- awareness for HR personnel managers and other key personnel involvement of older workers themselves in discussions about age barriers and how to overcome them. Supporting individuals or groups of staff who want to develop initiatives to combat age barriers.

Examination of the impact of seniority rules (especially those governing pay) and encouragement of more horizontal rather than vertical career movements' examination of organization's recruitment practices to see if age is used inappropriately. Removal of age barriers in job advertisements. Use of non age special learning requirements of older workers (Walker 1996)

### **Ageing Workers**

If the primary duty of employers is to create the condition in which individuals can manage their own careers and ageing, then the later has a parallel duty to take advantage of that opportunity. Some specific recommendations to ageing workers are: assessing their own training and career development needs, communicating training needs to managers .taking advantage of all training opportunities, acting as mentors to young people and adjusting to late career horizontal rather than vertical shifts and the change in seniority-related wage increment that will entail career development (Lakey 1993)

**Trade Unions.** At the work place, it is undoubtedly the case that trade unions continue to face a dilemma, whether to defend the interests of the current or promote their future interests. The following key recommendations may help to overcome this dilemma: representing the interests of all workers regardless of age, including collective agreements. recruitment and training measures which rectify the disadvantages experienced by older workers, undergoing age awareness training, assisting older members to self advocate about their access to training and career development advice and recognizing the need for traditional career development patterns to alter changes. (walker 1996)

National action is as employers recommended on several fronts to ensure that governments leads by example as contractors, legislators and rules makers. Raising the awareness of employers to the hidden costs of age discrimination and the loss of older workers. Public education to counteract the negative images of older workers and the false stereotypes and to disseminate good practices.

## CHAPTER SIX : AGE AND ORGANISATION OUTCOMES

### 6.1 Commitment and Organization Outcomes

A study was carried out by Mowdy et al, (1982) and Reichers (1986) to examine how career stages moderates the relationship between commitment and organization outcomes. In general the results have demonstrated that the effects of organizational commitment on outcomes across career stages. This is especially true for the relationship between organization commitment and turnover (actual and intended) when age is a career indicator.

One can conclude, based on results, that enhancing commitment in the early career stages is an important way of decreasing turn over. The results have also demonstrated that in the late career stage, when tenure is the career indicator, the relationship between organization commitment with performance and absenteeism are stronger than those in early career stages.

### 6.2 Commitment Outcomes across Career Stages

While age is the most common career stage indicator, the organizational commitment development models also employ tenure as a career stage indicator. Mowday et al, (1982) proposed three stages in the development of the organization commitment.

The **pre-entry stage** which deals with the influence of job choice on commitment, **The early employment stage** and **The middle and late career stages** in the organization. A slightly different model which excludes the pre-employment stage was suggested by Reichers (1986) who concentrated at three stages of development. **Early mid and later career stages.**

### 6.3 Reichers Version of Career Stages: early, Mid and Late

These categories particularly correspond to the exploration, establishment and maintenance stages of supper's (1957) theory and similarly to the entering the adult

world stage thirties. transition and sitting down stages (mid) and middle adult stage (late) of Levinson et al, (1978)

A study made by Reichers and Mowday reveals that career stage moderates the relationship between organizational commitments and outcomes. It is worth noting that some outcomes (turn over and turn over intentions) all of these theories put up by Mowday and Reichers support the moderator effect. While for other outcomes (performance and absenteeism) only some of the theories are supportive.

#### **6.4 Turn over and turn over intention**

Actual turn over and turn over intentions are considered be strongest outcome of low levels of employed commitment. High committed employees by definition are desirous of remaining in the organization (Mowday et al 1982) However it can be expected that the relationship between commitment and turnover vary dependent on an individual's opportunities and availability of attractive alternatives (Mayer and Allan 1984).

According to career development models (Levinson et al. 1978) those in the early careers stage face the contradictory tasks of making commitments while keeping options open. An individual in the early career stage attempts to establish her/himself in a job which interests him, but should this job prove inappropriate she/he has little hesitation in choosing another. Employees at this stage express greater intentions to leave their organization and more willingness to relocate than those in other age groups (Orstein . 1982.)

The earliest period of membership is therefore the most critical period for turnover and employees attitudes towards the organization especially commitment at this stage will be important factors in their decisions to stay or leave (Super 1957) and Levinson et al (1978) career models hold that propensity to leave an employer and chosen field of work decreases as one moves into the mid and late age stages. People in the mid – career

stages are more interested in developing stable work and personal lives and in making strong commitments to work family and community.

People in the late stage of their career are in a stage of relative tranquility. These persons are more oriented to settling down and are less willing to relocate or leave the organization for the purpose of promotion (super, 1957). Thus one would expect a weaker relationship between commitment and turnover in the mid and late – carrier stages than in the early career stages, because in the late career stage, turn over is relatively low regardless of commitment.

Mowday et al. (1982) argued that the development of commitment during the early stage appears particularly important to the continued attachments of employees because it decreases the likelihood of early termination. They also urged that commitment levels among new employees have been found to vary and may reflect different propensities to become committed to the organization. Based on this, it can be expected that levels of organizational commitment would be an important determinant of turnover in the career stages. Additionally Mowdy et al.(1982) argued that levels of commitment developed during the early employment period appear to remain stable. More over increased investments in the form of time and energy make it increasingly difficult for employees to leave voluntarily. The relative stability in commitment levels along with increased difficulties in leaving the organization decrease the magnitude of the relationship between commitment and turnover in the mid and late career stages (Crow Bulletin 2003).

## **6.5 Performance**

The career development models (Levinson et al (1978) and super (1957) provide some arguments for expecting that commitment – performance relationship varies across careers stages. According to these theories, it is expected that individuals in the early career stage based on the process of exploration and lack of experience, will perform more poorly than people in other stages. Because of less work, experience, and job

performance of the employees in the early stage will be lower than that of individuals the mid and late life stages (Ornstein et al, 1989)

Organizational performance and commitment will have a limited effect on performance in the early stages because these employees' main obstacle is lack of experience. Even if committed, their level of experience may keep their level of performance relatively low. Variables expected to effect performance strongly are more specific task environment variables. For example, research evidence has demonstrated strong relationship between variables job satisfaction (Guillemard 1993), role ambiguity and inter sender role conflict (Strumpf1981) and performance in the early career stages. The learning of role tasks, likely to be the most important determinants of performance in thee early stage will decrease in importance as roles become more familiar and individuals progress to the mid and late stages (Strumpf and Robinwite, 1981). At mid and late stages, employees have gained experience and knowledge of the job that enables them to perform better. The adjustment process has been completed and establishing commitment to work and family becomes more salient issues. Therefore it is expected that organization commitment and more general attitudes toward the organization commitment would effect performance more strongly at the mid and late career stages than in the early career stage.

## **6.6 Absenteeism**

Theory predicts that highly committed employees should be motivated to attend, to facilitate organizational goal attainment. Mowdy et al, (1982), Farrel and stamin (1988) in their Meta-analysis of absenteeism Correlates, found that stronger determination of absenteeism were task environment variables such as task significance, task variety and feedback. However following super's (1957) and Levint et al, (1978), career development theories, it can be expected that the negative relationship between commitment and absenteeism would be stronger in the mid and in the later career stages than in the early stages.

The career development theories urge that the main concern of individuals in the early career stage is to identify their interests, capabilities and the fit between self and job.



During this stage, individuals attempt to build skills and develop the competency to make occupational choice. As with performance, variables expected to affect absenteeism at the early stage are specific task environmental variables (Mowdy et al 1982)

From this it appears that organizational commitment will have only a limited effect upon absenteeism to the early career because employee perception of the task environment is the major influence. In the mid and late career stages, employees attitude towards their jobs become less important relative to their early stages. According to the career development models there is a tendency, if the work situation and occupation choice are at all satisfactory, for leveling off in terms of career aspiration and advancement and an identification with the company and the field. Thus it appears in these late career stages that it is not just the immediate task environment variables with at least absenteeism; as in the early stages, but also more general attitudes such as the attachment development during the years with the organization namely organization commitments. Therefore it is expected that organizational commitment affects absenteeism more strongly in the mid and late career stages (Mowdy et al. 1982).

## **CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.0 Summary**

#### **7.1 The proportion of young versus old workers in the world economies.**

In Africa and other developing countries in the world, the birth rate is high and that the majority of the population is made up of young people aged between 12-19. This makes the situation to have the majority of the young population who have the ability and willingness to work but job opportunities available cannot accommodate these high numbers of unemployed.

The majority young brings about a situation of high dependency ratio. They depend on the few adult working population. The situation is worsened by the impact of H.I.V/AIDS which has drastically reduced the lifespan to about 45 years. In the European and other developed countries the success of economic and social development has seen the extension of the individual lifespan, fall in birth rates giving rise to numbers of older people. This has necessitated extension of retirement age as the number of people in the economy continue to fall. This also impacts heavily on the government expenditure as it is forced to increase health services, education and social welfare.

#### **7.2 The age mix of the workforce**

Younger people are preferred by many employers for a number of reasons; Younger people have completed their education more recently and are more up to date than their older counterparts, younger workers tend to be more flexible in their attitudes and less resistant to change than older workers who might have vested interests in maintaining their status quo.

Older workers have more family commitments than younger workers hence they demand and expect high levels of remuneration. Young recruits have recent experience in learning process hence can usually be trained faster than older workers who may have forgotten basic techniques of how to learn. On the contrary older workers are perceived the best to younger workers, due to the following reasons; Managers are concerned about the expertise the older workers have attained through their long service. Older workers

have more patience and concentration to their work making them more efficient and perfect than younger workers. Older workers induct and train younger workers in their skills. Return on investment on human capital requires less training compared to the young, cutting down on costs. Old employees can be used to train younger workers particularly new ones.

Organization objectives will be adequately achieved if workers stay longer in the organization firm hence eradication of early retirement. Retaining old workers in the organization is preventing skill shortages. So maximum recruitment potential is attained by retaining older workers in the organization. Retaining old workers is promoting diversity in the workplace. There is therefore an emerging case of combating age barriers, job recruitment and training on the grounds of pragmatism, commercialism, and good human resource.

### **7.3 Age discrimination**

Age discrimination has been tilted to older workers for along time. This has been evidenced through downsizing resulting in layoffs targeting older workers. Age limits during recruitment, mandatory age retirement, employers using coded language to indicate that they are looking for a specific age group with phrases such as young articulate youngsters, second jobbers, and young dynamic environment.

The situation is changing as organizations learn the merits of older workers as explained above. This has led to enactment of Age discrimination in employment Act (ADEA-1967) in the USA to protect persons between 40-70 years against arbitrary discrimination in employment practices.

### **7.4 Extension of retirement age**

In Kenya the government has extended its mandatory retirement age from 55 to 60 years in the civil service. Encouraging workers to stay longer in employment through established contracts is a way of retaining valuable skills in the organization.

The minimum age of employment has been set by international labour organization and enforced by the respective countries. The age and job type has been controlled by the nature and type of work, gender and the countries economic goals.

## 7.6 Institutional factors

The neo-corporatist countries - Germany and Belgium, and partly France -need a change in their corporatist institutions, namely trade unions, which are requested to be more protective-of other groups of workers than only the old industrial workers: young people and women. As for Mediterranean countries - Italy, Portugal and to some extent also France -where a balanced social redistribution is still lacking, we have a redistribution of social protection through the substitution of the “external” solidarity among generations with an “intra-familiar” one.

## 7.7 Future conflict among generations

In this sub section we try to draw some concluding remarks and suggestions for policies. on the basis of the analysis of the relations among generations at work. The project results do not show the existence of a real “perception” of conflicting interests by interviewees of different generations: areas of both solidarity and tensions have been highlighted. Nevertheless, the results show “objective” differences in the quality of work for the three generations. Then, we should consider the possibility for the future that the consciousness of belonging to a less lucky generation may initiate social tensions.

Which kind of future tensions may we expect? Which specific policies can governments and social actors introduce to improve social cohesion in order to prevent such a conflict? Taking into account the evidence from the research, institutional and company measures should be oriented at: Re-balancing the **specific weakness** of each generation on the labor market (i.e. more social protection for young workers, more retraining for the elders, etc.), thus avoiding the risk of a future increased intergenerational unbalance. Answering the **expectations** of each group (i.e. change in work organization for young people, more

family friendly policies at the company level for the mid-generations, humanization of work for old workers, etc.); Improving **understanding** between different age groups and fostering intergenerational cooperation at work (also through the articulation of career paths and the modularization of the training systems)

## 7.8 Conclusion

The above results support the proposition that when employees work overtime, adverse outcomes and indirect costs don't increase with advancing age in any kind of wholesale fashion. When rates of adverse outcomes do increase, they are confined to certain subgroups of employees doing certain types of work and occur on certain dimension at certain levels of longer working hours. It is argued that carefully calibrated approaches vis a vis older workers are needed to maximize employee capacity to address the unique challenges posed by this increasingly important portion of the work force.

The policy on age and employment should take into account the following facts; Age is a poor predictor of performance, It is misleading to equate physical and mental ability with age. More of the population is living active, healthy lives as they get older (Armstrong, 2000).

Recruiting older workers may sound counter intuitive because they incur higher health care costs, but older workers also have fewer dependants and offer other cost savings. Dan Smith the vice president of Borders, a national book seller says “ our over 50 employee turnover is 10 times less than those under 30, so when you think of the savings you have in training costs and recruitment costs, you save a lot more than that of the over 50-workers than you do the others.

Many firms view the personal qualities of older workers and the skills acquired during their career as important company assets, which more than compensates for any additional overheads. Such work abilities as accuracy, reliability and good communication skills are difficult to replace (unless companies are willing to pay costs of

recruitment, occasional adjustment of extensive on job training of newly hired staff) (Snell and Bohlander G. 2007).

## **7.9 Recommendations**

In general, from a comparison between empirical results and the collected practices, it emerges an overall picture that conveys a certain dissonance between needs of different generations and actual institutional and managerial practices. The following are recommendations on better institutional and managerial practices to combat age barriers for improved productivity in an organisation.

**Employment strategy**, namely through age management and incentives for older workers to stay longer on the labour market; integration of young people in the labour market; training for all age groups in order to increase adaptability; promoting solidarity between generations to ensure sustainable and equal social protection.

**Demographic issues**, by focusing on support to youth, women and older employees combining work and life cycle and by promoting a new pact between generations.

**Equality**, in particular through a new approach to age management, mutual learning among generations at the workplace. multidimensional approach to gender as a mainstream issue also in the age perspective.

## **7.10 Suggestions to Different Policy Actors**

### **Central Government**

Central government should introduce appropriate social security measures. in the framework of a flexicurity policy (understood in a socially sustainable way) that could ensure: More security provisions for youth employment, in order to protect them against periods of unemployment and low income and to provide them health and maternity rights; Flexible retirement measures for the elderly, in order to allow them to combine less working hours with full security during the last years of career; Good lifelong training systems and employability to workers of every generation; Family services and

benefits (paid leaves and transfers to children or not self-sufficient family members) to help workers to meet life-cycle needs and to support more balanced demographical trends

### **Local Governments and Local Institutions**

Local governments and local institutions may have a relevant role in: Organizing awareness campaigns on the topic of intergenerational cooperation; Giving financial support to projects of mentoring and knowledge exchanges between old workers and young workers and entrepreneurs; Creating family services at local level; Monitoring the state of the art of existing best practices.

### **Social Partners**

Employers and trade unions at the company level may have important role in: Changing work organization and the performance evaluation systems, in order to increase autonomy, time management autonomy, and self. Introducing new tools for the harmonization of career opportunities and family care for mid-generation, especially women.

Introducing ergonomics and humanization of the working conditions: shorter hours, lighter workloads and improvement in the workplace environment for older workers. Contrasting age discrimination, through measures that remove prejudices against old workers; Introducing measures aimed at encouraging cooperation and mutual knowledge exchange between old and young workers.

### **Human Resource Managers**

Specific practices to be introduced by company HR managers could be: Age-diversity management, inspired by a managerial philosophy which considers different age-related attitudes and competencies as resources and oriented to facilitate mutual understanding among different age groups; Practices of knowledge management, i.e. assessment, valorization and exchange of skills and experience regarding old and young workers and knowledge transmission in both directions;

More recognition of experience of old workers, also involving them in mentoring projects; Designing new training systems and career paths according to heterogeneous needs in different life cycle phases; Enhancing job satisfaction, especially addressing young people's expectation of autonomy, mid-generation's needs for flexible working, old generation's needs to avoid too heavy and demanding jobs.



## REFERENCES

- Adams et al. (2007) African Journal. Adams et al (2007).
- Alan price (2009), Human resource Management, Third Edition. Seng Lee press. Singapore.
- Armstrong Cole, G (2002). Personnel and Human Resource Management. 5<sup>th</sup> Edition: pp 228 McMillan, London.
- Bailey s (1995) Human Resource Management, Prentice Hill London.
- Barbara I (1986) Organisation workers in the theory of Age. Prentice Hill. London.
- Baron et al (2000) Human Resource Management. Prentice hall London.
- Casey, Metacalf and Lakey, (1993). 'Human Resource Strategies and the Third Age' policies and practices in the UK' in Taylor, et al; Age and Employment. London.
- Crow Bulletin (2003) Series. Age and Employment
- David A Decon and Stephen Robins (2000). Human Resource Management. Prentice Hill. London.
- Delsen L. and Reday-Mulvey G (1996). Gradual Retirement in the OECD Countries. London ' as quoted in European Foundation for the improvement of living and working condition; 1997. Dublin.
- Dessler, G. ( 2008) Human Resource Management. 11<sup>th</sup> Edition; Upper Sandler River.
- Equal opportunities' review (1998). " Tackling Age Bias: Code or Law?" Equal opportunities Review No . 80 July-August.
- Dictionary for Business (1998) McMillan Nairobi..
- European Economic Community (EEC) Bulletin (2009) Age and Employment.
- European foundation for improvements of living and working conditions (1997). Combating Age Barriers in Employment. Dublin.
- Friedman s (2005) Impact of age on performance. Prentice Hill. London.
- Garry Delsa (2009) Human Resource Management. Prentice Hill. India.
- Graham. H. and Bennet. R (1998). Human Resource Management 9<sup>th</sup> editon. London pp 22-24.

- Guillemard, A.M. and Walker. A. (1993). Older people in Europe. Social and Economic Policies,. Brussels. EC Commission.
- Higginbottom. K and Roberts, Z. (2002) 'EOC urges local authorities to confront lack of senior women.' People Management. vol 8. No 12, 13 June pp7.
- Hoffman, A (1993) Employee outcomes. Prentice hill. London.
- <http://www/Jistor> 2008) Organisational Outcomes
- [http WABA](http://WABA) (2005) /Age and organisation outcomes
- Karuggah Robert (2004) Age and Employment. Oxford Press Nairobi
- Karpinnen, J. (2006) As quoted in the European foundation for improvement of living and working conditions (1997). Combating age barriers in employment. Dublin.
- Kiddler, et al (1981) Human Resource Management. Gale press, Endinburg
- Lagertof E. (2006) As quoted in the European foundation for improvement of living and working conditions(1997). Combating age barriers in employment. Dublin.
- Lavingsom et al (2008) Aging workers. Hillcrow series
- Lazarus A, (2000) Managing Stress. European research report. Dublin.Prescher Bulletin (2002)
- Lobel, p (1986) Organisational outcomes. Crow Bulletin
- Mbiti js (1985) African Traditional Religion. UAP. Nairobi
- Milkovich, G. AND Bourdeau. J. (!998). Human Resource Management; A diagnostic Approach. 5<sup>th</sup> edition pp 77-78.
- Mowdy et al (1982) Performance career stages. Endinburg Gate.
- Porter et al (1974) European Research Report Dublin.
- Preacher W (2003) Ageing workers. Hillcrow series.
- Snell, S. and Bohlander, G. (2007). Human Resource Management. Pp 25-26. Nartop Boulevard Mason
- Smith Kendel and Hullin p (1998) Job satisfaction Gose press Endinburg.
- Snape, E. and Redman, T. (2003) 'Too old or Too young? The impact of perceived age discrimination; Human Resource Management Journal, Vol. 13, No. 1 pp.78-89.

- Spidla, V. (2006). As quoted by foundation Focus. Issue 2-September, 2006. Dublin.
- Strumph F and Robinson (1981) Age and the workforce. Hillcrow series.
- Super T (1997) Career Development. Prentice Hill, London
- Tersin J (2004) Retirement age in Organisations. Dublin USA
- Torrington. D. Hall. L. and Taylor, S. (2005). Human Resource Management. 6<sup>th</sup> edition. Edinburgh Gate.
- Ornstein et all (1982) Bulletin.
- Walker, A(1996). Combating Age Barriers in employment. European Research Report, Dublin. European foundation for improvement of living and working conditions (1997).

## APPENDIX 1

### The Concept of Age

Animal's life is usually divided into various stages. Historically, the life span of humans is divided into eight stages because biological changes are slow moving and vary from person to person. Arbitrary dates are usually set to mark periods of life. In some cultures the divisions given below are quite varied. In the U.S.A adulthood legally begins at the age of eighteen, while old age is considered to begin at the age of legal retirement

(approximately 65)

Pre conception — ovum-spermatozoa

Conception fertilization

Pre- birth —conception to birth (Pregnancy)

Infancy Birth to one year.

Childhood one — twelve years.

Adolescence 13 — 19 years.

Early adulthood 20 — 39 years.

Middle adulthood 40 — 64 years.

Late adulthood 65 years and above.

Age can also be divided by decades

Term Age (Years inclusive).

Denerian 10—19

Vice- nerian 20—29

Quadragerian 40 —49

Quinquenerian 50—59

Septuagerian 70 — 79

Octogenerian— 80 — 89

Centenerian 100 — 10

## APPENDIX 2

### THE GENERAL CONFERENCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION ON AGE AND EMPLOYMENT

(Source: <http://www.ilo.org> (2009) Age and employment )

#### 1.6 Minimum Age of Employment

The general conference of the international labour organization, having been convened at Geneva by the governing body of the international of labour office and having met in its fifty eighth session on 6th June 1973 and having decided upon the adoptive of certain proposals with regard to the minimum age for admission in employment, which is the forth item on the agenda of the session.

The conference was cited as the minimum age convention 1972. (<http://www.ilo.org> age)

The main objective of the conference was to establish a general instrument which would generally replace the existing ones applicable to limited economic sectors, with a view to achieving the total abolition of child labour.

The recommendations and solutions were arrived at in form of articles as follows: Article one; Each member, for whom the convention is in force, undertakes to pursue a national policy designed to ensure the effective abolition of child labour and rise progressively the minimum age for admission to employment or work to a level consistent with the fullest physical and mental development of young persons.

Article two; Each member ratifies this convention specify in a declaration appended to its ratification. Minimum age of admission to employment or work within its territory and a means of transport registered in its territory.

No one under that age shall be admitted to employment or work in any occupation. That the minimum age specified in pursue of paragraph one of this articles shall not be less than the age of completion of compulsory schooling and in any case, shall not be less than 15 years.

Notwithstanding the provisions of paragraph three of this article, a member whose economy and educational facilities are in sufficiently developed may after consultation with organization of employees and workers concerned. Where such exists, initially,

specify minimum age of 14 years.

**Article three;** The minimum age of admission to any type of employment or work which by its nature or circumstances in which it's carried out is likely to jeopardize the health safety or morals of young persons shall not be less than eighteen years.

The types of employment or work to which paragraph one of these articles applies. shall be determined by national laws or regulations or by the competent authority after consultation with organization of the employer and workers concerned, where such exist

### **Resolutions**

All the necessary measures including the provision of appropriate penalties shall be taken by the competent authority to ensure the effective enforcement of the provision of the convention. National laws or regulations or the competent authority shall define persons responsible for compliance with the provisions giving effect to the convention.

National laws or regulations or the competent authority shall prescribe the registers or other documents which shall be kept and made available by the employers. Such registers or documents shall contain the names and ages or dates of birth, dully certified wherever possible of persons of whom he employs or who work for him and are less than 18 years of age.

The convention doesn't apply to work done by children and young persons in school for general vocational or technical education or in other training institutions or to work done by persons of least 14 years of age in undertakings, where such work is carried out in accordance with the conditions prescribed by the competent authority, after consultations with organizations of employers and workers concerned, where such exist, and is an integral part: A course of education or training, A program of guidance or orientation designed to facilitate the choice of an occupation or a line of training, National laws or regulations may permit the employment of work of persons aged 13 - 15 years of age on light work which is:-

Not likely to be harmful to their health or development. Not such as to prejudice their attendance at school, their participation in vocational orientation or training programs approved by the competent authority or their capacity to benefit from the instruction received. National laws or regulations may also permit the employment or work of persons who are at least 15 years of age but have not yet completed their compulsory schooling or work which meets the requirements set forth in these articles.