Aging in the 21st century workplace: The career motivation of mature workers

Gillian Leithman

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By: **Gillian Leithman**

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______________________________________ Chair
Dr.

______________________________________ External Examiner
Dr.

______________________________________ External to Program
Dr. Shannon Hebblethwaite

______________________________________ Examiner
Dr. Muhammad Jamal

______________________________________ Examiner
Dr. June Chaikelson

______________________________________ Thesis Supervisor
Dr. Linda Dyer

Approved by____
Chair or Graduate Program Director

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ABSTRACT

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Gillian Leithman, Ph.D.
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The current thesis examined the late career motivation of older workers. Specifically, I sought to explore the willingness of mature employees to share their knowledge and experience with younger colleagues, and their intention to continue working as opposed to retiring. Three studies were conducted using qualitative and quantitative approaches. The objective of the first qualitative study was to investigate how people felt about sharing their knowledge with their younger counterparts and whether or not this motivation changed as people transitioned from work to retirement. Findings based on 16 interviews indicated that the majority of participants wanted to share their knowledge however, this desire could only be actualized in an organizational environment that valued older workers. Results also suggested that individual motives such as the need for achievement, power and affiliation have an impact upon the decision to continue working or retire.

Using the propositions that emerged from Study 1, *The Late Career Motivation Scale* was developed in Study 2. One hundred and eighty two participants completed a survey measure, and an exploratory factor analysis revealed a four-factor model: two factors focused on reasons for retirement, and two factors focused on reasons for continued work.

In Study 3, I used an online survey to examine the links between the organizational environment and knowledge sharing behaviour, as well as the relationships between individual motives and the likelihood of continued work. The factors of the Late Career Motivation Scale were proposed as mediators between the predictor and outcome variables. One hundred and forty seven participants filled out the on-line survey. Findings revealed that having supportive colleagues predicted knowledge sharing behaviour. Moreover, this relationship was mediated by workplace generativity and the affiliation motive. In addition, achievement motivation was related to the intention to continue working, whereas the power motive was not. Overall, findings indicate that mature employees want to share their knowledge with their younger counterparts, however, an organizational environment that nurtures and values expertise is essential for knowledge sharing to occur. Practical implications are discussed.

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Our research has shed light on what it means to be generative in the context of work. My time spent with interviewees has taught me that the title of supervisor, manager, or boss does not necessarily equate to that of teacher or advisor. You have not only served as both role model and mentor, but your guidance has always taken into account my personal well-being and my professional goals. You embody the true meaning of what it means to be generative. I remain forever grateful.

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Dear reader, while this thesis is written in the first person, I would be remiss if I did not communicate that the culmination of this work is a result of the dedication, commitment, and collaboration of my supervisor Dr. Linda Dyer. All remaining errors are, of course, mine.

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, Nancy and Jerry.
You are the true essence of what it means to be generative

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I sometimes worry that the younger employees think I am a relic from a bygone era and that my knowledge is outdated. Maybe it's time for me to go and make room for new blood. I want to go out on a high. I have been treated really well. I have received lots of validation and I don't want to be dead wood. On the other hand I worry that my life will feel empty. I am scared that I will become irrelevant. Besides, I love what I do. I really enjoy the intellectual challenge and I am not so sure who here is qualified to take over my position. I want to leave my work in the hands of someone who is capable of doing my job well. I have devoted over 30 years to this position. I wonder if my retired friends will think I am crazy if I choose to continue working beyond 65. Most of them love retirement and they are having a blast. They travel. Enjoy golf. They really appreciate having time to go to the gym and that they don't have to squeeze in quick workouts early in the morning or after a long day of work. I am anxious that I will end up like my husband's best friend Jack who spends endless hours in front of the TV - bored and depressed. He regrets selling his business despite having made a killing on the sale. It may be time to hang up my hat, but what happens next?

Sandra 63

Introduction

The decision to retire or continue working beyond the age of 65 is complex, involves a multitude of factors and is deeply personal. Some people embrace retirement and count down the days, excited that the passing of time will bring them closer to what many aptly refer to as *freedom*. Others, such as Sandra, are plagued by an internal struggle in which they constantly weigh the pros and cons of leaving work, benchmark their decision against that of friends, family and colleagues, question what others will think of their choice, and worry that their time has come. They wonder if there is place for their years of experience and expertise, or whether their knowledge is obsolete and their time at work has expired.

Advances in medicine and technology have translated into healthier and longer lifespans; these changes have had a profound influence on people's lives in general, and their work lives in particular. Although we are healthier and more capable of working longer than we did 60 years ago, the majority of North American employees are choosing to exit the workforce before the age of 65 (Schieber, 2012). This trend is a consequence of social policies that were devised in the twentieth century and do not reflect the current lives of aging workers or their abilities. Riley (1988) refers to this phenomenon as *structural lag* and argues that while the twentieth century has transformed how we age and grow old, this revolution has not been commensurate with changes in our social structures.

In the realm of work, structural lag has influenced the employment trajectories of older employees. Jobs and careers have been cut short as a result of social and organizational policies that were devised to encourage early retirement and discourage continued work. The financial penalties incurred by working beyond the age of 65 have caused most employees to exit and retire (Burkhauser & Quinn, 1994).

In most of the industrialized nations, however, the fast-approaching retirements of the baby boomers, combined with increases in life expectancy, aging populations and low fertility rates, have forced governments to amend public pensions and institute pro-work policies (Nyce & Scheiber, 2005). Numerous proposals have been put forth on ways to alter social security systems so as to bring them into actuarial balance. Much of the focus has been on decreasing future benefits, increasing taxes or a combination of these two strategies (Burkhauser & Rovba, 2009). As a result of such changes, the retirement age has gradually started to increase though it has plateaued in recent years. In Canada, the average age of retirement is 63 (Statistics Canada, 2015) and in the United States it is 62 (Gallup, 2014). In general, retirement age hovers around 65 for all Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, OECD, countries (OECD, 2011).

At the same time, international organizations such as the OECD and the International Monetary Fund stress the role and responsibility of organizations, and maintain that employers have to create initiatives that encourage longer working lives. Scholars are also calling upon organizations to change their private pension policies. According to Burkhauser and Quinn (1994), pension incentives strongly influence the timing of retirement. Burkhauser and Rovba (2009) analyzed the policy changes made to American social security in the last half century. Their findings revealed that American men and women are willing and able to work longer if social structures encourage them to do so.

1.1. Capitalize on the experience of mature workers

Changing global economic policies regarding work and retirement may just be what we need in order to facilitate a change in the societal views of the productivity of older workers. Stereotypes of the older worker as incapable of learning new skills, and being physically and mentally ill-equipped to deal with the changing nature of work still exist. Our cultural perception is one that views the mature employee as a burden on organizational resources (Czaja & Sharit,

2009) and less capable of dealing with stress (Postuma & Campion, 2009). Clearly, current institutional norms and organizational practices have not kept pace with lifespan development. To borrow from Matilda Riley's conception of structural lag (1988) - we are experiencing a workplace lag.

While governments iron out the complexities of longer working lives, employers can assist by keeping mature workers on the job past the age of retirement. This approach has not received the attention it deserves. Extending the work lives of older workers will ease skills shortages and provide an opportunity for older employees to transfer their knowledge to their younger counterparts. In turn, older workers will have the opportunity to nurture their skills, cultivate their strengths and be rewarded for their contributions (Riley & Riley, 1994). While many people welcome the opportunity to retire, not all do. There is a growing segment of society that would prefer to continue working in order to remain productive, cognitively engaged and socially connected (AARP 2008; Sunlife, 2015). For this latter group of people, retirement is met with ambivalence, as they are uncertain of what to do with so much unstructured time. As Riley and Riley explain, older people do not want to occupy roles in which they feel "disregarded, denigrated or dependent" (p. 113).

From an organizational perspective, there is growing recognition that boomer retirements may prove problematic. Businesses are starting to wake up to the reality that employee retirements are synonymous with a loss of organizational knowledge and experience that cannot be replaced by new hires. Once these employees exit the workforce there is little hope they will ever return (Delong 2004). Moreover, lost knowledge creates costly performance disruptions—bad decisions that are due to inexperience, innovation stalemates, and customer service chaos (Leonard, Swap & Barton, 2013).

Our culture is still very much entrenched in outdated views of older people and does not perceive the aging worker as cognitively competent, and capable of contributing to organizational productivity. In order to alter our perceptions of mature workers, it is useful to understand how these cultural impressions first evolved. As such, let us step back in time and briefly recount the history of retirement.

1.2. The History of Retirement

In order to gain a better understanding of the concept of retirement as we know it today, we need to explore its origins and the factors that have influenced its evolution. Although there are many variables that have shaped the retirement phenomenon, I will limit our argument to three key areas providing a historical context for the current study. I will focus on the development of social security systems, employer-sponsored pension plans, and the growth and accessibility of leisure activities.

1.3. The development of social security

The origins of retirement as a twentieth century phenomenon can be traced back to the German chancellor Otto von Bismarck. Bismarck was influenced by the writings of Ferdinand Lasalle, a social democrat, who canvassed the government for social reform and the protection of the working class. The chancellor was also attracted to Marx's philosophy that poverty be eradicated from the human condition. Inspired by these men's revolutionary ideas, Bismarck developed the first "social insurance program" in 1889, which provided a meagre level of support to aging workers who could no longer work, and to their dependents when they died or become disabled (Blackburn, 2002). According to Bismarck,

> Anybody who had before him the prospect of a pension, be it ever so small, in old age or infirmity is much happier and more contented with his lot, much more tractable and easy to manage, than whose future is absolutely uncertain… Contentment amongst the impecunious and disinherited classes would not be dearly purchased by an enormous sum. They must be made to understand that the state is of some use- that it does not only take- but gives too boot… not as alms giving but as the right that men have to be taken care of, when with the least will imaginable, they become unfit for work. (Hamerow, 1974 as cited in Blackburn, 2002 p. 46).

This vanguard movement spread across the developed world and eventually, albeit ever so slowly, made its way to North America. In Canada, Old Age Security was established in 1927 and paid out a meagre monthly benefit of $20 ($270 in today's dollars). Moreover, the age of eligibility was set at 70, and people had to pass a humiliating means test in order to prove that they were in need of government assistance and could not provide for their own livelihood. It was not until 1951 that the government did away with the means test and made Old Age Security a universal benefit that paid out $40 a month to those 70 and over. Old Age Security was not intended as an income replacement measure. It was established as a form of income security for the elderly providing they met residency conditions (Young, 2012).

In the United States, Social Security came about during the Great Depression as the federal government was forced to deal with ever-increasing "aging dependency" matters. Although the entire workforce was affected by the Depression, the elderly were the hardest hit by unemployment. In 1930, 54% of those 65 and over were out of work. When Roosevelt campaigned for the presidency in 1932, his "New Deal" advocated programs that would make life better for ordinary citizens. In 1935 "the Social Security Act" was written into law (Schieber, 2012). At the signing statement Roosevelt noted:

> We can never insure one hundred percent of the population against one hundred percent of the hazards and vicissitudes of life, but we have tried to frame a law which will give some measure of protection to the average citizen and to his family against the loss of a job and against poverty ridden old age. This law, too, represents a cornerstone in a structure intended to lessen the force of possible future depressions. It will act as a protection to future Administrators against the necessity of going deeply into debt to furnish relief to the needy (Our Documents: The social security act, n.d.)

In January of 1940, Ida Mae Fuller of Vermont became the first recipient of a social security benefit cheque in the amount of $22.54. Ms. Fuller had been contributing to the program for three years, and her total contribution amounted to a sum of $24.75. Not a bad investment for a woman who continued to collect benefits for the next 35 years, when she died at the age of 100 (her total payout was $22,888.92). Of course not all made out as well as the early participants such as Ms. Fuller, but the system did, in fact, reduce poverty among the elderly. In 1967, 29.5% of those 65 and over were living below the poverty line, in contrast to 16.6% of the total population (The Council of Economic Advisors, 2014). By 2009, the poverty rate among the elderly had fallen to 8.9 percent (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). Moreover, Schieber (2012) points out that in the early 1950s the average age of a social security claimant was 68 and claimants collected benefits for approximately 13 years. At the turn of the millennium, the average age of retirement had decreased to 62.5, and retirees could anticipate collecting benefits for the following 21 years (Gendell, 2008).

At the time that social security was devised, no one expected people to draw upon it for more than a few years (Shieber, 2012). Nor was Social Security, like Old Age Security in Canada, created to fund a person's desired retirement lifestyle. In his 1939 address to Congress, President Roosevelt explained that social security was intended "only as a base upon which each one of our citizens may build his individual security, through his own individual efforts" (Social Security Administration, n.d.). As such, employees were expected to build their retirement wealth by setting aside personal savings and, where possible, through employer-sponsored pensions.

1.4. Employer-sponsored pensions

Employer-sponsored pensions are quite different from social security systems and evolved for different reasons. According to Blackburn (2002) retirement pensions existed in some variation for the past six centuries. Businesses recognized the benefits of providing employees with pensions, and companies such as Wechselbank and Siemens established pension funds as early as 1845 and 1872, respectively. However, these funds were designed only for a select group of favoured employees. Moreover, companies did not only implement pension schemes as a goodwill gesture, but such programs were used as a human resource management tool; they enabled employers to maintain tight control over workforce fluctuations. As one business owner explained to his fellow entrepreneurs,

> Many firms may hesitate to adopt a pension scheme… but it is probable that these firms carry heavy costs in hidden pensions without realising the fact. If a firm establishes a liberal pension scheme it will doubtless at the same time fix a definite retiring age and will thus never find itself with a number of older workers of low working capacity drawing full pay… such employees are very costly, not only does the firm lose on them individually but their presence tends to lower the pace and lessen the output of the whole shop. (Naidoo, as cited in Blackburn, 2002 p. 48).

At the time, Birchard Wyatt, a lead thinker in the area of private pensions, propagated the very same theory about older workers. Wyatt maintained that during an employee's prime working years his productivity exceeded his pay and therefore created a surplus for the employer. The accumulated surplus could be used as a future pension benefit that would entice the worker to retire when productivity started to decline. Years later Wyatt's theory was confirmed by Edward Lazear, the founder of modern-day human-resource economics (Lazear, 1979).

According to Costa (1998) most employer-sponsored pension plans, chose 65 or 70 as the age of retirement because it was considered the age at which one started to lose mental faculties and productive abilities. The author cites the following examples as evidence as to why 65 has been culturally ingrained as the age in which one is officially deemed old. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the medical community propagated the notion that 65 was synonymous with mental decline. In 1905, Professor Osler, a physician at the John Hopkins University School of medicine, argued that all men should retire at the age of 60 because of the loss of mental flexibility. The economist William Beveridge contended that older workers could not keep pace with technological change as they lacked adaptability. The statistician, Frederick Hoffman, asserted that the age of productivity encompassed the years between 15 and 65. All other years were demarcated as unproductive. Isaac Rubinow, a pioneer of the American social security movement, proclaimed that 65 should be regarded as old since it is the dawn of disease and decline (Costa, 1998). When the U.S. federal government argued before the Supreme Court that railroad workers should "enjoy the closing days of their lives with peace of mind and physical comfort" (Railroad Retirement Act, 1935) it asserted, "it is a commonplace fact that physical ability, mental alertness and cooperativeness tend to fail after man is 65" (Graebner 1980, p.160). Clearly, the prevailing view at the time that pension systems were devised was one which alleged that 65 marked the beginning of mental decline and workforce productivity. Employer-sponsored pension plans enabled businesses to retire older workers and replace them with younger and more productive employees.

By many accounts, the institution of private pensions and social security have worked out quite well and been hailed as a twentieth century achievement. Employees could look forward to retiring to a life of leisure with some measure of income security, in exchange for a lifetime commitment to work. Industrialization gave rise to increased earnings, which has resulted in employees retiring at younger and younger ages. Costa (1998) maintains that when retirement incomes were low, men stayed in the labour force even if it meant seeking alternate work that paid less but was less physically demanding. When incomes rose, men started to opt for retirement.

1.5. The growth and accessibility of leisure activities

One of the reasons men opt for retirement at younger ages can be attributed to a preference to engage in leisure activities instead of work (Costa, 1998). Leisure is defined as free time to engage in pleasurable activities such as exercising, socializing, reading, watching TV, engaging in sports, travel, and attending the theatre. In 1941, 3% of men cited a desire to engage in recreational activities as a reason to retire. This number was 17% in 1963. By 1982, the number had increased to 48% (Sherman, 1985). The requirements of leisure activities are time and money. A look back at the average work-week of employees in 1910 reveals that those employed in the manufacturing sector worked 55 hours, confining the pursuit of leisure activities to the rich (Costa, 1998). According to Veblen (1994, reprinted from 1899), leisure is the hallmark of the wealthy and has historically characterized the ruling class. The rich enjoyed automobile excursions in the countryside because they could afford the expense of car ownership and maintenance. By 1940, however, half of all of U.S. households owned a car. Like cars, golf too was “democratized”. Once regarded as the sport of the wealthy it became accessible to all. Technology also leveled the playing field. The expense of attending a sporting event may have come with a hefty price tag, but it soon became easy to enjoy on a television screen (Costa, 1998).

Travel also became more accessible to mainstream society once the railroad network was complete, and highways developed. Although it was initially only the wealthy who retired to Florida or California, the 1920’s and 1930’s saw a migration of older people towards warmer climates. According to Longino (1990) this migration pattern still continues today. Higher income, coupled with greater access to entertainment and travel, has positioned retirement in a much more favourable light. This is quite different from Eleanor Roosevelt’s initial vision of older people resting in their homes. Costa (1998) points out that today’s retirees have become “the true leisured class”, and many can anticipate spending up to a third of their lives in a retirement engaged in leisure pursuits (Lee, 1996).

1.6. Will the retirement lifestyle still be a viable option in the coming decades?

The last half-century has seen the growth of the economies in the developed world and consistent improvements to our standard of living (Shieber, 2012). Much of this can be attributed to the labour force participation of the baby boomers and the influx of women into the workforce. The steady supply of labour meant that employers could afford to retire aging workers, as there was a surplus of labour in the market. The baby boom, however, was followed by a baby-bust, and the lower fertility rates that characterize this generation, will amount to more workers leaving the workforce than entering it in the coming years. This may stunt the growth of our economies and negatively influence our standard of living. The Nobel Prize winner in Economics, Paul Samuelson, argued long ago that pay as you go retirement plan financing could work as long as the workforce grows sufficiently (Schieber, 2012). The tax revenue required to finance prolonged retirements for the ever-expanding pool of retirees is not sustainable by our current systems (Costa, 1998). Workers will be required to produce more, yet will receive less. Nyce and Schieber (2005) caution that societies will have to concede to a lower standard of living if they do not find ways to attract foreign workers, or retain older employees past the age of 65. The latter strategy would mean having to convince mature workers to delay retirement.

1.7. A Privileged Choice

Since the inception of retirement systems, governments in the developed world have consistently grappled with the complexities of such programs. Many changes have been proposed, such as raising the retirement age, shifting from defined benefit to defined contribution plans, increasing payroll taxes, decreasing benefits and having individuals shoulder the responsibility of saving for their own retirement. However, because of the sheer number of baby boomers and their political influence, it has been difficult to alter the workings of the system. Although social reform has been on the political agenda with each new election, voter clout often steers the boat. Cutting benefits or raising taxes is never a popular political tactic to win votes. Economic necessity will force governments in the developed world to reform our systems. However, it is hoped that they will do so before the public purse runs dry (Shieber, 2012).

As the debate regarding fiscal reform to our retirement systems continues, it is easy to forget how privileged many of us are to have the choice of working beyond 65 or opting for retirement. Sixty years ago life expectancy was shorter and jobs were more physically demanding. Employees worked longer hours and suffered from much higher rates of chronic diseases (Costa, 1998), yet, they worked well into their sixties and even seventies, and others laboured until they died. Although the system has its flaws, we are fortunate to have the opportunity to decide how it is that we want to live out our elder years. Today, the majority of

Canadians anticipate retiring by age 64 and do not worry about covering basic living expenses (Sunlife Financial, 2015). We forget too easily that this is truly one of the most remarkable feats of the twentieth century. Old Age Security and the Canadian/Quebec Pension Plans have eased the plight of Canadian seniors. Amongst the OECD Canada has earned a letter grade of "A" in the fight against senior poverty (Conference Board of Canada, 2013). In fact, we are hailed as a world leader in our efforts to decrease poverty amongst the elderly population (Press, 2013). It is in this spirit that the current dissertation was undertaken. I address the notion that businesses can pioneer, as they did with private pension plans centuries ago, a new movement to keep workers on the job past the age of 65. If we draw upon the talent, experience and knowledge of our mature workers, we can maintain current levels of workforce productivity and sustain economic growth. I therefore set out to explore what it would take to entice older employees to remain in the workforce past 65, groom the next generation of workers and pass on their knowledge.

1.8. The Paradox of Retirement

When retirement is considered from a historical perspective it is staggering to contemplate the sheer amount of unstructured time that retirees now have at their disposal. In previous centuries most people in the Western world had to work until the end of their days. Not too long ago, work was extolled as a virtue and to be without employment was tantamount to living a life of sin. One had a moral responsibility to be self-sufficient or to contribute to the self-sufficiency of others (Plakans, 1994). According to Haber (1983), the prevailing view in the western world at the time was that work was a way for all, even the old, to serve god and community. Leisure was not. Thus, one's days in the twentieth-century can best be characterized as spent in structured work tasks (Plakans, 1994), preparing for work, conducting work or resting from a hard day's labour.

The transition from a life that was primarily structured by work, to a society that has access to an abundance of unstructured time in the latter phase of life known as retirement, has piqued the interests of historians. In the post-World War II era, the Western world has adopted a new perspective on leisure, and perceives it as an entitlement and a right in the latter phase of life. We have exchanged our righteously indignant attitudes about the nobility of work, for a retirement characterized by leisurely pursuits and a plethora of unstructured time. The social historian, Andrejs Plakan, refers to this process as "the democratization of subsidized unstructured time” (pp. 121). Plakan uses the term *democratization* to describe the accessibility of retirement to an ever-increasing number of people. She draws upon Foner and Schwab’s (1983) work to describe this transition and its consequences. Specifically, Foner and Schwab observe:

> Since the 1950’s, attitudes toward retirement have changed dramatically as workers have increasingly come to define retirement as a right earned after a lifetime of employment…Thus leisure [has become] as important as, and perhaps more important than, money, at least beyond the subsistence level. (As cited in Plakan, pp. 80-82)

Costa’s (1998) results lend further support to this finding.

This attitude towards retirement may be culturally entrenched, however, there is a mounting body of evidence indicating that although one may be freed from the obligations of work and the expectations of others, one is not exempt from the responsibility of managing oneself, and more specifically managing oneself within time. For many people this is experienced as a burden, as retirement is the first time in which one must create a structured life out of an unstructured environment. In the twenty-first century world of work, life is often characterized by an imbalance of too many work related tasks that leave little, if any time, to pursue other activities. Thus, retirement is eagerly anticipated by many so that one can be freed from such obligations and left to pursue other interests. However, the paradox for some is that too few demands and no responsibilities leads to the very same feeling of being out of balance, only now life is characterized by too few demands as opposed to too many obligations (Riley & Riley, 1994; Jonsson 2011). Ekerdt (2010) captures this ambivalent experience in the following quote:

> Whereas time is the great boon of not working, a day without urgency can be a gain but it can likewise be felt as a loss; one may leave the stress of work behind but with it the opportunity for achievement… Retirement, in this telling, is not one thing, but rather a mixed experience. Those living it are continually working out in their minds who they are now and to whom they matter (p.77-78).

Scholars maintain that work related challenges and occasions to cultivate and demonstrate one’s competencies, may be harder to find in retirement than they are while working. According to Jonsson and colleagues (2000), there is a group of retirees that enjoy the freedom that retirement affords, yet simultaneously desire some form of structured activity, be it paid employment or volunteer work, whereby they feel they are productive members of society. Researchers speculate that a lack of opportunity to engage in challenging tasks, or what Csikszentmihalyi (1997) refers to as “flow experiences”, can result in an imbalanced life that overemphasizes leisure pursuits and passive activities, leading to a decline in emotional well-being.

Jonsson and colleagues’ (2000) longitudinal study investigating the transition from work to retirement among Swedish employees revealed that retirees adopt a slower time structure. While some embrace a slower pace of life, others equate it with a void that they don’t know how to fill. Still others liken the experience to an “amputation” (Jonsson, 2005, p.171), whereby the lack of work is tantamount to losing a limb. In her observations of retirement in France, Guillemard (1982) compared retirement adjustment to a *social death* (p. 230). According to Calo (2005), the relationship between the meaning of life and work is so intimately tied to one another that the loss of employment, be it voluntary or involuntary, can be *traumatic* for midlife employees. Of course, not all reactions to retirement are as extreme. However, Weiss’s study (2005) of American retirees and Oliver’s (2008) investigation of retired Britons suggest that, at least for some people, retirement can be an ambivalent experience filled with a great many contradictions.

Previous research findings and current evidence indicate that a third of the workforce wishes to remain employed beyond the age of 65 if they have the opportunity to do so. More specifically, they wish to draw upon their skills and experience, remain socially connected and stay cognitively engaged in work related tasks (Sunlife Financial, 2015; AARP 2002). It is important to note that most retirees do not want to return to their pre-retirement work schedules, however, they want to routinely engage in some form of purposeful and productive activities, whereby they are contributing members of society. According to Plakan (1994), placing retirement in a historical perspective is of paramount importance because it traces people’s preference to stay connected to the workforce in some way. In light of the significance and time accorded to work in the twentieth-century, the aforementioned findings should not come as a surprise.

1.9. The Generativity Factor

Current global trends indicate that a significant number of retired workers return to the workforce after they initially retire. Thus, retirement from paid employment is no longer seen as a single event in which an individual completely ceases to work but is generally regarded as a process that occurs over time (Shultz & Wang, 2011). This process is referred to in the literature as bridge employment and is defined as any paid work after one retires or begins receiving pension benefits (Feldman, 1994; Rhum, 1990). Specifically, bridge employment includes second careers, part-time work, and entrepreneurial endeavors. Recent findings indicate that bridge employment is beneficial for those who value work and want to continue engaging in work related tasks (Dingemans & Henkens, 2013; Wang, 2007). In particular, bridge employment serves as an arena in which workers can meet their desired goals for meaningful work, social interaction, and cognitive challenges (Sunlife Financial, 2015; AARP, 2002). Having a purposeful pastime also serves to help retirees structure their time, sustain their life satisfaction (Dingemens & Henkens) and increase self-esteem (Lim & Feldman, 2009; Ulrich, 2003).

In addition to the intrinsic rewards that bridge employment affords aging workers, it also provides an arena in which people have the opportunity to express generative action. *Generativity* was originally put forth by Erikson (1950) and defined as “the concern in establishing and guiding the next generation” (1963, p. 267). The concept of generativity was later refined and elaborated by McAdams and St. Aubin (1992) as a construct that links a person with the social world. These researchers maintain that generativity is elicited by cultural demands in the form of normative expectations regarding one’s contribution to society. It is also fuelled by an “inner desire to be needed” (Stewart, Franz & Layton, 1988, p.56) and to leave a legacy to future generations. McAdams and St. Aubin explain that there are many cultural factors that elicit generative action. Much of the domain, however, has remained unexplored by psychological research. To our knowledge, very little scholarly work has formally investigated generativity at work in the management field among older employees.

The findings that are starting to emerge from other academic disciplines (i.e., Psychology, Sociology, Economics) and the practitioner literatures (Sunlife Financial 2015; McKinsey Global Institute 2008) indicate that many retirees engage in bridge employment because of a desire to serve the next generation of workers. Specifically, they want to transfer their skills, abilities, and knowledge to their younger counterparts (Dendinger, Adams & Jacobson, 2005). One of the main findings of von Bonsdorff and colleagues’ (2009) research was that employees who wanted to make use of their skills and abilities intended to pursue bridge employment as opposed to full-time retirement. These results are consistent with a study conducted by the American Association of Retired People, *AARP*, (2002) indicating that 22% of employees are motivated to return to work in order to make a contribution to society. The finding that workers may wish to return to the workforce in order to exercise their generative motives bodes well for organizations; it is an opportunity for knowledge transfer, whereby older workers share their knowledge and organizational experience with younger colleagues.

This research has certainly added to our understanding of what retirees want, however, what remains unclear are the motivations of older workers who want to remain in the workforce past the age of 65 working for the same employer. This group of mature workers is of particular interest because they have accumulated knowledge and experience in their respective organizations. In other words, they have context specific knowledge that would prove especially valuable to their younger counterparts. The notions of generativity and knowledge sharing will be central to this area of research. A primary assumption is that the presence of mature employees in the workplace creates an invaluable opportunity for older workers to pass on their knowledge and experience to younger colleagues, and ensure that their younger counterparts are prepared to assume new roles and responsibilities once their older colleagues make their exit.

1.10. Aging Workers and Knowledge Sharing

If a very high number of workers retire simultaneously, firms will lose a significant amount of "know how" and firm-specific knowledge (Nonaka, Kohlbacher, & Holden, 2006). The consequences include decreased productivity, performance disruptions, project delays and customer service issues (Delong & Mann, 2003). Costs may at first appear insignificant. However, as key people retire such losses will reverberate throughout organizations and are estimated to be upwards of $50,000 to $1 million dollars per employee, depending upon one's years of service, expertise, and business relationships. And these expenditures do not include the costs of recruiting, hiring and training new workers. As one top executive in Leonard, Swap and Barton's study (2014) explained, such losses are "incalculable" and in some cases "priceless" (p.7).

Organizational knowledge drives innovation, competitive advantage and long-term success (Naphiat & Goshal, 1998). If we conceive of knowledge as existing on a continuum then at one end of the spectrum lies *explicit knowledge*, and at the opposite extreme resides *tacit* *knowledge* (Leonard & Sensiper, 1998). Explicit knowledge lends itself to codification, is easier to communicate, and can be transferred between individuals and organizational settings (Lam, 2000). It comprises electronic files, presentations, proposals, reports and manuals and is accessible to all, not just the creator of the knowledge. While it is certainly helpful to have, Leonard and colleagues (2014) describe explicit knowledge as "footprints, rather than paths to knowledge" (p.12). A new user of such knowledge would have no way of knowing what knowledge is critical, how it was originally used, and its relation to the knower's experience. In other words, it would be difficult for any successor to generate significant meaning from the explicit knowledge contained in documents and reports (Leonard et al., 2014).

On the other hand, it is an organization's tacit knowledge that drives much of its competitive capabilities (Delong 2004; Leonard & Sensiper, 1998). Leonard and Sensiper define tacit knowledge as "information that is relevant, actionable and based at least partially on experience" (p.113). It can be thought of as a gut like reaction, commonly referred to as instinct, or described as intuition or insight. This knowing is hard, if not impossible, to thoroughly express as it resides in one's semiconscious or unconscious cognitive skills and evolves through experience (Leonard & Sensiper). For an example of tacit knowledge, consider the case of the British plane spotter whose sole job during World War II was to differentiate British planes returning home, from German planes preparing to drop explosive bombs. This task was partly discerned by the sounds of the plane's engine. The spotters, however, could not articulate how they made a firm assessment about the distinction between the aircrafts. They just knew how to carry out the task. The British soon learned that the only way to train prospective spotters was by having experts provide trial and error feedback to the trainees until they became skilled in this mysterious undertaking (Eagleman, 2011).

Tacit knowledge transfer presents greater challenges than explicit knowledge transfer. According to Polanyi (1966) "we can know more than we can tell" (p.4). Thus, we are not always aware of how we perform certain tasks, which hinders our ability to articulate the mechanics of our efforts to others. The British plane spotters were aware of their behavior; they just couldn't explain it. There are other instances, however, in which tacit knowledge remains hidden from the knower because it is buried deep within the unconscious mind. In describing how he performs his craft of conducting an orchestra, the Italian Maestro Carlo Maria Giulini explains, "conducting is a very mysterious art; I have no idea what I do up there." Attentive and discriminating observers may be able to identify that Giulini uses his fingers to express himself differently than other conductors, or that the glare of his stare communicates specific commands (Seaman, 2013). However, his practice may remain a mystery to all but other experts (Leonard, Swap & Barton, 2014).

The above examples illuminate the inherent complexities of communicating tacit knowledge. The transmission of such knowledge requires the demonstration of the teacher (Ipe, 2003), the deliberate practice of the student, and feedback from the expert (Leonard, Swap & Burton, 2014). Much of the learning occurs informally and the teaching happens unconsciously (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Swap, Leonard, and Shields (2001) maintain that "even the most gifted must practice, practice, practice under the direction of a more experienced and knowledgeable teacher" (p. 97), in order to develop organization-specific expertise and insight. This process requires time, patience and must be systematic.

Many organizations, however, suffer from myopic vision with regards to the imminent retirements of the baby boomers. The loss of tacit knowledge, social capital networks, skills, experience, and corporate history, is overshadowed by the costs of implementing apprenticeship programs and integrating on-the-job learning methods (Leonard & Swap, 2004). While both scholars and practitioners have long since communicated their concerns about the economic, financial, and social repercussions of the aging population, organizations have been slow to adopt workplace policies that reflect the changing demographic landscape.

I posit that there is still time to stem the tide of lost knowledge if we act now. Organizations can harness the knowledge of generative adults who value work and want to groom the next generation of leaders by positioning them as mentors and knowledge facilitators. They can create apprenticeship programs whereby mature workers transfer their knowledge to their younger counterparts. Time, however, is of the essence. Experienced teachers are anticipated to exit the workforce in record numbers in the coming years and we must act now to prevent corporate amnesia.

1.11. Current Studies

In light of the above findings I set out to study mature workers' views of the retirement transition, as well as their generativity at work. Although mature workers may have accumulated extensive experience and are in a position to teach others, it does not necessarily mean that they *want* to mentor younger colleagues at work. As such, I conducted three studies to explore what motivates older workers to share their knowledge with their younger colleagues. I employed a mixed methods design so as to gain a more comprehensive understanding of these issues as they are only now beginning to be explored in the academic literature. The details of the three studies follow:

Study 1

I started out by employing a qualitative interview study designed to explore how older workers felt about sharing their knowledge with their younger counterparts. I interviewed 16 people at various stages of the retirement transition in order to assess whether or not they wanted to remain in the workforce past the traditional age of retirement and groom the next generation of workers. The sample was composed of people at various stages of the retirement transition: Mature workers, employees engaged in bridge employment, and a group of retirees.

Studies 2A and 2B

Findings from Study 1 served as a first step in developing a survey measure to capture the late career motivation of mature workers. Data analysis revealed eight common themes amongst participants, which guided my decisions about the development of a survey measure. In Study 2A, 49 statements were drawn from the interview data and used in an item-sort task to reduce item ambiguity and increase construct validity. I then conducted an exploratory factor analysis using a new sample of 182 older employees. Data analysis revealed a four-factor measure composed of 16 items. In study 2B I validated the newly created measure, *the Late Career Motivation Scale,* by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis and validation analyses using a different sample of 147 mature workers. Results revealed a four-factor model that comprised 13 items.

Study 3

The objective of Study 3 was to examine the antecedents of the newly created Late Career Motivation Scale. I developed predictions that included two organizational constructs: perceived organizational support and support from colleagues, and three individual motives: affiliation, achievement and power. Additionally, I explored the relations among the antecedent variables and the outcome variables, knowledge sharing behaviours and the likelihood of continued work.

CHAPTER 2: EXPLORATORY QUALITATIVE STUDY

In the past few years the greying of the workforce has become a topic of much interest to scholars and practitioners alike (AARP 2008; Adams & Rau, 2004; Davis, 2003; Dendinger, Adams, & Jacobson, 2005; Rau & Adams, 2005; Sunlife, 2015). The anticipated skills shortages combined with boomer retirements require that organizations rethink their hiring practices and pursue talent in non-traditional markets to remain competitive (Doverspike, Taylor, Shultz, and McKay, 2000). As such, researchers have begun to examine the career motivations of older job seekers (Mor-Barak, 1995; Rau & Adams, 2005) and retirees who want to return to work in some capacity (Adams and Rau, 2004; Dendinger, Adams, & Jacobson, 2005). This stream of research has shed light on what older workers want and need from potential employers, which is most beneficial for organizations seeking to attract mature candidates (Rau & Adams, 2005; Loi & Shulz, 2007).

While these studies are of great importance, they do not reflect the motivations of older workers who want to continue working past the traditional age of retirement. Evidence indicates that older people seek employment for various reasons (AARP, 2008; Loi & Shulz, 2007; Mor-Barak). Adams and Rau (2004) maintain that retirees are most likely looking for simpler jobs than those they held prior to retirement for purposes of additional income, social engagement, new interests and the opportunity to feel productive. Moreover, they seek positions that enable them to pursue leisure interests and that do not make substantial demands of their time or energy. Alternatively, older workers may want to continue working past the age of 65 to maintain their status, advance their careers (Adams & Rau, 2004) or transfer their knowledge to their younger counterparts prior to retirement.

This latter group of employees is of special interest. Scholars (Cappelli & Novelli, 2010) and practitioners (AARP, 2008) alike maintain that there is a very strong business case to be made for keeping mature workers on the job past the age of 65. Cappelli and Novelli point out that much of the argument in support of retaining older workers is no different than the reasons for retaining valuable employees in general. Turnover results in substantial financial costs associated with hiring, training, and socializing new staff so that they work at the same level of proficiency as their predecessors. However, in addition to such costs, retiring employees take with them knowledge, expertise and years of experience on the job that cannot be replaced by novice workers. Delong (2004) cautions that the issue is not one of headcount. Focusing on staffing shortages as opposed to implementing knowledge transfer strategies whereby veteran workers share their knowledge with their younger counterparts, places businesses at risk of losing their competitive advantage.

2.1. Tacit Knowledge Transfer: A Firm's Competitive Advantage

There is consensus among organizational scholars that a firm's competitive advantage is derived from its ability to create, retain and transfer knowledge. Empirical findings indicate that the successful transfer of knowledge between organizational units, be it individuals or teams, leads to greater productivity and likelihood of survival in comparison to organizations that are not as proficient at such a task (Argote, Beckman & Epple, 1995; Baum & Ingram, 1998). More specifically, it is a firm's stock of tacit knowledge, as opposed to explicit knowledge, that affords it such an advantage (Argote & Ingram, 2000). *Tacit knowledge* is accrued over time, embedded in experience and tied to a specific social context. It is the technician who intuitively recognizes that a product's failure is the result of how it was assembled, the executive who has a gut feeling about when to enter a foreign market, or the leader who intuitively knows what to say in order to motivate her discouraged team (Leonard & Swap, 2004). Alternatively, *explicit knowledge*, such as the operating manual of a car that specifies how to use the various components of the vehicle (Alavi & Leidner, 2001), is easier to communicate, lends itself to codification and transfer across individuals and organizational settings (Lam, 2000). As Maskell and Malmberg (1999) explain, explicit knowledge is readily available for all to access, rendering tacit knowledge a firm's greatest asset in the development of new and improved products and services.

To truly appreciate the importance of tacit knowledge, it is helpful to put into context what it means to have accumulated knowledge and experience over the span of a career. Let us consider the example of a person needing to undergo cardiac surgery. Clearly, one would be more assured of a positive outcome if the surgeon's experience included rare or atypical cases, should an abnormality come to light once on the operating table. Likewise, a person needing legal counsel would place greater confidence in a lawyer who has represented hundreds of similar cases and has a successful track record (Cappelli & Novelli, 2010; Leonard & Swap, 2004).

The story of Captain Sully Sullenberger is another case in point. On January 15, 2009, Captain Sullenberger of US airways flight 1549, made an emergency landing in the Hudson

River after a flock of Canada geese struck the aircraft and caused the plane's engines to fail. Sullenberger had less than five minutes to figure out where he was going to land the plane and how he was going to save all 155 passengers on board. Reflecting on his experience that day, the man hailed as a hero explains:

> At twenty-four, I was a fighter pilot, learning that I had to pay close attention to everything, because life and death could be separated by seconds and by feet. By fifty-seven, I was a gray haired man with my hands on the controls of an Airbus A320 over Manhattan, using a lifetime of knowledge to find a way to safety ….I've come to realize that my Journey to the Hudson River didn't begin at LaGuardia Airport. It began decades before, in my childhood home, on Mr.Cook's glass airfield, in the skies over north Texas, in the California home I now share with my wife Lorrie, and our two daughters, and on all the jets I have flown towards the Horizon. Flight 1549 wasn't just a five-minute journey. My entire life led me safely to that river (2009, p. 20).

The knowledge that resides in Captain Sully's head is impossible to codify in documents, presentations or reports. His swift response to the emergency situation was a result of his experience in the military, his long career as an aviation pilot and his dedication and consistent commitment to airline safety. His actions on that fateful day are reflective of a collection of experiences that he was able to comb quickly through to determine if his current predicament resembled any previously experienced pattern, and if so, to respond in kind. His expertise enabled him to pick and choose bits and pieces of diverse information in order to assemble a complete picture of the situation and determine an appropriate response. All of this occurred at a rapid pace and without much conscious effort (Leonard & Swap, 2004). Accordingly, Sullenberger (2009) explains:

> I have 19, 700 flight hours now. Back when I had say 2000 or 4000 hours of experience I knew a lot of things, but I did not yet possess the depth of understanding I have now. Since then, I have sharpened my skills and learned from many situations that tested and taught me. Regional airlines will now take someone with 200 hours of flying experience and make him or her a first officer. These new pilots may have exceptional training, and they may have a high degree of ability. But it takes time, hour after hour, to master the science and art of flying a commercial jet (p. 43).

Had a less experienced pilot replaced Captain Sully that day would the outcome have been the same? It is the experience of the expert doctor, surgeon or carpenter that has us placing our faith in the hands of these professionals. As such, experience is paramount to the development of expertise.

Leonard, Swap & Barton (2014) argue that the only way to attain tacit knowledge is through practice, practice and more practice. However, the process also requires that the pupil observe an experienced teacher. Because we are not always aware of how we perform certain functions or work related tasks, our ability to articulate the mechanics of our efforts to an apprentice can easily be obstructed. Thus, that which we cannot verbally convey we must demonstrate (Ipe, 2003; Leonard & Swap, 2004) so as to afford the student the opportunity to question why the teacher favours a particular method or conveys information in a particular sequence. The protégé's question elicits the mentor's knowledge, knowledge he may not even know he had until it is called forth as a result of being asked. The question then leads to a discussion between the mentor and protégé and fosters reflection and active learning (Leonard & Swap, 2004).

Tacit knowledge transfer also requires that the student emulate the teacher in order to receive timely performance feedback and permit the adjustment and development of his/her skills. This process requires time and the engagement of both mentor and protégé. As such, tacit knowledge cannot be cultivated overnight. It also cannot be imported from elsewhere, as it is context specific and developed over time with experience. As Leonard and Swap (2004) explain, "your best employees' deepest knowledge can't be transferred onto a series of power point slides or downloaded into a data repository. It has to be passed on in person - slowly, patiently, and systematically" (p. 88). These researchers argue that even the smartest of employees cannot learn from documents or project reports because the tacit knowledge and insight that one needs to make sense of the information is divorced from the original context. To illustrate the importance of context, McDermott (1999) draws upon an example of a group of systems designers who decided to share their knowledge by placing their documentation in a common knowledge repository only to realize that what they needed to make sense of the information was to understand the rationale behind the choice of software, hardware and service plan of their fellow colleagues.

2.2. The Ties that Bind

Of course knowledge sharing behviours are influenced by the relation between the knowledge source and the knowledge recipient (Ipe, 2003). Truran's (1998) research indicates that up to 70% of a company's tacit knowledge is exchanged informally, face to face via verbal communication. McDermott and O'Dell's (2001) results corroborate Truran's findings and reveal that knowledge sharing occurs predominantly via informal channels between people who know and trust one another. The opportunity for informal interaction over time leads to the development of trust, a characteristic that is pivotal to the knowledge sharing process (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). When relationships are characterized by high levels of trust, people are more willing to share what they know and cooperate with one another.

Strong social ties also influence the type of knowledge that is being transferred. Hansen's (1999) study of product development revealed that tacit knowledge is more easily transferred between people who share strong ties because such relationships allow for frequent interaction and thereby nurture knowledge acquisition.

Lastly, tacit knowledge transfer occurs more readily among people who share similarities. Argote and Ingram (2000) argue that organizational members undergo similar organizational processes such as selection, socialization and training experiences, which should make them more similar to one another than to their counterparts in other organizations. These individuals also share common values, language, and organizational norms, which influence the ease of communication and should facilitate the tacit knowledge transfer process (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

2.3. The Case for Retaining Older Workers: Mentorship and Motivation

The previous argument draws upon the knowledge sharing literature to illuminate the complexity of tacit knowledge transfer, and the circumstances whereby transfer is most likely to occur. In brief, the research findings indicate that tacit knowledge is most easily transferred between similar individuals (Argote & Ingram, 2000) who have developed trusting relationships over time (Granovetter, 1992), share the same social context (Ipe, 2003; Naphiat & Goshal, 1998) and communicate face to face via informal communication channels (McDermott & O'Dell, 2001; Truran, 1998). As such, I posit that older workers, who have amassed critical knowledge and know-how over the span of their careers, serve as mentors to their younger counterparts so that they can transfer their expertise and develop the competencies of their protégées in a timely and efficient manner. I also maintain that because of their tenure, older workers are more likely to have developed strong trusting ties to others in their organizations. A concept referred to in the literature as *relational embeddedness*, originated with Granovetter (1985) and has since been refined by Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) to mean, “personal relationships people have developed with each other through a history of interactions” (p. 244). Such bonds are characterized by interpersonal trust and trustworthiness, similar identities and feelings of closeness. Accordingly, O’Dell and Greyson’s (1998) findings indicate that tacit knowledge transfer requires the establishment of pre-existing relationships. These researchers argue that people assimilate information from others they know, respect and like. Thus, if employees do not share a personal relationship with one another, they are less likely to integrate the experience and practice of others.

This latter finding is of paramount importance to aging workers. According to Carstensen’s (1991) socio-emotional selectivity theory, which will be presented later in greater detail, when people are cognizant of impending endings, such as in the case of retirement, they place greater emphasis on emotional intimacy and prefer to spend time with familiar others. I, therefore, presume that mature adults would indicate a preference to share their knowledge with their younger colleagues as opposed to mentoring newly hired workers whom they do not know.

Additionally, we consider that older workers have different motivations for working than do their younger counterparts. Evidence indicates that older workers’ motivation changes over the life course. As they enter the third age, their attention tends to shift from extrinsic motivators, such as money, to intrinsic motivators such as being of service to others (Kooij, de Lange, Jansen, Kanfer, & Dikkers, 2011). This natural shift in focus, from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, is particularly relevant for older workers who wish to share their knowledge, as the opportunity to develop others bolsters intrinsic feelings of competence and permits the recognition of expertise (Wenger & Snyder, 2003). Thus, I maintain that older workers would likely embrace their new role as mentor and enthusiastically accept the task of grooming their younger colleagues.

However, although I assume that older workers have a generative desire to mentor their younger colleagues, I suspect that their motivation will gradually change as they transition from full-time work to retirement. We argue that mature workers will be more willing and committed to the process of transferring their tacit knowledge while they still identify with their work roles and are vested in their jobs. According to McDermott (1999), "knowledge needs to have an owner who cares" (p. 112). The author explains that knowledge sharing occurs naturally between individuals who are passionate and intrinsically interested in topics they care about deeply. There is reason to speculate, however, that both passion and intrinsic motivation for work related issues start to erode once employees retire, and will therefore differ for older workers, and retirees seeking bridge employment. Adams and Rau (2004) maintain that the longer the period of retirement, the greater the psychological distance between retirees and their previous work role identities. Furthermore, evidence indicates that retirees seeking bridge employment are motivated by additional income, social and cognitive stimulation and the desire to keep busy. They also seek employment opportunities that suit their lifestyle and afford them time to pursue other interests (AARP, 2006; Adams & Rau, 2004). As such, they may not be as dedicated to their younger colleagues' professional development as they were while working.

Further evidence of older workers' motivation changing in association with the retirement transition comes from a study conducted by Rau and Adams (2005) investigating the influence of organizational policies on applicant attraction to engage in bridge employment. Findings revealed that mock advertisements indicating that an organization was an equal opportunity employer seeking to attract older workers, or that the firm offered flexible work arrangements, had a positive effect on retiree attraction to apply. However, little influence was found when policy statements indicated that applicants had the opportunity to transfer their knowledge and mentor younger employees. The authors speculate that this may be the case because retirees worried that the time required to mentor younger workers would infringe on the time they wanted to devote to interests outside of work.

The objective of this study was, therefore, to extend the current research on late career motivation. I wanted to explore mature workers' desire for continued work after 65 and how they felt about transferring their knowledge to the next generation.

2.4. Theoretical Roots

Our ideas about the relationship between older workers' careers and knowledge sharing were influenced by McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) theory of generativity, and Carstensen's socio-emotional selectivity theory (1991). Firstly, I wanted to explore whether or not older adults want to express their generative desires at work in the form of transferring their knowledge and experience to their younger colleagues. Thus, the theory of generativity (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) was paramount to this investigation. Secondly, central to Carstensen's socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1991) is the perception of time as either limited or expansive, which has implications for the social goals that we choose to pursue and the people with whom we choose to spend time. It was therefore a natural fit for examining the retirement transition and people's goals for this next chapter of their lives.

2.4.1. Generativity Theory

Generativity is believed to manifest later in life as people start contemplating their contribution to family, community or the greater society. It is expressed as a desire to serve as guides and teachers to the next generation (Erikson, 1963). The concept has gained traction (Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer, & Dikkers., 2011; Lang & Carstensen, 2002) in the last few years as researchers seek to understand how people express generative motives in general and at work in particular (Krumm, Grube & Hertel, 2013).

McAdams, Hart, and Maruna (1998) maintain that generativity is inspired by both inner desire and cultural demand. Accordingly, one's inner desire can stem from two different motivational sources referred to in the literature as *agency* and *communion* (Baken, 1966; McAdams 1988). *Agency* manifests as a desire to leave a legacy that will outlive oneself. It can be conceived of as a way of achieving "symbolic immortality" (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992, p. 1002). *Communion* is a desire to nurture, teach and mentor the next generation and be of use to others. This inner desire, be it in the form of agency or communion, is evoked by a cultural expectation that middle-aged adults care and develop the next generation. Cultural demand is so ingrained in the fabric of the social system that those who have not sought responsibility for the next generation by the time they are in their 40's are perceived as deviating from developmental and age-graded social norms (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992).

In addition, cultural demand delineates the constraints and opportunities of the expression of generative action. For example, McAdams and colleagues explain (1998) that for middle-class American women of the 1950's, generative action was limited to the realm of the household and raising children. By the 1970's, however, cultural demand also inspired women to express their generative desires in the workforce.

The inner desire to be generative combined with cultural demand inspires a concern for the next generation and results in individual goals and actions. Beliefs about the inherent goodness of humanity and its progress contribute to one's commitment towards generative action and manifests in three possible ways (McAdams, de St. Aubin, & Logan, 1993). First, generative acts encompass creating or generating things or giving birth to children. In contrast to altruism or prosocial behavior, generativity involves creating something, a product or person, in one's image. The second category involves cultivating, preserving, and maintaining that which one judges to be worthy. Such actions include maintaining traditions and practicing rituals that bond generations one to another. Lastly, generative acts involve relinquishing that which one has created, nurtured, or maintained, in the interest of the person or thing and their respective recipients. To illustrate how generative acts manifest, let us consider McAdams' (1985) example of the generative father. According to the scholar, the truly generative father creates his son in his own image by passing on his biology and moulding him socially. He nurtures, protects and develops all that is good within his child until he lets him go to develop his own identity and pursue his independence so that he too can one day be generative.

Finally, one makes sense of one's generative actions by constructing what McAdams (1985) refers to as a generativity script. The generativity script serves as one's personal life story and is devised to bring order and meaning to one's generative efforts. Its defining feature lies in a well-crafted and meaningful ending, characterized by the creations and contributions that one wants to survive the self. In a sense it is one's legacy. In Erikson's (1968) words, the culmination of one's narrative is the recognition that "I am what survives me" (p. 141). Of course, it should be noted that generativity is not equally pertinent to all life stories, and there is variation among individuals in their desire for generative action (McAdams, Hart and Maruna, 1998).

2.4.2. Socio-emotional Selectivity Theory

Empirical findings lend support to the notion that generativity is often elicited when one becomes increasingly cognizant of endings (Lang & Carstensen, 2002). In the second half of life, the clock starts to tick a little bit louder and a lot faster. Our time on earth is conceived of days remaining until death, as opposed to counting the number of years since birth. The recognition that life is finite elicits a greater focus on emotional meaning and relationships that positively contribute to emotional and social well-being (Carstensen, Isaacowitz, & Charles, 1999). Carstensen's socio-emotional selectivity theory (1991) postulates that the cognitive appraisal of time, be it definite or indefinite, influences the pursuit of long versus short-term goals. When people perceive time as expansive, their aspirations encompass goals associated with *knowledge acquisition* or connections that may be of future benefit. For example, the newly hired assistant professor devotes much time and energy to socializing with departmental faculty with the intention of making new friends and creating a supportive professional environment where he/she can thrive. To do so requires acquiring information about the norms and values of the department, which is largely accomplished through social interaction. Alternatively, when time is conceived as limited, goals that nurture positive emotional well-being are prioritized and people with whom one chooses to spend time are carefully selected, with a preference for familiar bonds. Carstensen and colleagues (1999) argue that conceiving of time as limited shifts one's time perspective and focus to the present. The objective is to sustain and nurture positive emotional states, meaningful experiences, and emotional satisfaction (Carstensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999). In this context, a tenured professor considering retirement would prefer to nurture intimate relationships that are positive, predictable and characterized as high quality, as opposed to establishing relationships with unfamiliar others, such as newly hired faculty. Likewise, older employees would indicate a preference to mentor younger colleagues whom they like, know and trust (McDermott & O'Dell, 2001), as opposed to new hires.

Thus, one of the central tenets of socio-emotional selectivity theory is the notion that emotionally meaningful goals and positive relationships become progressively more important as endings draw near. Endings, according to Carstensen and fellow researchers (1999), spark a desire to create positively charged experiences whereby people aspire to leave their respective circumstances on a high. Students approaching graduation, employees nearing retirement, and people (whether young or old) who are facing imminent death, endeavor to make their last experiences positive and emotionally meaningful. The recognition that time is finite elicits a change in motivation that results in a greater emphasis on emotionally positive experiences. Retirement is one such event that marks time. A gold watch, a form from the government about pension benefits, or a warm, yet unsolicited welcome letter from the Canadian/American association of retired people to the 50 plus community, are powerful social benchmarks that remind us of our position in the life cycle. For many, such events provoke reflection about our time on earth and invite thoughts about our contributions to the world, and how we want to be remembered (Carstensen, 1991). We, therefore, assumed that the retirement transition would inspire a desire in older workers to leave a professional legacy by way of transferring their knowledge and experience and mentoring the next generation of workers.

2.5. Current Study and Research Question

Older people's desire to express their generative motives at work has received scant attention and remains a largely unexplored area in organizational behaviour. Although there exists ample evidence indicating the presence of increasing generativity among older adults outside of the work context, (Maehr & Kleiber, 1981; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992; McAdams & Logan 2004), we know little about whether or not generative action translates to the workplace setting. Such knowledge would enable human resource professionals to better prepare for the imminent retirement of the baby boomers and shed light on how to create successful knowledge transfer initiatives.

Most recently, Krumm, Grube and Hertel (2013) developed a survey measure to extend the research on work-related values so as to include four items that broadly reflect the concept of generativity. Their findings indicate that generativity is, in fact, positively related to age. However, one drawback of these studies is the relatively young average age of the participants, being 31.8 and 43.7 respectively. If we are to stem the tide of lost knowledge prior to the boomer exodus, then we need a more detailed understanding of generativity at work in a sample of people 60 and over. The objective of the present study was, therefore, to explore the incidence of generativity among mature workers, bridge employees and retirees. The choice of a qualitative study was important because we need more detailed information as to how to start unpacking the concept of generativity at work, and how it unfolds in late career. As such I was open to emergent themes. I did, however, expect generativity to exist among older workers but that it would change for retirees seeking bridge employment and differ for those who have long since retired and left the workforce. More specifically, I anticipated that mature workers would express the greatest desire to be generative at work, followed by bridge employees and lastly retirees who would manifest their generative desires outside of the work context.

2.6. METHOD

2.6.1. The Gioia qualitative methodology

I chose to adopt the Gioia qualitative methodology (Gioia, Corley, & Hamilton, 2012) which stresses the importance of scholarly rigour in inductive research. Specifically, the analytical framework provides a well-defined process for developing new concepts, introducing new theories and presenting the findings in a manner that provides sufficient evidence for the reader to understand how we, as researchers, surfaced new concepts from the raw data. In particular, the Gioia methodology was designed to advance scientific knowledge and encourage the discovery of new *concepts*. The authors argue that organizational researchers have a tendency of focussing on *construct elaboration* and *construct refinement* to the detriment of discovering new concepts. Such an approach limits the advancement of knowledge and more importantly, it obstructs our ability to truly understand how our participants make sense of their organizational experiences. As such, Gioia and colleagues introduced a new qualitative methodology that captures the lived organizational experiences of informants, while allowing us, as researchers, to theorize about these experiences.

This systematic approach to data analysis requires several different phases. The first phase begins with the development of *first order analysis,* which involves coding qualitative observations into categories that retain the language used by the participants. This phase treats participants as informants who are capable of making sense of their socially-constructed worlds and experiences in organizational life. At this stage of the analysis there is no attempt to limit the number of categories.

As the data analysis evolves, the researcher assumes the role of detective and looks for patterns in the data, emergent themes and relationships between concepts. This phase of the analysis requires that the researcher look for similarities and differences between categories in an effort to reduce the categories to a number that is manageable. It is at this phase that the researcher begins to think at the theoretical level in an attempt to describe and explain the phenomenon under investigation. There is a particular focus on new concepts that have little or no mention in the current literature, or on existing concepts that may have new applications to different domains. These categories are then labeled, preferably with descriptors that adhere to the participant's terms, and referred to as s*econd order themes* (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2012).

The third phase of analysis involves further refining the second order themes into *aggregate dimensions*. The first order categories followed by the second order themes and the aggregate dimensions are then transformed into *a data structure*, a visual representation of the analytical process that charts the evolution from observations to concepts. According to these scholars, the end result of this process should be a carefully balanced portrayal of the informant's lived experience, and the researcher's more objective view of the investigated phenomenon that lends itself to new and fresh insight. The data structure also serves to communicate the interrelationships amongst concepts (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2012)

2.6.2. Research Procedures and Data Sources

I chose to apply the aforementioned methodology to the data analysis because its interpretative focus gives a prominent position to the participants' voices, while simultaneously allowing me to develop an emerging theory about knowledge sharing among older workers.

2.6.3. Sampling

I first employed a stratified purposeful sampling technique (Patton, 2001) in order to ensure that there were participants that represented all three phases of the retirement transition. Thus I sampled mature workers who were working, those who were engaged in bridge employment, and others who were retired in order to foster a comprehensive understanding of what motivates knowledge sharing at various phases of the retirement transition, and what factors influence one's decision to continue working beyond the age of 65, or retire. Once I found representatives from all three categories I employed snowball sampling to further expand the sample.

2.6.4. Participants

The final sample consisted of 16 participants from the private, public and not for profit sectors, who ranged in age from 60 to 72 with a mean age of 65. I first recruited participants by sending an email to family, friends, acquaintances and colleagues, requesting participation in an interview study on knowledge sharing behaviours and retirement. Additional recruits were contacted via snowball sampling. Six of the participants were male and ten were female.

2.6.5. Working participants

There were five participants, two men and three women, currently working. They ranged in age from 60 to 68 with a mean age of 63.2. This category of participants was composed of a director of technology, university lecturer and consultant, administrative assistant, manager of end user computing, and lastly a controller for a not for profit organization. All three women in this category had varied work histories, had occupied different positions in different fields, and tenure with their most current employer ranged from 2 to 10 years, with an average of 6.7 years of service. On the other hand, the two men in this category had long work histories with one employer that spanned 37 and 45 years respectively. Four of the five participants were married or living with a common law partner, and one was divorced. All had children and grandchildren. All three women expressed concern over their future financial situation in retirement and that they would most likely continue to work for money, albeit at a different job or on a reduced work schedule. The two men in the sample stated that they were financially secure and did not worry about their future financial well being in retirement. It is interesting to note that this group of participants was predominantly healthy. One expressed concern over her weight and heart health, and two others explained that at present their retirement plans would be influenced by the health of their spouses. One spouse was experiencing a decline in his health and the other spouse had muscular dystrophy.

2.6.6. Participants engaged in bridge employment

There were four people in our study engaged in bridge employment. This category consisted of three females and one male participant ranging in age from 61 to 72, with a mean age of 65.8. This group encompassed an accountant, project manager, professor and consultant. The latter female participant had lost her full-time job at the age of 57 and subsequently never found full-time employment. As such, she was engaged in a variety of temporary jobs and several consulting contracts. Another one of the female participants was 72 years old and had returned to the workforce after 12 years of retirement. The remaining two people in this category had decreased their respective workloads and continued to work for the same organization. While two of the younger participants were in excellent health, the female project manager and the accountant had, in fact, experienced a decline in their health. The accountant explained that the medication he was taking to manage his health condition influenced his concentration, however, he worked around it and preferred to continue working. The female project manager was in terrible discomfort, suffering from chronic back pain. Work, however, she declared, was the best medicine. Three of our participants noted that they did not need to work for financial reasons. The consultant who had been laid off at the age of 57, however, did in fact need to work for money.

2.6.7. Retired participants

The last category of participants consisted of six people, all retired, three male and three female. This subsample comprised a former fireman, administrative assistant, high school teacher, vocational teacher, chief medical technologist, and technology officer. The participants ranged in age from 61 to 71 years of age, with a mean age of 65.8. Five of the participants had been employed with their previous employers for an average of 29.8 years and tenure ranged from eighteen to thirty-eight years of service. The female high school teacher's last contract had spanned a duration of eight years. Most of the retirees had been retired for three years, with the exception of the administrative assistant who was newly retired. Five of the participants were married, and one was widowed. All, except one, had children. Two of the men in this category had experienced a decline in their health. The female administrator was suffering from only minor health issues, but had had to retire to care for her ailing spouse. The others in the group were predominantly healthy and one gave a self-assessment of exceptional health.

2.6.8. Interview protocol

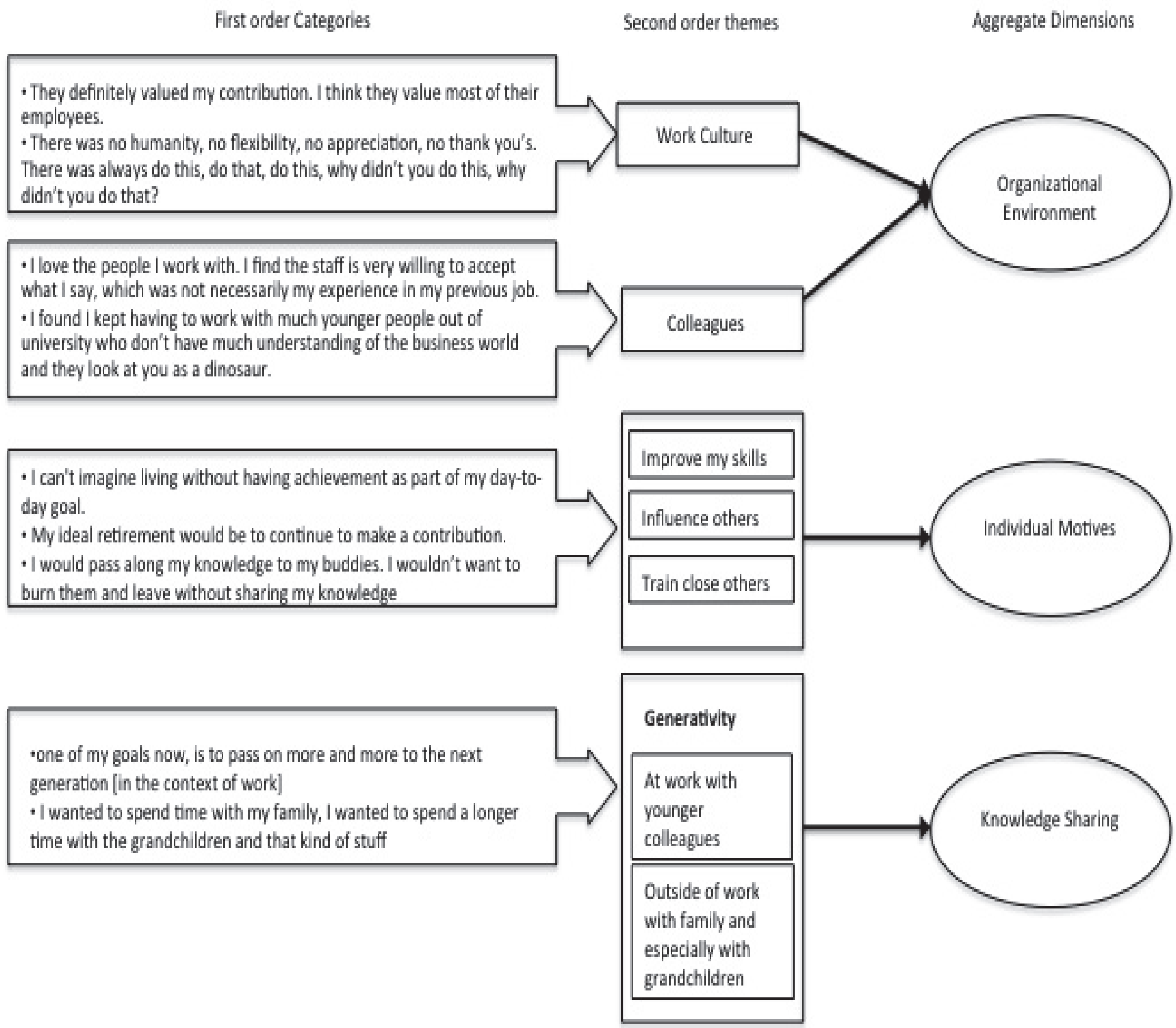
The interview protocol was not designed to confirm existing concepts, rather, I wanted to explore participant's thoughts regarding knowledge sharing behaviours. A semi-structured interview protocol was developed in order to explore how participants felt about sharing their knowledge and experience with their younger counterparts. The interviews focused on several key areas. I asked questions about work itself, the organizations to which the participants belonged, their thoughts about retirement and lastly how they felt about passing on their knowledge. It should be noted that for those who were already retired, I asked them to answer the questions with respect to their last place of employment. The question domains were devised based on a thorough review of the retirement literature and the factors that influence the retirement decision. I kept the questions regarding knowledge sharing broad for purposes of theory development (Gioia, Corley & Hamilton, 2012). Interviews lasted between 30 minutes and two hours. The majority of the interviews were conducted at the participants' place of employment or residence.

2.6.9. Analytic approach

The coding process consisted of the primary researcher and an undergraduate management student. All transcripts were divided into categories according to life phase (working, bridge employment and retirement) so that emergent themes could be easily surfaced. We used the interview protocol to create pre-established codes, while also remaining open to the possibility of emergent themes. For example, we did not create a code for individual motives, however, the need for achievement, surfaced as a theme that contributed to the desire for continued work. When new themes surfaced from the data we reviewed all transcripts to ensure that the data was coded consistently across all participants. Both coders reviewed the transcripts individually and then discussed the findings. On occasions when there was disagreement, we came to a resolution that was satisfactory to us both. All codes were managed using an excel sheet.

As previously mentioned, I employed the Gioia qualitative methodology and created first order categories using the informants' terms. The number of categories was then reduced to second order themes, theoretical concepts that are related to the first order categories and reflect the participants language. Lastly, the second order themes were collected into aggregate dimensions. Please see Figure 1 for the Visual Data Structure.

Figure 1: Data Structure



2.7. FINDINGS

What follows is a detailed analysis of the data. I start with the finding that generativity was prevalent in the entire sample. I then move on to explore how the organizational context can either excite or extinguish an employee's generative desires. From there I examine how generativity changes in association with one's career stage, and conclude by exploring how social goals and relationships change when one perceives time as limited. It should be noted that pseudonyms have been used in order to maintain the confidentiality of all participants.

2.7.1. Communion

According to McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992), one's inner desire to engage in generative action can originate from two motivational sources. One such source is communion, defined by Baken (1966) and McAdams (1988) as the inner desire to teach, mentor and nurture the next generation and be of use to others. The other source is referred to as agency. Agency is the desire to leave a legacy that will endure beyond one's death. The most central finding to emerge from our data was that people, whether they were currently working, engaged in bridge employment or retired, all displayed generativity in the form of communion. Nat, a retired technology officer, eloquently captured the spirit of communion when he stated:

> My thing in life is the old expression that if you give a person fish, you'll have to get them fish every day, but if you teach a person to fish you don't have to give that person fish anymore. And I really believe in that, that my job is to pass on my knowledge in anything that I do. To give you an example, neither of my sons-in-law were handy with home renovations, so we've gone with them and re-done a bathroom, a kitchen, patios. And these are guys who had never taken a saw or hammer in hand, and now they're confident enough to do it. It's not that I don't want to work on a project with them when I'm there, but I want them to be able to do it when I'm not there. And it's like that with cross-country skiing, fishing, whatever. I like to pass on whatever I know to everybody else if they're willing to take the time to learn from me. I love being a teacher.

When reflecting on his former career, Ron, a retired medical technologist, reiterated his love of teaching several times. He explained, "One of the major good points about the job was that I enjoyed teaching, and there's nothing more rewarding than seeing a student bloom". Sylvie, a retired vocational school teacher, said of her students, "They were very appreciative, and it was a lot of fun and I felt a sense of purpose and fulfillment. That there was a reason for doing this. And you develop relationships, and it was really helping others. And I really enjoyed that."

Melanie, a former art teacher, asserted, “I was teaching to impart my love. You know when you teach you can’t stop. Anybody that walked in the door and wanted to know about something, I’d be writing stuff out.” Bernice, a 62-year-old business manager for a not for profit, reflected a similar position. She stated, “I feel good that people feel they can depend on my knowledge and my experience. Their trust is important to me. I like teaching. I like to impart my years of wisdom.” Evan, an accountant and bridge employee for the same firm he helped found, noted, “Being able to help others is the thing that I enjoy most.”

There were also participants in our study who longed for the opportunity to share their knowledge. However, due to job loss or as a result of the nature of the work, circumstances did not permit them to do so. Clara, a 61-year-old woman, described her employment situation as, “somewhat unstable. Sort of has potential for multiple streams of income. It’s fairly flexible, but it’s mostly characterized by being sort of unknown.” When asked how she felt about sharing her knowledge she explained that she wished she could find work that would permit her to do so. She declared,

> Well, I mean I would love an opportunity to do that type of thing. The type of work I was doing was really more coaching than consulting in many ways, because I was helping people to help themselves so that the skills that they were learning could be, to a certain extent, sustainable. So you know, coaching and helping people to sort of help themselves is one of the things I do really well, as opposed to telling them what to do.

Although Donna’s full-time job as an office manager does not lend itself to generativity because she has no work colleagues, she expressed a great desire to share her knowledge with others. She stated,

> Yes, I love sharing my knowledge if I can. Yes. Especially if it’s in a domain I like, and I’m always anyway, if I know about anything I like, I inform people- my friends, my kids telling them you should do this, you should to that and they have problems with money sometimes. They don’t know how to invest it, what to do with it and you know, do this and that because this is good, you know. And I like to see them when they are happy sometimes. They say, oh Donna, you gave us such good advice, it was so nice, I made money. The joy of knowing that you can help somebody. This is very important for me.

An overarching theme in our sample was the expression of generative action in the form of communion. All participants described great affection and desire to engage in the role of mentor or teacher. Several of the retired folks continue to mentor their successors even after they have left the workforce while others prefer to share their knowledge, skills and experience with friends, family or neighbours. Those that are currently working manifest their love of teaching by sharing their knowledge with colleagues. And another longs for the very opportunity to teach sustainable skills.

2.7.2. Agency

Although all of our participants expressed generativity in the form of communion, only three articulated their generative ambitions in the form of agency. Jana and Evan, both bridge employees, and Gerry, who was one month away from retirement, all explicitly stated that they wanted to leave a legacy. Jana, a 66-year-old university lecturer, explained,

> I am trying to leave a tiny but very positive footprint in other people's lives. I feel very strongly that I have a message to give and I feel that this generation of especially business students are a little confused. They're kind of thinking in the right direction but the business schools aren't necessarily reflecting strategically t their comfort level. So that's my passing on, is be sustainable, be collaborative, don't kill the competition, think about your grandchildren, leave a small footprint—all that stuff.

Evan expressed a very similar sentiment. In fact, he used the word legacy to convey his desire to leave his mark on the institution that he built long after his departure. When asked how he felt about transferring his knowledge he stated:

> Oh, I'm very excited about that. … whatever I can pass on, absolutely. Because I think one of the things that I'd like to, the word I like to use is legacy. The thought is whenever it is that I do slow down, because there will come a time, at least I would have left behind something that I have helped create and always be welcomed here as somebody who left somewhat of a legacy behind.

Gerry reported that sharing his knowledge was a way of informing his replacements of his frame of reference so that they understood his thinking. He also explained, "I like the idea that there will be some continuity. I think most people feel they'd like to leave some legacy, and our legacy is familiarizing people with what you know, how you approached it."

It should be noted that according to McAdams (1985) generativity manifests in both agentic and communal tendencies whereby people first endeavour to build a legacy (agency) that will outlive oneself (Kotre, 1984) and thereafter seek to give it to others so that it will be beneficial to future generations (communion). The greatest manifestation of generativity encompasses the expression of both agency and communion (Balkan, 1966). The sample consisted of three such individuals. Janice, Evan, and Gerry all aspired to leave a legacy, and they also expressed a desire to teach and mentor others.

2.7.3. Cultural demand: Excite or extinguish

According to McAdams and de St. Aubin (1991), generativity in the form of communion or agency is evoked by cultural demand. Cultural demand arises as a result of the societal expectation that older adults care for and nurture the next generation. For the purposes of this thesis, I have limited cultural demand to the context of work, as noted above. As such, the analysis indicated that a number of organizational factors strongly influenced employees desire to transfer their knowledge. More specifically, the work context can *excite*, nurture and support one's generative efforts, or *extinguish*, stifle one's ambitions to mentor younger colleagues. Unfortunately, few participants felt that their organizational culture excited their passion to share their knowledge and mentor their replacements. For the majority of my participants, organizational bureaucracy and a lack of supervisory support extinguished their generative desires and contributed to the decision to retire, whether or not they had groomed their successors.

The work culture can excite generativity

The employees who felt appreciated by their employers, such as Ron and Joanne, were not only inclined to pass on their knowledge while at work but agreed to do so even after they retired. These two retirees accept calls from their successors and will also meet with them informally from time to time. Ron provided a very detailed description of how both his department and the hospital recognized his efforts and appreciated his contribution. He said,

> Within the department itself and within the hospital itself, they valued my contribution. There were glowing annual reviews. There was the odd financial bonus for projects that were done mainly on my own time to increase efficiency or whatever. Then there's also the standard yearly employment dinner for employees who have been working for the hospital for x period of time.

In turn Ron offered to meet his replacements once he retired to ensure that they had the requisite knowledge to perform their duties. He explained, “I’ll meet with some of them once a month and basically they will you know, talk over problems and if I can give them any input or another way of looking at things, they’re quite happy to receive it.”

Joanne explained that due to her husband’s illness and his cancer treatments she had to take two months off of work in addition to taking time off for cataract surgery. While she was on leave her employer continued to pay her salary.

> I had an operation; I took the time off without any problems. Lately with my husband, when they knew I was retiring, they kept me on for the full two months I was away, for full salary while I was away. I left Nov 16 and was back Jan 16 of last year. I worked four days for four years. They definitely value my contribution. I think they value most of their employees. They had offered me to work three days a week, but I couldn't see it being done in 3 days. Also, we’re still insured. I mean even though we’re retired, it’s unbelievable. It keeps us in Canada mind you, but there’s a perk that you won’t believe. There’s a pension plan.

Joanne reciprocated the support and appreciation that she felt from her organization by availing herself to her firm once she retired. When asked about maintaining contact with her previous employer should the firm require her assistance she stated, “I am now on call. They have full permission to call me if they need my help or advice”.

The sense of appreciation and organizational support was also relevant for my sample of mature workers engaged in bridge employment and full-time work. Evan, who has transferred the administrative tasks of his accounting practice to his younger partner, Tyler, in favour of pursuing business development, affirmed that the firm valued his contributions. He explained,

> I think they recognize that I have certain skills that others may not have, and there’s certainly value in bringing in other business. I think the answer is unequivocally yes, that they do value it and there’s a compensation package that’s commission-based now for the most part, and it’ll allow me to earn what I deserve based upon my success.

He, too, repaid in kind the support of his firm by mentoring junior accountants. He stated, “As a matter of fact, one of my goals now is to pass on more and more to the next generation.” Bernice echoed a similar sentiment. She said, “The staff is great. I love what I do. The organization absolutely values my contribution.” Further along in the interview she explained that she loves to impart her knowledge to others and share her years of experience.

The work culture can extinguish generativity

On the other hand, organizational bureaucracy and a lack of appreciation contributed to people's decision to exit the workforce and severe ties with their respective organizations with no interest or intent in grooming their younger colleagues. Gerry asserted,

> There's a general level of dissatisfaction within the organization. Some of the inspirational stuff and the collegiality has disappeared in favour of trying to emulate our remote cousins in the private sector. So it destroys a lot if initiative and there’s a lot of micromanagement that goes on.

Gerry trained his replacement prior to his retirement but stated that once he leaves the organization he had no intention of returning. He explained, “There are many other things that I want to do in retirement. I gave this institution 45 years of service. It’s time for me to be moving on.”

Nat too conveyed dissatisfaction and frustration with his firm. He stated,

> One of my problems about the bureaucracy is communication is so complex. We need to go up, then go down. In the past you pick up the phone, call somebody, discuss it for five minutes. It doesn’t work that way anymore. It is a silo-ed organization, where you have too many Senior Vice Presidents and then any time you wanted to get something done at departmental level, you couldn’t do it as we did in the past with manager-to-manager. Now you had to go up to the top and then the people at the top had their own political agenda and we found it became less efficient. As it got bigger, it became less efficient, and there was so much red tape.

The former technology officer felt similarly to Gerry and warned the company that he would not be available to mentor younger colleagues or consult on future projects. There were other things that he had planned for his retirement and he had no intention of maintaining a connection with the firm.

Gordon, a former fireman, described his last few years on the job as follows:

> There was no humanity, no flexibility, no appreciation, no thank you’s. There was always do this, do that, do this, why didn’t you do this, why didn’t you do that? They were always looking for things to try and give you heck on. The way they treated their employees- they drive’em, drive’em, drive’em, and there was never a thank you. It was job pressure, tension and nerves and emotional stress.

Gordon counted down the days until his retirement and had no intention of ever returning to the firehouse once he exited the workforce. He explained, “It became unbearable. They just made it so I just couldn’t remain there.”

Sylvie grew weary and anxious after witnessing the lack of support her colleagues received from the school’s administration. Although she was never the recipient of harsh criticism or scolding, she recognized that it was just a matter of time before she would receive such treatment. She explained,

> I talked to teachers and heard some horror stories about how they were treated by the administration. Now personally, I was never called in. But I’ve had so many colleagues who have been put in such terrible positions. So personally I can’t say that I was badly treated. But I got out because I could see that it was only a matter of time that I wouldn’t have been supported.

Later in the interview when Sylvie was asked how she felt about sharing her knowledge she stated that she left all of her materials for her replacements to use, but she explained, “I was never going back.”

In light of the above findings I concluded that the organizational environment influences knowledge sharing behaviours among mature workers. A negative work environment provoked a desire to retire and cut ties with one’s employer, regardless of whether or not one’s successor had been trained and ready to assume a new role. These employees looked forward to the freedom that retirement affords. On the other hand, employees who felt valued and appreciated by their organizations wanted to mentor their younger colleagues and share their knowledge. Moreover, they were willing to do so even after they retired. It is interesting to note, although Ron experienced workplace stress he was still eager to share his knowledge and experience with younger colleagues because he felt valued by his organization.

2.7.4. Mature workers: the greatest manifestation of generativity

One of the most unexpected findings to emerge from the data was the discovery that most mature workers took the responsibility upon themselves to train their replacements prior to retiring. There was only one instance in which an employee was asked to document important dates, social practices, and monthly procedures to capture her explicit knowledge. Joanne, a retired administrative assistant, excitedly accepted this project and compiled a 40-page word document in which she recorded what tasks she did and when. The assignment required a year to complete. She also made herself available for her replacement if she needed information that was missing from the 40-page report. At the time of our interview, Joanne conveyed that her successor had already phoned asking for guidance about the proper etiquette regarding Jewish burial services. The former administrative assistant explained that she would have never thought to note how the company deals with the diverse celebrations, milestones and significant life events of its multicultural workforce. Lucky for her replacement, Joanne willingly shared the appropriate decorum.

Unlike Joanne's organization, Ron had to approach the hospital administration himself, to inform them of his impending retirement and the need to train his successor. Ron wanted to ensure that his work was being left in the hands of a competent technician, but he worried that his replacement would not have the requisite knowledge and experience to assume his role. He explained,

> The factor that got me to retire was that it was becoming more and more untenable from my viewpoint to run a section of the laboratory, in other words transfusion medicine, and build up a cadre of skilled people who would be able to solve problems. In other words, if I would drop dead somebody would not be there and able to continue the problem solving process. What is happening in a lot of laboratories is that they’re training technologists so that they could multi-task and so you would have somebody who would be trained in blood bank, who would be trained in biochemistry, who would be trained in haematology, and you would rotate them. And if you were lucky, you had that person with you for a month. If you were unlucky, the person would be with you for a week, then rotate somewhere else, then rotate somewhere else after that. They come back to you after a month, having had one week of blood bank experience. So basically they were a jack of all trades but a master of none, which is a problem because you need in-depth experience. And basically towards the end, I was the fountain of experience. Whereas people who were being rotated through on a greater and greater frequency could get the stunt work done, but basically I was doing most of the problem solving. And I had made administration aware of the fact that this was not the way it should be done. And basically they said this is a staffing problem- don’t worry about it.

Nat’s experience was very similar to Ron’s. The former technician explained that he always trained his replacements to be able to perform his work duties so that eventually he could move up the corporate ranks and assume greater responsibility. Two years prior to his retirement he told the company that he would be leaving and that he needed to train his replacements. He conveyed that he felt a deep-seated responsibility to transfer his knowledge to his successors so that they had the expertise to assume his role. He recounted,

> I think that was part of why I felt responsible. I felt I wanted to leave my job in the hands of a capable person. In fact my job was divvied up amongst 3 people. So I had to train 3 people to learn the different aspects of my job and it took maybe 2 years, this transfer of information. So these people took notes, I gave them access to the files I had. I'd developed files over the last 5 years of all the important systems I worked on and the problems the systems had and I passed my files on to all the people after walking through, showing them how it was done. I also was able to sit beside them so if there was an emergency for instance. Part of my job was what we call the recovery team and I had to reconstruct files that were damaged from water damage, electrical shortage, etc. So we had backup systems and I had to train others how to reconstruct the backup systems. So to me It was very important to make sure I left knowledgeable, experience people, aware of all the idiosyncrasies of all the different problems and create all these accounting, banking systems.

Nat truly embodied the spirit of generativity. In fact, I drew upon Nat's quote at the very beginning of the results section in order to describe the concept of communion. However, he was adamant about training his successors because he did not want to be contacted once he retired. He stated,

> There was a selfish reason for wanting to do it too. I didn't want to be disturbed. After I told the company that I was leaving and retiring, I didn't want them to call me with problems. That's what they wanted to do and they said they could pay me to be on standby and they'd give me a cell phone and I said I didn't want to be on standby. What I much preferred to do was to train my replacements so they never had to call me. I warned them that they had to learn my job. In fact I threatened that if you call me when I'm retired, chances are I won't call you back so you better pay attention.

Peter felt similar to Nat and explained that he would train his buddies because he wouldn't "want to burn them" even though his superiors never asked him to do so. Gerry had a one-hour exit interview with human resources one month prior to his retirement. Although he believed in continuity and leaving a legacy, he felt that it was hardly a sufficient amount of time to transfer 45 years of knowledge and experience. Luckily, he too trained his successors prior to leaving. The impetus to train and prepare their successors to assume their roles was born of the participant's own volition. The time in which workers seem most motivated to share their knowledge is while they are still at work and feeling generative.

2.7.5. Bridge employment: the expression of agency

Three of the participants in this category were engaged in bridge employment, whereas one had held temporary positions since she was laid off at the age of 57. The three bridge employees explained that they loved their jobs and focussed on the intrinsic benefits that work provided. Amy, a 71-year-old former social worker, works as a liaison between her boss and his clients. Amy's boss is a lawyer who lives in Toronto and works to get disabled people tax disability refunds. Amy interfaces with her boss's clients in Montreal. She is the one responsible for meeting clients, explaining the process and ensuring that the appropriate professionals fill out the proper documentation. She then submits these documents to her boss. Amy returned to work after being retired for ten years. Although she enjoyed retirement, work provided an arena in which to engage her brain. When discussing her return to work she stated:

> I used my brain a little bit (referring to her time in retirement) but it was never totally me. I guess these skills went to sleep during those years. I mean if someone asked me something, I'm always ready to talk to them, but it's not the same. I can't begin to tell you how happy I was and my attitude was much better. Not that my attitude is bad- I don't have a bad attitude. But it was vibrant, it was exciting. When I would go out and do those forms I'd come home feeling so good about myself. And I'm telling you I was reborn, reconnected, revitalized. My brain came back to life.

Likewise, Evan explained of the role work currently plays in his life:

> I can't imagine myself getting up in the morning and not having a place to go to and a list of 50 things to do. You know. When I go down to Florida, I get up in the morning, and there's just exercise and golf and all that. After a week or 10 days, I get bored. I need that work challenge. I can't imagine living without having achievement as part of my day-to-day goal.

Clara explained that work for her centred on making a contribution. Her goal was to work overseas and use her project management skills to help others in the developed world. She did however, express that even her most simplistic job working customer service provided an opportunity to assist others. She commented,

> My ideal retirement would be to continue to make a contribution. When I don't have work, the whole sense of purpose is really, really called into question and it doesn't have to be a very high level work. I've done some customer service work with one of the big convention management and staffing programs, so that's very very simple customer service that you provide, but you're seeing people all the time and helping them.

Talia, a part-time professor, declared that for her work provides an arena in which she can feel a sense of accomplishment. At the time of the interview, she was co-teaching a class with another professor. She stated,

> Frankly, I don't care whether I teach or not, in terms of external rewards. I'm doing it for the internal rewards. Like we had a class yesterday. Dr. Yan is changing the way he teaches- he's doing far more interactive stuff and less lecturing stuff. I walked down and I'm saying great class Dr. Y. we did a good job! That feels good. I don't care how I'm rated. We did a good job. I see the change in you. I see the change in me. We're progressing.

Although the bridge employees were interested in nurturing and mentoring younger colleagues, their motivation to groom the next generation of workers seemed secondary to their desire for achievement, mastery, and greater competence. Specifically, their engagement in bridge employment was dominated by, what Bakan (1966) and McAdams (1985), refer to as *agentic tendencies*, whereby behaviour is motivated by a desire to assert and promote the self. As the quotes above indicate, the language of these participants centred on "I," and the intrinsic benefits they derived from work.

2.7.6. Retirement: A focus on interests and interpersonal relationships

The six retired participants in the study revealed very similar reasons for retiring. They all had a desire to engage in interests other than work. Although job stress contributed to five of the participants desire to retire, four of them indicated they had other interests that they wanted to pursue. Melanie noted,

> I was kind of looking forward to a time when I could do my own stuff too and I thought now that I'm retired I'll be able to. I'm starting to paint again and do my own thing. But I'm happy. I read a lot now and I spend more time on me.

Nat was engaged in a variety of recreational activities. He declared,

> Everything that I did prior to planning my retirement was all in preparation for what I'd do after I retired. I wanted to go kayaking. I want to take a course on the massage. The first year I retired, I wanted to go rollerblading so I got a pair of rollerblades and in the winter, I go to the Bell Center and go ice skating. I love cooking. I'm learning the guitar right now.

Ron was of the same opinion. He too affirmed that he had a long list of interests that he wanted to pursue. He stated,

> There was lots of other things that I wanted to do in retirement, and this way I had the time and basically I had the resources to do it no problem at all. I've been interested in photography all my life, gardening is another. Cultural museums. The other thing that I do is read.

When Gerry responded to the question about his reasons for retiring he explained, "first of all, I want to indulge in all of my passions. Secondly, I want to be able to sleep in in the morning." Talia explained that when she does eventually phase into retirement from bridge employment she has lots of interests she wants to explore. She remarked,

> I've got thousands of hobbies, things that right now sort of get fit in where they can. We've got the house in the country, I know there's an awful lot of physical activities. We've got a thing called the Multi-Cultural Festival. There are like 4000 people in there. We have clogger dancing, belly dancing, African dancing. And you'll see a 60 year old and she's just like a little girl loving her skirt. Okay, corny, but I think I'm going to do dancing, I'm going to do badminton, there's badminton every night. There's lots of dancing, I enjoy that. There's skiing, I have a pool. I don't mind taking up canoeing. There are a lot of things I'd like to do.

The above findings reveal that the retired participants, and those planning on retiring in the next few years, looked forward to a time in which they could engage in leisure pursuits and indulge in interests other than work.

2.7.7. Emotional Regulation: Optimizing positive emotional experiences

According to socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, Issacowitz & Charles, 1999), when time is perceived as limited, one's focus shifts towards the present and goals centre on optimizing emotionally positive experiences. Regulating one's emotional state is achieved by avoiding negative and seeking out positive experiences. The retired participants in the study substantiated this very claim. As employees neared retirement, they became mindful of a shortened time horizon and started to grow impatient having to deal with inconveniences such as long commutes and laborious administrative tasks. Also, unappreciative superiors and arrogant youngsters who perceived them as relics became insufferable and pushed people to exit the workforce.

For five of the six retired participants, job stress fuelled their desire to leave their respective organizations. Melanie explained, “You get up in the morning and it would be dark. I was having to leave earlier and earlier to avoid the traffic, so I was leaving at 6:30 in the dark, even if my first class didn’t start ‘til nine.” Gordon retired at the age of 59. He counted down the days until his exit because of the insufferable work environment he had to endure. The former fireman explained that he worried his outrage would cause him to lose his temper which would subsequently result in the loss of his pension. When asked what factored into his decision to retire, he let out a sigh and explained,

> I was losing my mind and didn’t want to end up blowing up and doing something I’d regret and risking my pension. So I said I’ve got to get my backside out of here before I go out with my tail between my legs. They’re just after you, pushing, pushing, needling, knifing—it was relentless. I had a route, a number of stations I used to have to go to. Three years later, today, my hair still stands up. I feel uncomfortable even driving past these stations. That’s how much it affected me.

Although Nat had many other interests that he wanted to pursue in retirement, working with employees fresh out of university with little or no experience frustrated him. He felt that these youngsters lacked practical skills to perform their jobs well and they regarded him as old and his knowledge obsolete. He stated,

> I found I kept having to work with much younger people out of university who don’t have much understanding of the business world and they look at you as a dinosaur. It just seems like the newly hired people are inundated just with theoretical knowledge. And in fact what I found out from the HR department was when I joined seniority was more like 25 years. When I left it was below 5. So people just don’t stay with companies anymore, so they don’t develop a good comprehension of how all the parts fit together and how their job can be made much more interesting by sticking around longer, you know.

Sylvie explained that she worried that it was a matter of time before she would be the subject of harsh criticism. Thus, she decided to retire before such an incident occurred. She stated,

> I just saw so many of my colleagues being not supported by the administration, and I thought you know, you come into the staff room, and somebody would come in shell-shocked. They'd been called in by the director and say 'oh, what she said to me today.' I was just horrified. And I thought I don't want to experience that, and I thought it was only a matter of time. So just leave.

When time is perceived as limited people seek to maximize positive and meaningful experiences and minimize negative circumstances. The retired participants in the study exhibited this very pattern. They chose to leave workplace stressors and hassles behind in order to create a retirement that focussed on positively charged experiences and limited negative emotional responses so that their time could best be spent in the pursuit of meaningful goals.

2.7.8. A shortened time horizon elicits a preference for meaningful relationships

For many of the participants retirement signified a milestone event that marked time as finite. They explained that such awareness evoked a decision to spend more time with loved ones. Nat declared,

> I wanted to spend time with my family, I wanted to spend a longer time with the grandchildren and that kind of stuff and it's not worth the few extra dollars you get sacrificing your life. I couldn't in any way find any reason that would urge me to continue working, even if the company had agreed to double my salary. There's more to life than money and I have more money than I could ever spend, so what's the purpose of it? The purpose of retiring is to do things in life that give you quality of life that you enjoy a lot more than work. And 45 years of work, I think I've paid my dues to society and I contributed a lot to the company and I think that was it. What more do I want.

The idea that life is short and that time is limited also influenced Gerry's decision to retire. As socio-emotional selectivity theory (1991) stipulates, when people are cognizant of endings they focus on the present and their social goals encompass the pursuit of activities from which they will derive positive emotional experiences. Gerry professed,

> I've seen a couple people die and you say to yourself, am I ever going to say on my death bed I wish I worked harder? No. So that's one of the things that motivated me. Another thing is I have some huge passions, so I'm a high-level bridge player. I'm among the top 1% of the bridge players in North America. I travel to tournaments and compete against the best in the world. And also I love golf and going to the gym. So my

> typical day like to today, I made a promise to myself five or six years ago that two days during the week I'll be out of here by five pm. One of the things I've noticed is I ever used to take all my vacation. Now I regret not having more vacation because I really want to do these things. So that's one of the driving forces- to give myself more opportunity. But it's also a fear. And the fear is if the time weren't so precious, would I still find so much enjoyment?

There were others in the study who did not articulate their thoughts about time as clearly as Nat or Gerry, but they did however, explain that they wanted to organize their lives so that they could spend more time with loved ones. Bernice and Jana stated that they wanted to spend time with their grandchildren. Bernice explained, "My son lives in Toronto with my grandkids. I would take longer weekends to go and visit, because they have a very hard time coming here." Jana reported a similar sentiment. She stated,

> I see my life being in the country. I'm a real country person. And doing what I love- riding horses, swimming in the summer, snowshoeing, having the grandchildren coming to visit, doing some travelling. And I have time for my grandchildren, which is really a priority for me while they're young. In a couple of years, they won't find me so interesting and need me so much.

And of course with a sample that ranged in age from 60 to 72 there were others whose retirement was influenced by the health of their spouses. At 72, Joanne had to retire to care for her ailing husband, and Talia explained that her retirement plan hinged on her husband's health. She explained,

> His health will define our lives, and vice versa if I have a problem. His health is absolutely key to our lives. If he has a problem I'll walk away from whatever I'm doing. It's quite simple. There's no question. I'm all he's got and he's all I've got.

The analysis indicated that one's decision to retire is influenced by a desire to pursue interests other than work. And when people recognize that our time on earth is finite, they opt to spend time with, or caring for, loved ones.

2.8. DISCUSSION

The sample was composed of a group of highly generative individuals. In fact, all the participants in the study exhibited generativity. However, this desire changes depending upon one's late career stage and is influenced by cultural demand. Findings revealed that the organizational environment can either excite or extinguish one's desire to be generative at work. Specifically, the work environment can nurture an employee's desire for generative action. But it can also extinguish one's aspirations to share knowledge and mentor younger colleagues. Moreover, the work context can drive one to seek out other environments, be it employment or volunteer opportunities, where generative actions are welcomed and appreciated.

Additionally, as socio-emotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1991) predicts, one's social goals change as one progresses through the phases of late-career development. More specifically, the desire to be generative seems to be greatest amongst mature workers. Bridge employees welcome the opportunity to mentor others, however, they exhibit a greater focus on the intrinsic benefits derived from work, as opposed to a deep-seated motivation to groom younger colleagues. And, as one phases into retirement there is a much greater focus on leisure pursuits than any other activity, including volunteering. Moreover, retirees focus on regulating their emotional states so that they optimize positive and minimize negative experiences in order to ensure that their time is spent in the pursuit of meaningful goals.

Lastly, the most surprising finding to surface from the data was that the participants initiated the process of training and preparing their successors to assume their respective roles. Most knowledge transfer initiatives were born of the participants' own volition and not at the request of the organization. Sadly, their ambitions were never realized.

2.8.1. Agency and Communion

All participants in the sample expressed their sense of generativity in the form of communion. However, only three participants exhibited generativity in the form of agency. According to McAdams (1985), both agency and communion are believed to encompass the complete expression of generativity. One first endeavours to create a legacy that will live beyond one's death (agency) and then one offers this legacy as a gift to another person or community in the hope that it will be of future benefit (communion). Although the findings did not reveal many instances in which generativity was expressed in the form of agency it may be due to the nature of the question and not because the sample lacked agentic tendencies. Firstly, I did not specifically ask participants about their desire to be generative or whether or not they engaged in generative behaviours. Rather, I asked participants how they felt about sharing their knowledge with their younger colleagues, and I used knowledge sharing as a proxy for generativity at work. A more thorough examination of the question itself reveals that it may have tapped the communal domain and thus inadvertently swayed participant responses to reflect communal and not agentic tendencies.

Secondly, McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992) maintain that because generativity is such a complex construct several methods are required to tap the domain and surface both agentic and communal themes. According to these researchers, to specifically elicit agentic tendencies participants are asked to recall memories that are significant to the self. Under such directives, it seems easier for one to recount instances related to mastery, autonomy, independence and control (Mansfield & McAdams, 1996). Thus, in the context of personal disclosure, as in the case of an autobiographical or interview study, people may feel reluctant to call attention to their accomplishments (agency) unless specifically asked to do so. Moreover, they may feel more comfortable and at ease sharing information that is reflective of their selfless nature and desire to assist others (communion) as it is more socially acceptable to do so.

2.8.2. Organizational context

The organizational context proved to be an important arena in which to enact one's generative desires, providing the environment is supportive and values expertise. Scholars maintain that generativity is a biological desire that exists to promote the survival and well-being of the human species (Cosmides & Tooby, 1994). Although generativity is regarded as a normative stage of midlife development, it is manifested within a particular social context. One's generative actions are therefore influenced and bounded by the larger society in which one lives (McAdams & Logan, 2004) and by extension the organization in which one works. The participants were eager to share their knowledge with their younger colleagues. However, organizational stressors pushed some of them to retire and seek out alternate environments where their generative actions would be valued and appreciated. Moreover, once these participants retired they were not interested in maintaining contact with their previous employers, being accessible to consult on projects, or advising their successors in case the latter needed guidance.

In fact, these retired employees severed all ties with their former employers. This finding is consistent with that of Delong (2004) who maintains that once employees leave organizations it is highly unlikely that they will ever return.

On the other hand, the participants who felt valued and appreciated by their organizations were happy to maintain relationships with their previous employers and even consult on projects or provide advice when their successors required assistance. This finding is not all that surprising given that employees tend to exhibit commitment and loyalty to organizations that value their membership and display a concern for their wellbeing (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). Moreover, the literature on mature workers indicates that older employees reciprocate organizational support by remaining with their employers, in contrast to those who feel a lack of appreciation from their respective firms (Armstrong & Ursel, 2009). In light of these findings, I suspect that generativity needs a positive atmosphere in which to flourish, or what McAdams (1985) refers to as an “ideological setting” (p.247). More specifically, I surmise that for older employees to be generative, they need to feel that they are valued members of their organizations and are appreciated for their contributions.

A well-studied construct in the literature is “perceived organizational support” which is defined as “a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values [employees’] general contributions and cares for their well-being” (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMaestro, 1990, p. 51). When employees perceive that their firms value their contributions and care about their well-being, they reciprocate in kind by engaging extra-role behaviours. Extra role behaviours are not mandated nor compensated by the organization but add to the efficiency and productivity of a firm (Katz, 1964; Bateman & Organ, 1983). For example, assisting a co-worker or promoting a positive organizational culture are regarded as extra-role behaviours (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As of late, scholars have started to equate knowledge sharing behaviours with extra-role behavious (Lin, 2007). Additionally, perceived organizational support has also been found to positively relate to mature workers’ intentions of remaining in the workforce (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009). As such I propose the following:

Proposition 1: Perceived organizational support will be positively related to generativity and knowledge sharing behaviours

Proposition 2: Perceived organizational support will be positively related to an employee's intention to continue working beyond the age of 65

2.8.3. Colleague support

In addition to the organizational context, colleague support also surfaced as an important finding in this study. While the majority of the participants indicated that they wanted to share their knowledge with their younger colleagues, their relationships with their co-workers influenced their desire to do so. Peter explained that he would remain with the organization a few extra months to train his successors because he wouldn't want to leave "the boys" without the requisite knowledge to perform their duties. Bernice and Ron were eager to share their wisdom because they felt that their areas of expertise were valued by their younger colleagues. This finding supports the results of MacDermid, Franz & De Reus' (1998) study which revealed that generative action occurs when one is satisfied and has a positive experience in a given role. Nat's experience, however, aroused feelings of disdain for his co-workers as he felt they ridiculed him and regarded his knowledge as antiquated. According to de St. Aubin, McAdams and Kim (2004) "at its very core, generativity is the intergenerational transmission of that which is valued" (p. 266). Thus, the very process of generativity requires that the giver and the receiver both deem that which is being transferred worthy and valuable. In traditional societies, generativity is embodied in religious customs or civic traditions that inextricably tie current generations to the past. In contrast, modern cultures emphasize scientific progress and a greater focus on the future. In such societies generativity requires what McAdams and Logan (2004) refer to as a "balancing act between tradition and innovation" (p. 20). The speed of societal change may cause youngsters to view their elder's knowledge as obsolete, irrelevant in today's ever-changing world (Manheimer, 2004) and fast-paced, technologically-driven workplace.

In light of these findings, I suspect that positive and warm relationships between colleagues will influence mature workers' desires to share their knowledge and experience with their younger counterparts.

Proposition 3: Colleague support will be positively associated with generativity and knowledge sharing behaviours

2.8.4. Late-career phase and generative desires

The findings from the current study suggest that late career phase (mature worker, bridge employment or retirement) is associated with different degrees of generativity. Generative desire does in fact change over time as one phases out of full-time work into bridge employment, and from bridge employment into retirement. This pattern of results is consistent with those of McAdams, de St. Aubin and Logan (1993) in which they observed a decline in generativity with age. Their findings revealed that the greatest level of generativity was observed in middle-aged adults, age 37 to 42, and declined thereafter in older adults age 67-72. Additionally, in the Radcliffe longitudinal study investigating generativity desires among women, Stewart and Vandewater (1993), reported a peak at the age of 31, and a subsequent decline at the age of 37 and then again at 43. Although the sample was significantly older (60-68) than those in these studies, the trend towards a decline in generativity is consistent with these findings. According to Stewart & Vandewater (1993) when people find outlets in which they can and do fulfill their generative desires, the aspiration to continue to do so declines because they have satisfied this need. Because Erikson (1950) situated the issue of generativity at midlife, which encompasses the years between 30 and 65, scholars hypothesize that generativity may exhibit domain-specific trajectories (McAdams, Hart & Maruna, 1998). Thus, it is very possible that generativity at work peaks in the latter years of midlife after one has accumulated a sufficient amount of knowledge and experience to pass on to the next generation, and declines thereafter as one moves from full-time work to bridge employment and then retirement.

2.8.5. An innate desire to transfer knowledge

The most unexpected finding to emerge from the present study was that knowledge transfer initiatives were born of the employee's own volition and not at the request of their respective organizations. Many organizations do not implement knowledge transfer programs because they can be costly and complicated (Birkinshaw, 2001). Moreover, knowledge transfer techniques involve creating work processes that must become an inherent part of a worker's everyday business activities. It, therefore, requires a fundamental change in the way workers work (Birkinshaw, 2001). Mature employees, however, may not focus on the cost of the knowledge transfer exercise or the challenges of organizational change. Rather, they may simply regard the opportunity to transfer their knowledge to younger colleagues as a way to gift their experience to the next generation. Thus, sharing one's knowledge may in fact be the greatest manifestation of generativity that one can express at work. The role of mentor, teacher or advisor enables mature employees to satisfy their communal desires and render their professional legacy to those that will assume their positions after their departure from paid work. If a professional legacy is the manifestation of what McAdams (1985) refers to as a self-defining story, then this meaning-making exercise allows people to place their generative efforts at work in the larger context of life's greater purpose. Like any story, it requires an ending (Charme, 1984), and generativity stories emphasize good endings that signify that which will outlive the self (Kotre, 1984) and inspire new beginnings. Similarly, Carstensen and colleagues' (1999) socio-emotional selectivity theory, stipulates that the awareness of endings elicits a desire to create positive emotional experiences prior to one's departure. Thus, in the context of work, the act of grooming one's successor provides an opportunity for the mature worker to showcase her accomplishments, and influence those with whom she shares warm relationships. It is also a way for her to write a positive and purposeful ending to the last chapter of her generative narrative at work.

Proposition 4: Generativity will be positively associated with knowledge sharing behaviours

2.8.6. Agentic tendencies dominate employees' desire to engage in bridge employment

Employees engaged in bridge employment predominantly expressed generativity in the form of agentic tendencies. According to McAdams and Logan (2004), "agency is the organismic tendency towards self-expression, self-expansion, self-protection, self-development and all other forms of promoting the individual self" (p. 18). The bridge employees in the study were motivated by a desire to better themselves, and improve upon their craft. Talia expressed pride and satisfaction in the development of her teaching skills. Amy explained that her return to work drew upon her cognitive capacities and bettered her attitude and for Clara work provided a sense of purpose. It is evident that one of the central aspects of engaging in bridge employment for these mature adults was the desire to develop the self in meaningful and powerful ways (McAdams, Hart & Maruna, 1998). Moreover, further examination of the agency literature reveals that the need for achievement and the need for power are both expressions of agency. *The desire for improvement*, which is defined by McClelland as the need for achievement, and the motivation to influence others, defined as *the need for power*, are different, yet complementary manifestations of agency (McClelland, 1989; McAdams, Hoffman, Mansfield & Day, 1996). This finding may help shed light on the motivations of the bridge employees. Specifically, their primary focus on the intrinsic benefits provided by work, such as the opportunity for self-development, achievement and mastery, are reflections of the need for achievement. And their motivations to influence others are manifestations of the need for power. For example, Evan explained that he wanted to leave a legacy for future generations, and Jana expressed a desire to leave a “tiny but positive footprint”. Both of these participants were working in the same capacity as they had prior to engaging in bridge employment. They had reduced their hours, but continued to work for the same organization. This latter finding suggests that employees who engage in bridge employment with the same employer may have different motivations than their counterparts who seek employment with a different employer in a different industry. The latter was the case with Amy and Clara whose motivations to return to work may have been dominated by the need for power. They both expressed the belief that work provided a sense of purpose and enabled them to affect others, which contributed to their self-esteem and personal development.

Regardless of whether or not the bridge employees were motivated by the need for achievement or the need for power, both expressions of agentic tendencies seemed to trump their desire to share their knowledge and experience with younger colleagues. In fact, sharing their knowledge seemed to be a secondary concern. Generativity scholars such as Erikson (1963), Kotre (1984) and McAdams (1985) maintain that one needs to first create that which will be given away before it can be gifted to others. Bridge employment may therefore provide mature workers an arena in which to satisfy their “desire for symbolic immortality” (Kotre, p. 10) and one last opportunity to create a professional legacy at work, thus, serving their agentic motivations. Moreover, Peterson and Stewart’s (1993) study investigating generativity and social motives lends further support to this hypothesis. Their findings revealed that both the power and achievement motives were related to generativity for young adults in the context of work. I therefore hypothesize the following:

Proposition 5: The need for achievement and the need for power will be positively related to employees’ desire to engage in continued work beyond the age of 65

Proposition 6: The need for achievement will be positively related to employees' desire to engage in bridge employment with their current employer

2.8.7. Retirement and the expression of grand-generativity

As one nears retirement, we once again see a decline in the expression of generativity. Retirees engage in a multitude of pleasurable activities that they did not have time to pursue while working. And, as socio-emotional selectivity predicts, they become more discerning about how and with whom they spend their time, with a particular emphasis on grandchildren. Erikson (1950) maintained that the psychosocial challenge of midlife was the manifestation of care and concern for the next generation and that it decreased as one neared the end of the seventh stage of development. However, he never demarcated an age in which generativity all but ceased. In fact, in Erikson's (Erikson, Erikson, & Kivnick, 1986) later writings he explains that generativity would resurface in the eighth stage of adulthood when contemplating whether or not one has lived a meaningful life. These scholars refer to this form of generativity as "grand-generativity" and explain:

> The reconciling of generativity and stagnation involves the elder in expressing "grand-generativity" that is somehow beyond middle age's direct responsibility for maintaininghe world. The roles of aging parent, grandparent, old friend, consultant, adviser, and mentor all provide the aging adult with essential social opportunities to experience grand-generativity in current relationships with people of all ages (p. 74).

According to de St. Aubin (2004), the quality of grand-generativity is different from generativity in that it is much more relaxed, light-hearted, selective and emphasizes familial ties and, in particular, the role of grandparent. Grand-generativity does not have the same anxiety-like characteristic of midlife generativity that carries with it the weight and responsibility of caring for the next generation. Hebblethwaite and Norris' (2011) findings investigating the expression of generativity between grandparents and adult grandchildren support this assertion. Their results revealed that recreational activities lead grandparents to mentor, teach and create family legacies during fun and meaningful pastimes.

It is interesting to note that Erikson and colleagues (1986) emphasize current relationships and kin affiliations as the primary recipients of grand-generativity. Similarly, Carstensen, Isaacowitz and Charles (1999) affirm that when endings draw near one selectively chooses to spend time with close and familiar others. The findings indicate that as people near the end of their careers, the value they ascribe to the role of worker may diminish, which permits them to focus on other, more important roles. Moreover, if mature workers feel unappreciated at work, they may choose to invest their time and energy being generative in a role that is valued and appreciated by close others. In this way, they are regulating their environments to maximize positive emotional experiences and minimize negative ones (Carstensen et al., 1999).

We therefore suspect that as people near the end of their careers and look forward to retirement, they are primarily motivated to express their generative motivations in the form of communal tendencies. That is they enter the second stage of generativity and offer their gifts, be it in the form of a product, service, idea or wisdom, selflessly, to others. Scholars (McClelland, 1989; McAdams, Hoffman, Mansfield & Day, 1996) maintain that strong communal tendencies are expressed through themes of affiliation and intimacy. In other words, communion is manifested as the need for affiliation, defined by McClelland (1980), as the desire to engage in affectionate relationships. We suspect that as people near retirement the need for affiliation will manifest as a desire to spend time with close family and friends outside of the workforce. In this regard, work relationships become less emotionally important than relationships with family and close friends. Here, we draw upon socio-emotional selectivity theory and maintain that retirement is symbolic of the passing of time. Personal goals shift from development to maintenance of the self, and greater importance is allotted to emotionally meaningful relationships. With a limited time perspective individuals focus their attention on pleasurable pursuits, improving the present, maintaining well-being and deepening positive social relationships, as opposed to making investments in the future (Carstensen, Issacowitz & Charles, 1999).

In light of these findings I suspect that older workers who decide to exit the workforce will be motivated to do so in order to pursue interests other than work and to spend time with close and significant others.

Proposition 7: One's decision to retire will be positively associated with a desire to pursue hobbies and interests outside of work

Proposition 8: One's decision to retire will be motivated by the desire to spend time with close others, specifically with one's grandchildren

2.8. Future Directions

According to McAdams, Hart and Maruna (1998) generativity is a dynamic process that manifests in a variety of ways and in response to developmental expectations about time and social roles. Thus, its expression is both fluid and recursive and subject to cultural influences. One does not master generativity, rather it ebbs and flows throughout midlife. In light of the current study's findings, we suspect that generativity has a developmental trajectory that is specific to the domain of work. I also maintain that generativity is a much more complex construct than I initially had thought and that it is most likely fuelled by different motivations as people traverse the various stages of late-career development. Since this area of study is in its inception, I have drawn my assumptions from the psychological literature. As well, like most scholars who study generativity, (Brunstein, Schultheiss & Grassman, 1998: McAdams, 1988; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992; McAdams, Rutzel & Foley, 1986: Peterson & Stewart, 1993) I have chosen to situate generativity within McClelland's (1980) motivational framework because there is evidence that generativity is fuelled by the need for power, achievement and affiliation. In particular, the need for power and the need for accomplishment are regarded as self-assertive motives (Veroff, 1982) and are thus a reflection of agentic motivations, whereas the need for affiliation is indicative of communal tendencies (McAdams, Hoffman, Mansfied & Day, 1996). I assume, as do Veroff, Depner, Kulka and Douvam (1980),that one's motivational state is but one factor, among many, that contributes to behaviour. And, as these researchers do, I maintain that behaviour is a result of both dispositional and situational factors. Therefore, I hypothesize that mature workers are generative, as expressed by their willingness to engage in knowledge sharing behaviours. However, these motivations are likely to change as people move from full-time work to bridge employment and then retirement. I also assume that, over time, the recipients of generative action are likely to change from one's coworkers to one's family members and close others.

The current investigation was a first attempt at studying mature employees' generative motives and desires to continue working past the age of 65. The sample was small, but the information provided was rich and suggestive. Specifically the results imply that colleague and organizational support influence the decision to continue working or exit the labour force and retire. Although organizations do not have direct control over the motivations of their mature workers, they can exert influence over these desires by creating age-friendly workplaces that value expertise. A supportive environment that honours mature experience may encourage older workers to remain on the job past the age of 65, either in a full-time position or as a bridge employee.

In recent years scholars have drawn a distinction between *career bridge employment*, that is seeking a job either with one's current employer or within the same industry, and *non-career bridge employment*, defined as employment outside of one's respective field or current occupation (Shultz, 2003). Zhan, Wang, Liu, & Shulz' (2009) findings indicate that employees who continue working in their respective fields fair better physically and psychologically than their counterparts who opt for non-career bridge employment or retirement. Researchers maintain that the value of bridge employment lies in the opportunity for the individual to maintain similar routines to those prior to retirement (Atchley, 1989). In this regard bridge employment affords the aging worker the occasion for social interaction and financial incentives similar to those derived from full-time employment. Career bridge employment also enables employees to maintain their work role identities (Ashforth, 2001), while simultaneously providing an opportunity to develop new identities outside of work (Wang et al., 2008). Of course organizations also benefit from bridge employment as it enables them to maintain greater control over workforce fluctuations (Davies, 2003; Cappelli, & Novelli, 2010) and retain critical skills and competencies. Retaining mature workers also provides opportunities to initiate knowledge transfer programs (Shultz & Wang, 2011) thereby stemming the tide of lost knowledge.

As a result of these findings, I set out to study mature workers' desires for continued work and their motivations to share their knowledge with their younger colleagues. Specifically, I examined the relationship between the need for power, achievement and affiliation and the influence of these explicit motives on mature workers intentions to work beyond the traditional age of retirement and their desire to share their knowledge. Furthermore, the findings from the current investigation indicated that perceived organizational support and colleague support influenced knowledge sharing behaviours and continued work past the age of 65. I thus decided to explore these relationships and test the propositions put forth in the present study.

Most recently, Ed de St. Aubin (2013) stated, “the growing body of empirical work assures generativity a seat at the table of significant psychological phenomenon” (p.245). I maintain that it’s time for organizational behaviour scholars to assure generativity a place at the management table. I therefore set out to unpack the concept of generativity at work in two follow-up studies.

CHAPTER 3: THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE LATE CAREER MOTIVATION SCALE (STUDY 2)

Introduction

The current investigation sought to address a number of the issues that emerged in the qualitative study with a larger quantitative sample. As such, I decided to create a survey measure that would tap the reasons why some mature employees want to continue working beyond the age of 65, and why others choose to retire. Since the aging of the workforce is a relatively new phenomenon, and scholars have only recently begun investigating the late career motivations of mature workers, I suspect that several important factors might be missing from current survey measures. For example, while some of the participants indicated that they wanted to retire to pursue interests other than work, others expressed that a lack of appreciation by younger colleagues, and fears that their performance was not up to par, motivated their decision to exit the workforce. To my knowledge, these latter two issues have not been addressed by any assessment or workplace inventory investigating reasons for retirement.

Floyd and colleagues' (1992) Retirement Satisfaction Inventory has a 15-item subscale that asks participants to rate the reasons why they chose to retire. This assessment tool was designed to measure satisfaction with retirement by examining the context surrounding the retirement decision. The Retirement Satisfaction Inventory assesses whether or not the retirement decision was involuntary, a result of ill health, workplace pressure or job stress, which may negatively influence one's adjustment to this life phase (Parnes, Crowley, Haurin, Less, Morgan, Mott, & Nestel, 1985). As such, the tool was developed in an effort to help researchers better understand the factors that lead to a successful transition and adjustment in retirement, and for use by counselors and mental health practitioners who design intervention programs for those transitioning to this next life phase (Floyd et al., 1992). In contrast, the late career motivation scale was designed to assess mature workers' reasons for continued work past the age of 65, or reasons for retirement, and the factors that are currently influencing this decision. Thus, the *temporal perspective* of these two scales differs: the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory is a retrospective account of a person's reasons for retirement, and the late career motivation scale is a prospective account of why one may want to continue working or retire. Moreover, the reasons older workers may have retired in 1992, may somewhat differ from those who are contemplating retirement today. For example, it is more common for mature workers today to retire from their career jobs and start their own businesses, than it was when the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory was initially developed. In the past 18 years there has been a rise in new entrepreneurs in the 55 to 64 year old age group, which has increased from 14.8 percent in 1996 to 25.8 percent in 2014 (Fairlie, Morelix, Reedy, & Russell, 2015). This may be one indication that the impetus to retire is different today than it was two decades ago.

In addition, the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory (1992) is composed of four factors that retrospectively assess interests, circumstances, pressure from employer and job stress in order to better understand how these variables influence retirement adjustment. Specifically items measuring *interests* include “wanted time with family” and “wanted time to pursue own interests”. Exemplar items that reflect *circumstances* comprise “reached mandatory retirement age” and “wanted to make room for younger people”. Items that measure pressure from employer constitute “pressured by employer” and “offered incentives”, and lastly items indicating *job stress* encompass “too much stress at work” and “difficulty with physical demands of the job”. The Retirement Satisfaction Inventory was created 23 years ago and thus several items may no longer be as relevant to today’s older workforce as they were when the scale was initially developed. For example, the authors themselves state that the item “reached mandatory retirement age” may limit the relevance of the question to later cohorts of retirees. One may also argue that the item measuring difficulty with the physical demands of work are not as pertinent in today’s knowledge economy. Thus having *an updated measure that is relevant to the current work context* was a third reason for the scale construction exercise.

Moreover, the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory scale does not address issues about people's perceptions’ of their own performance. Today, there is greater opportunity and acceptance of mature employees working beyond 65. There remain, however, inherent challenges to *changing mindsets around late-career employment*. Interestingly enough, it is not only employers and human resource professionals who need to rethink the employability of mature workers, but it is sometimes the mature workers themselves who need to redefine what it means to be a 65-year-old worker in 2016. Although many older employees are physically and cognitively able to work beyond the traditional age of retirement, 65 remains so culturally entrenched that it is still regarded as the age of workforce exit, regardless of one’s health or abilities. The findings from Study 1 suggest that some mature workers believe they are too old to continue working even though there is no evidence indicating that their performance falls short of expected standards. Thus, the fear of being asked to leave due to declining performance may fuel a premature exit. As such, I felt it was important to include survey items that reflect this angst, which may contribute to the reasons why people choose to retire. If older workers self-select out of work because they believe they are too old to continue working beyond the age of 65, human resource professionals and managers can use objective performance measures (such as a performance appraisal) to counter such beliefs, and possibly entice them to remain at work longer.

Furthermore, in contrast to the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory, the Late Career Motivation Scale is concerned with the influence that the *organizational context* may have on one's decision to exit the workforce. Thus, I also wanted the new measure to reflect the realities of working in a mutigenerational organization. Some of the older workers in the previous study exhibited frustration by a *lack of appreciation* and respect from their younger colleagues. Several of the participants perceived the attitude of the younger generation as dismissive and disdainful and felt that generation Y lacked respect for their knowledge and experience, which influenced their decision to retire. They indicated that at this juncture in their lives they did not need to tolerate such treatment. As such, we believed it was important to incorporate survey items that measure older workers' relationship with younger colleagues and whether or not that affects their retirement decision-making. The Retirement Satisfaction Survey (1992) does not include items about generational difficulties or conflict. In fact, the only item about younger colleagues asks respondents if making room for younger workers was one of the reasons that contributed to their decision to retire.

Since the creation of the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory (1992), much controversy has emerged regarding generational differences at work. In the past decade, there has been a plethora of studies investigating generational conflict at work and its intended consequences for organizations. However, making sense of the disparate findings from this literature has been quite challenging, as much of the research has lacked methodological rigor, employed inconsistent measures, used samples drawn from different industries and been mainly cross sectional. The result has been evidence that is often contradictory (Lyons & Kuron, 2013). In their review of the literature, scholars Lyons and Kuron maintain that the popular press has largely exaggerated claims of generational conflict, and the subject requires more stringent examination before we can draw conclusions. They call upon scholars to implement greater methodological rigor in their investigations and include more qualitative work. These findings were particularly important to the investigation. Although few participants in the qualitative study expressed frustration with a lack of respect from younger colleagues, those who did explained that generational conflict did, in fact, contribute to their decision to retire. As such, I included items in the measure that surfaced from the interviews to *assess whether or not generational conflict was indeed reflective of the realities of today's older workers* and the organizational environment in which they are employed.

Additionally, my interest in generativity and the findings that emerged from the data made us eager to create a measure that tapped into workplace generativity and that included items that reflected opportunities to mentor the next generation, to leave a professional legacy and to share one's knowledge and experience. McAdams and De St. Aubin's (1992) Loyola Generativity Scale taps into the construct on a global level. Exemplar items include, "I try to pass along my knowledge I have gained through my experiences", and "I have important skills that I try to teach others". The items are quite general and not specific to the work context. We wanted to ensure that scale items specifically captured *generativity among older workers and their desires to be generative with younger work colleagues*.

Furthermore, I was interested in the *psychological meaning that older workers ascribe to work*. According to Cappeli and Novelli (2010) "our reasons for working may be more complex than simply maximizing our paycheck, and that is especially true for workers around retirement" (p.39). While the AARP (2013) Working in Retirement study revealed that the top main motivator for continued work is financial, it was closely followed by psychological fulfillment. Specifically, respondents indicated that the opportunity to interact with others, and to feel useful and productive were important motivators for continued work. Moreover, 83% of workers identified work as a central component of who they are. Similarly, The Canadian Sunlife Unretirement Index (2015) revealed that of those who want to continue working, 59% expressed a financial need to do so, while 41% indicated a desire to do so. It should be noted that while a majority of respondents plan to continue working past the age of 65, by choice or necessity, the authors explain that the trend is counteracted by the great number of Canadians who plan to retire at the age of 64. While these studies offer insight into the motivations of older employees and their reasons for continued work, one fundamental drawback is the relatively young workers who are included among both samples. Sixty-two percent of respondents in the AARP study included workers between the ages of 45 to 56, 28% between the ages of 57 to 64, and 8% between the ages of 65-74. Sunlife's Unretirement index comprised 3000 workers age 30 to 65. The report does not provide a breakdown of the sample by age. Since we are specifically interested in mature employees' desire to continue working past the age of 65, we thought it was important to create a survey measure that was specifically designed for late career workers 55 years of age and over.

Lastly, it should be noted that not all mature employees desire continued work in order to mentor younger colleagues or share their knowledge. For some, work is central to their self-concept and without their work role identities they would be lost and unsure of how to spend their time. I therefore felt that it was also important to include survey items that reflected *work as a means of providing structure to one's day and by extension one's life*.

The primary objective of Study 2A and 2B was to create a psychometrically sound measure of individual motivations to retire or continue working that goes beyond the existing Retirement Satisfaction Inventory (Floyd et al., 1992) and incorporates factors new to today's context. What follows is a detailed discussion of the steps required to develop a valid and reliable measure which is then followed by the process that I undertook in order to develop the late career motivation scale.

3.1. The development of a reliable and valid scale

The development of a reliable and valid scale requires a seven-step process to ensure that a survey instrument does, in fact, measure its intended construct (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997). Hinkin (1995) maintains that many measures used in managerial research are psychometrically flawed, and thus do not assess the intended phenomenon under study. Moreover, scholars advocate that organizational researchers need to develop measures that are specific to their area of study or industry (Gunderson, Heide & Olsson, 1996). As such, we drew upon Hinkin and colleagues' framework for scale development. Their seven-step process will be outlined below.

Step 1: Item generation

The first step of the scale development process starts with the creation of items that reflect the construct under study. This process can be conducted in one of two ways. Researchers can use an *inductive approach* to item generation whereby they create items from which scales are then developed. This approach is often used to investigate a phenomenon in which there is little or no theory. Researchers ask experts to describe their feelings about their organizational environments or they ask about specific behaviours. Words and themes are then assessed by content analysis and placed into categories from which items are then generated (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997).

Alternatively, researchers can use a deductive approach to item generation in which they draw upon a theoretical definition of the construct from the literature and then proceed to develop items that reflect the definition (Shwab, 1980). The deductive approach to item generation is most often used when there is some theory about the phenomenon being studied (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997).

According to Hinkin, Tracey and Enz (1997) there are numerous rules that should be followed when constructing items such as using simple language and avoiding double-barreled statements. Although there are no rules about the number of items that a measure should contain, it is regarded as good practice to minimize scale items (Thurstone, 1947). Shorter scales minimize response bias, resulting from boredom and fatigue (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). Four to six items per construct are regarded as ideal. Scale-development researchers are advised to generate double the number of scale items, as only half are likely to be retained in the final version of the scale (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997).

Step 2: Content adequacy assessment

The next step involved in the development of a survey measure requires that items be pre-tested so that those that conceptually differ from the construct definition are removed from the scale (Hinkin, 1998). There are several methods that can be employed to affirm the adequacy of the content of the scale (Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Lankau, 1993). A common approach involves having participants sort items into their intended categories based on construct definitions. This method may be conducted using expert raters in a content domain, naïve participants or student populations because the task does not demand an understanding of the underlying subject matter, all that it requires is an understanding of the concept definitions (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991; Schriesheim et al., 1993). An appropriate level of agreement, that is the percentage of people who categorize the items correctly, must be at minimum 75% (Hinkin, 1997).

A second method of assessing content adequacy involves the demonstration of substantive validity put forth by Anderson and Gerbing (1991). Substantive validity is a characteristic of an individual item (Holden & Jackson, 1979) and has a direct relationship to construct validity (Loevinger, 1957). Thus, if a measure does not have substantive validity, it will not have adequate construct validity. Anderson and Gerbing developed two indexes to assess substantive validity. The first method involves the proportion of participants who designate an item to the correct construct, and the second is the degree to which each respondent categorizes an item with the appropriate construct. The advantage of these two methods is that it enables researchers to pretest items with small samples, and establish which items to retain for future use and confirmatory factor analysis (Hinkin, 1997).

Step 3: Questionnaire administration

The objective of the next step in scale development is to assess the psychometric properties of the newly created survey measure with a representative sample of the intended population. To do so, the researcher administers a questionnaire that contains all the items that were retained from the previous step of the content adequacy assessment. In addition to the newly-created measure, other established survey instruments that pertain to the same nomological network should be included in order to determine later how distinct and how similar the proposed measure is to existing scales. The battery of assessments would include scales that the researcher hypothesizes are related to the proposed measure to establish convergent validity, and other measures that are unrelated to the newly designed scale to establish discriminant validity (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997).

Item Scaling: In order for a scale to generate ample variance among participants (Stone, 1978) and adequate reliability estimates (Lissitz & Green, 1975), researchers generally agree that using Likert scales of five or seven points are best (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997) and most useful in behavioural science research (Kerlinger, 1986). Moreover, Hinkin (1998) maintains that Likert scales are most suitable for factor analysis.

Sample Size: There has been much debate in the literature regarding adequate sample size because of its relationship to statistical significance (Hinkin, 1998). While some scholars have suggested that a ratio of an item to a response of 1:4 is sufficient (Rummel, 1970), others maintain that a minimum of 1:10 is required (Schwab, 1980) for each scale that will be assessed by factor analysis. According to Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) a sample size of 150 is acceptable to obtain a solution when employing exploratory factor analysis, providing intercorrelations are sufficiently strong. However, because statistical significance increases as sample size increases, researchers must discern between practical and statistical significance (Cohen, 1969).

Step 4: Factor Analysis

The next step in the process involves conducting a factor analysis to reduce the data set to a smaller number of variables and refine the scales (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997). This step is best accomplished after an examination of the inter-item correlations and removal of any item that is correlated at less than .4 with all other items (Kim & Mueller, 1978), which is an indication that the variables do not belong to the same domain and are adding error and unreliability (Churchill, 1979). Items that load onto a single factor should be retained. A common practice is to establish .40 as the criterion level to determine a factor loading as relevant (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986). Researchers also suggest exploring the communality statistics to assess the proportion of variance in the variable that is determined by each item, and to only keep items with higher communalities. Of equal importance is the assessment of the total item variance. It is common practice to set 60% as the minimum objective criteria by which to judge an item as acceptable. All items that do not meet the above criteria should be removed from the data set, leaving only items that best reflect the content domain of the construct under study (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997).

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After the exploratory factor analysis is conducted the researcher then proceeds to assess the new scales by confirmatory factor analysis. Factor analytic techniques enable a researcher to determine whether or not a group of items adequately represents a content domain, however, one of the shortcomings of this statistical test is the inability to measure the goodness of fit (Long, 1983) of the factor structure due to a lack of external consistency (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988).

Confirmatory factor analysis enables a more stringent assessment of item loadings on factors, and provides an evaluation of the overall factor structure (Hinkin, 1998).

The objective of confirmatory factor analysis is to assess the goodness of fit of the model by comparing a *null model,* whereby items load on different factors, a *single common factor model*, in which items only load on one factor, and a *multi-trait model* in which the number of factors is equal to the number of constructs in the newly developed measure. Researchers Harvey, Billings, & Nilan (1985) advise using the item variance co-variance matrix to conduct the confirmatory factor analysis.

There are over 30 statistics that can be used in order to determine a goodness of fit index when conducting confirmatory factor analyses (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Fetter, 1991). The Chi-square allows for the assessment of a specified model and enables two models to be compared. It is advantageous to have a significantly smaller chi-square for the specified versus competing models. Carmines and Mclver (1981) maintain that a chi-square that is two or three times the degrees of freedom is adequate, however, it is more desirable that the statistic be as close to the degrees of freedom of the model (Thacker, Fields, & Tetrick, 1989). It should be noted that a non-significant chi-square signifies that differences between the model-implied variance and covariance and the observed variance and covariance are likely due to sampling fluctuations and is therefore advantageous (Hinkin, 1998). However, a model that results in a large chi-square can likewise be a good fit providing the indices are high, as the chi-square statistic is especially sensitive to sample size (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1989). As such, it may be more appropriate to use alternative methods such as the *comparative fit index* to assess a single model or the *relative noncentrality index* to assess competing models, which correct for smaller sample size.

Once the overall fit of the data has been assessed, all individual items should be inspected for degree of fit. This is accomplished by selecting an acceptable level of significance, most often $p < .05$ (Bagozzi, Yi, & Phillips, 1991) and testing the null hypothesis that the true value of specified parameters is zero, and therefore the items reflect the constructs under study. Items that are not regarded as good indicators of the scale are then deleted. Subsequently, modification indices are examined in order to determine if there are parameters in the model that contribute explained, but unspecified variance (Hinkin, 1998). If large modification indices do exist, the model should be revised and the analysis should be conducted again, providing there is theoretical justification for assuming that the largest indices will load on the appropriate factor. If all loadings indicate significance at the $P < .01$ level or less, and the magnitude and significance levels of any inapplicable cross loadings are comparatively small, then the data, in fact, fit the model well. Alternatively, if an item that is not relevant exhibits a significant loading then it is likely that the item is tapping more than one construct and should be deleted. The model is then re-specified and the analysis once again conducted which should ultimately result in a smaller chi-square statistic, and the goodness of fit indices should be larger (Hinkin, 1998).

Step 5: Internal Consistency Assessment

After the exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses have been completed, each new scale must be examined for its internal reliability (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988), which is most commonly determined by using Cronbach's alpha (Price & Mueller, 1986). According to Nunnally (1976), a coefficient alpha of .70 is used in exploratory measures and regarded as substantial evidence that the items strongly covary and that the sampling domain has been appropriately captured (Churchill, 1979). At this juncture, if many items are retained, it is good practice to discard items that will improve scale reliabilities. According to Carmines and Zeller (1979), this action is substantiated as a result of the previously conducted factor analysis, which assessed the unidimensionality of each scale (Hinkin, 1998).

Step 6: Construct validation

The next step involved in the scale development process requires the assessment of construct validity. This is accomplished by evaluating the new scale and the extent to which it correlates with measures that assess comparable constructs, *convergent validity* and, *discriminant validity*, the degree to which the new scale does not correlate with measures that are unrelated. It should be noted that the previous stages of scale development ensure that the newly created measure demonstrates a high degree of content validity and internal consistency reliability (Hinkin, 1998).

Step 7: Replication

The last stage of the scale development process involves testing the new measure on a different sample of participants. If the first sample was sufficiently large, it can be randomly divided in half and parallel analyses can be conducted for scale development purposes.

According to Campbell (1976) the use of the same sample to develop and assess the psychometric properties of a new survey instrument can be problematic as it can lead to common source or common method variance. Moreover, Krzystofiak, Cardy and Newman (1988) explain that factor analytic methods may actually result in factors that have a high reliability and that pertain only to the sample under study. Thus, testing the new measure with an independent sample will provide the researcher with greater confidence that the measure is generalizable (Stone, 1978). Additionally, it is good practice to once again test the measure on a new sample if items have been added or deleted (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991; Schwab, 1980) and repeat the scale development process, thereby conducting a confirmatory factor analysis, internal consistency reliability, and convergent, discriminant validity assessments. This process would ensure that the new measure has the psychometric properties of a reliable and valid scale and is appropriate for use in future studies (Hinkin, 1998).

As Hinkin (1998) eloquently states, "scale development clearly involves a bit of art as well as a lot of science" (p.18). The process, if undertaken correctly however, will lead to measures that possess psychometrically sound properties that will enable both researchers and practitioners alike to have confidence in the quality of the data (Hinkin, Tracey, & Enz, 1997).

Next steps

The goal of Study 2A was to perform the first four steps of the survey development process: content analysis assessment, item generation, questionnaire administration and factor analysis. In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the late career motivation scale, I followed the guidelines put forth by Hinkin, Trace, and Enz (1997) as outlined above. Confirmatory factor analysis, convergent and discriminant validity were all explored in study 2B with a different sample. Study 2A involved an initial sample of 16 participants and a follow up sample of 182 participants whose data was used to conduct an exploratory factor analysis and study 2B had a total sample of 147 and was used in order to conduct a confirmatory factor analysis, validation analyses, and hypothesis testing. Hypotheses testing will be discussed in study 3.

3.2. STUDY 2A—METHOD

Steps 1-2: Item Generation and Content Adequacy Assessment

3.2.1. Participants

According to Ghiselli, Campbell and Zedek (1981) pre-test samples should resemble study participants and the population of interest as much as possible. I therefore set out to recruit participants 50 and over. Participants ranged in age from 50 – 79 and were either working or retired. In total 16 participants completed the study and had an average age of 59. Ten of the participants were female and six were male. Eleven participants were currently working in fields as insurance, medicine, pharmaceuticals, dentistry, culinary, advertising and retail sales. The others were retired from professions such as engineering, administration, chemistry, and manufacturing. Participants were recruited from the researcher's network using several methods. First, a post was written on Facebook asking if anyone 50 years and over, and currently employed, would like to participate in a study on work and retirement. Five people replied to the post and were recruited for the study. The other 11 people were recruited via snowball sampling.

3.2.2. Procedure for item generation

I used the inductive approach to create items for the late career motivation scale. As such, I conducted a thorough analysis of the transcripts from the previous interview study in which I asked participants about their intentions to exit the workforce or continue working beyond the age of 65, and how they felt about sharing their knowledge with their younger colleagues. What emerged from the analysis were 49 items and eight different themes. I made every attempt to maintain the integrity of the data by retaining the Study 1 participants' verbatim statements, wherever possible. For example, people gave different reasons for wanting to retire. One such reason, in the participant's words, was because he felt like a "dinosaur," whereas several other respondents indicated that they wanted to retire while "at the top of their game." Others stated that they wanted to continue working past the age of 65, to "have something to do every day," to leave a "footprint" or "stay cognitively engaged." I then grouped all 49 items into 8 categories along with their respective definitions. A detailed list of all 49 items and the category definitions can be found in Appendix A.

I employed an item sort task in order to assess content adequacy. The 16 respondents were each given a sheet of paper with the names and definitions of each of the eight categories that emerged from the content analysis in the previous step. It should be noted that categories are defined in everyday language for easy understanding (Angleitner, John, & Lohr, 1986). In addition, participants received a randomized stack of index cards that comprised all 49 statements that also emerged from the content analysis. Their task was to sort each of the 49 cards into one of the eight categories to which they believed it belonged. The eight categories were each represented by a sheet of paper that contained the category name at the top. All papers were randomly ordered and placed on a table. Once all index cards were sorted, participants were asked to review each of the categories and make adjustments if needed. The objective of this stage is to remove any items that are not consistent with how people view the categories, (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991; Hinkin, 1998). On average the task took 15 to 20 minutes to complete.

In addition, I consulted participants about which response categories would be easiest to rate survey items. Participants were asked to decide if it was easiest to evaluate the statements based on the level of importance, frequency of which they think about each statement or level of agreement. All three-response categories were rated on a 5-point Likert scale, and all response options had a label.

3.2.3. Results of the item sort task

To assess substantive agreement, I evaluated the degree to which each participant placed each item in its respective category (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991). All items that received agreement by at least 14 raters, indicating agreement of 88% or more, were retained.

As a result of the item sort task, 12 items were dropped, reducing the inventory to a total of 37 items. Additionally, ten of the 16 participants indicated that level of importance was the easiest way to answer the survey questions. I therefore retained a 5-point Likert scale with response categories that reflected a range from *completely unimportant* to *very important*. I also added a response option indicating not applicable. It should be noted that this response category is consistent with that used in previous measures of reasons for retirement (Shultz, Morton & Weckerle, 1998).

3.3. STEPS 3-4: QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTRATION & EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

3.3.1. Participants

The data for this phase of the research were collected in two time periods. In the first time period, 93 participants completed the survey online as part of the current study. In the second stage of data collection 101 respondents completed the Late Career Motivation Scale, in addition to a number of other measures that are not part of the current study. In total 194 participants filled out the late career motivation scale, however, due to missing data 12 of the responses had to be removed, resulting in a sample of 182 people.

3.3.2. Procedure

Participants were recruited from the researcher's network. An email was sent to colleagues and friends asking for participation in an online study exploring mature workers' intentions to continue working beyond the age of 65, or retire. I specified that I was looking for employees 55 and over, who were currently working. Participants could not be self-employed professionals or business owners. I also asked that people pass on the email to others who fit the study's criteria. Additionally, I handed out postcards to people who fit the study's criteria requesting participation in an on-line study in exchange for an invitation to attend a pre-retirement seminar about the emotional and social aspects of the retirement transition. Lastly, I recruited participants from the local community center and the continuing education department of one of the city's English-speaking Universities.

3.3.3. Materials

Participants completed a questionnaire that comprised the 37- items that were retained in the first part of this study. Responses were provided on a 1 (*completely unimportant*) to 5 (*very important*) Likert scale, with the option of indicating not applicable. Participants were given the following introduction to the measure: "Have you decided how long you will continue working? Have you decided that you want to retire at a specific time? Are you still trying to decide what to do? We would like to know the reasons that are important to people as they weigh their options in this important career decision. The following statements refer to reasons *why people continue* *working* beyond the traditional age of retirement. Are (were) any of these reasons important to you as you make (made) your decision?"

Once participants completed this section of the scale, they were then asked about their reasons for retiring. Instructions read as follows: the following statements refer to reasons *why people want to retire*. Are (were) any of these important to you as you make (made) your decision? The verbs in parentheses were incorporated into the instructions so as to include those people who may have already made a decision to work past 65, or retire.

3.4. RESULTS - FACTOR ANALYSIS

An exploratory factor analysis was conducted in order to group items into subscales. Principal-components analyses were followed by varimax rotation with eigenvalues greater than one. Only items with a factor loading of 4 or greater were retained. Additionally, in order to establish independent subscales, items that loaded on more than one factor were assigned to the subscale with the highest factor loading. Table 1 displays the factor loadings and the items for each scale. Additionally, the table also contains the eigenvalue for each factor, the percentage of variance accounted for and the alpha coefficient of each scale.

Next, oblimax rotation on the data ($N = 182$) indicated an initial four-factor solution. To improve the fit of the model and create a measure that was more concise, we condensed the number of items to those that were most salient to each factor. As such, we decided to drop three items, which resulted in an improvement in the fit of the model. After several iterations the best fit of the data resulted in a scale that comprised 16 items and four factors. The first two factors represent reasons for continued work .The items that clustered on the same component suggest that factor 1 represents *workplace generativity*, defined as the desire to share one's knowledge and experience with younger co-workers. Factor 2 signifies the *desire for structure and purpose* and is a reflection of the central role that work plays in a person's life. Factor 3 and 4 reflect reasons for retiring whereby factor 3 denotes the desire to retire in order to *pursue other interests*, and factor 4 represents feeling devalued by younger colleagues and wanting leave prior to a decline in one's performance; we named this fourth factor *perceived value*.

We labeled this 16-item measure the *"Late Career Motivation Scale."* Please see table 2 for subscales and items. Further discussion of the retained items will occur at the end of the validation exercise. The next stage involved in the scale development process is to conduct a

Confirmatory Factor Analysis, assess the overall fit of the items, and examine the construct validity of the new measure.

Table 1

Factor loadings, Eigenvalues, % variance and Alphas of the Late Career Motivation Scale

Items	Factors			
	1	2	3	4
Because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning	.253	**.690**	-.204	
To learn and grow from my work	**.698**			
So I can share my knowledge	**.928**			
Because my experience benefits others	**.931**			
So that I have a place to go to everyday		**.915**		
So that I can mentor the next generation of workers	**.709**			
Because work provides me with the opportunity to make a contribution	**.814**			
So that I have something to do everyday		**.887**		
Because my work benefits others	**.857**			
Because I want to go before I am pushed out				**.586**
Because I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues				**.760**
Because I want to travel			**.626**	.211
Because I want to go before I am asked to leave due to declining performance				**.626**
Because my younger colleagues regard me as old			.236	**.749**
Because I don't like my colleagues				**.677**
In order to pursue my passions		-.201	**.959**	
In order to pursue my hobbies			**.657**	.263
Eigenvalue	5.13	2.10	1.33	3.76
% Variance	31	12	8	22
Alpha	.93	.89	.84	.82

Table 2

Exploratory factor analysis subscales and items

Workplace generativity
1. To learn and grow from my work
2. So I can share my knowledge
3. Because my experience benefits others
4. So that I can mentor the next generation of workers
5. Because work provides me with the opportunity to make a contribution
Desire for structure and purpose
6. Because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning
7. So that I have something to do everyday
8. So that I have a place to go everyday
The pursuit of other interests
9. Because I want to travel
10. In order to pursue my passions
11. In order to pursue my hobbies
Perceived value
12. Because I want to go before I am pushed out
13. Because I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues
14. Because I want to go before I am asked to leave due to declining performance
15. Because my younger colleagues regard me as old
16. Because I don't like my colleagues

3.5. STUDY 2B: ASSESSING THE PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES OF THE LATE CAREER MOTIVATION SCALE

3.5.1. Study objectives

The first objective of study 2B was to test the psychometric properties of the Late Career Motivation Scale. I examined *construct validity* by demonstrating that the newly developed measure is related to other variables as specified by the proposed theory (Hinkin, 1998). As such, I set out to validate the later career motivation scale on a new sample of participants. In the section that follows I discuss my rationale for the chosen variables for the validity analyses as well as the convergent and discriminant validity assessments. I then report the results of the confirmatory factor analysis and the validation tests, and finally put forth a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the study.

3.5.2. Construct validity

As mentioned earlier, I used established survey instruments related to similar theoretical constructs in order to determine how the new measure is linked to existing scales. I chose to examine the relation among need for cognition, job tenure and generativity and the four factors of the late career motivation scale in order to demonstrate convergent validity. I measured financial anxiety in order to demonstrate discriminant validity. The proposed relations are described below.

3.5.3. Workplace generativity and need for cognition

According to Cacioppo and Petty (1982), need for cognition is a stable individual disposition in one's engagement and enjoyment of effortful cognitive activity that is believed to vary along a continuum. Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein and Jarvis (1996) maintain that people who are high in need for cognition are similar to magnets, and information akin to iron filings. As such, those high in need for cognition are much more drawn to gathering, analyzing and retaining information than are their low need for cognition counterparts. Need for cognition is believed to denote a motivational disposition and is not reflective of intellectual ability (Cacioppo et al., 1996). Empirical evidence (Amabile, Hill, Hennessey, & Tighe, 1994; Olson, Camp, & Fuller, 1994) suggests that individual differences in need for cognition are due in part to differences in intrinsic motivation. People high in need for cognition are more intrinsically motivated to exert cognitive effort and actively search for information to better understand themselves, relationships and life events. This subsequently results in the accumulation of a greater amount of knowledge in comparison to people who are low in need for cognition (Tidwell, Sadowski & Pate, 2000). People high in need for cognition possess more positive attitudes towards problem-solving and reasoning, frequently engage in activities that require cognitive exertion, such as using technology, and surfing the internet (Bye, 2012), and possess a more elaborate repertoire of successfully solving problems (Cacioppo, Petty & Kao, 1984).

I believe that need for cognition will be positively related to workplace generativity because I suspect that individuals high in need for cognition will want to share the extensive knowledge and experience that they have gained over the span of their careers with their younger colleagues. Furthermore, I suspect that they would welcome the opportunity to mentor younger workers seeing how the process of tacit knowledge exchange involves an ongoing relationship between mentor and mentee in which knowledge is pondered and discussed. As I alluded to in the first study, tacit knowledge transfer requires that the mentee observe the mentor so as to learn the mentor's craft. Because we are not always cognizant of how or why we perform certain tasks, the ability of the mentor to communicate the process or the rationale underlying his methods to an apprentice can be easily hampered. Therefore, the opportunity for a protégé to observe the teacher demonstrate his knowledge, for example in a meeting, or while giving a presentation, enables the student to question the teacher about his diplomatic response to abrasive commentary (Ipe, 2003; Leonard & Swap, 2004). The protégé's question elicits the mentor's knowledge, knowledge he may have long forgotten that he had until it is awakened as a result of being asked. The question then leads to an enriching discussion that encourages reflection and active learning (Leonard & Swap, 2004). I suspect that this very process would be intrinsically motivating for high need for cognition workers because of the very act of having to think through challenging questions, analyze complicated situations and communicate understanding for the protégé. As such, I propose that need for cognition will be related to workplace generativity.

H1: The Workplace Generativity factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale will be positively correlated with Need for cognition

3.5.4. The pursuit of other interests, desire for structure and purpose and job tenure

Work consumes much of our time and energy and is regarded by many as a fundamental life interest. In fact, scholars argue that work is so integral to our identity that involvement or alienation from our work roles can greatly influence the overall quality of our lives (Argyris, 1964; Levinson, 1976). For the employee who is fully involved in his job, the core aspects of his self are deeply engaged in work, in contrast to the employee who feels disconnected emotionally and mentally from his position (Argyris, 1964; Kanungo, 1982). The process of involvement is believed to occur because it satisfies one's psychological needs for personal growth and development within the context of work (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Kahn, 1990). Empirical evidence indicates that employees who are highly involved in their jobs report that they feel satisfied and challenged (Brown, 1996), and exhibit low levels of absenteeism and turnover intentions (Brown, 1996; Shore, Newton, Thornton, 1990). In light of these findings, I suspect that the more years a person has devoted to her position, referred to as *job tenure*, the greater the likelihood that she has come to rely on work to fulfill her needs for structure and purpose. Moreover, I also surmise that employees who are greatly involved in their work, and feel that their jobs meet their psychological needs for growth and development, will have less of a desire to pursue hobbies and interests outside of work. I therefore propose the following:

H2: The Desire for Structure and Purpose factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale will be positively related to Job tenure

H3: The Desire to Pursue Other Interests factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale will be negatively related to Job tenure

3.5.5. Generativity and Perceived Value

According to McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992), generativity becomes increasingly pertinent with age providing it is elicited by cultural demand. More specifically, around the age of thirty, the larger society comes to expect that middle age adults will nurture and care for the next generation. Theorists (Erikson, 1950; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) argue that individuals vary in their generative concern and action, and they maintain that generativity can be expressed in a variety of life domains such as family, religion, politics, community, friendship and the workplace setting. It was the latter arena, the workplace setting, that we wanted to explore to assess individual differences in their desire to mentor younger colleagues and pass on their knowledge and experience at work.

One of the consequences of longer careers, however, is the possibility that mature workers may be labeled "old", making them the target of stereotypical thinking and action (Duncan, 2001). According to Butler (1987), stereotypical beliefs applied to older people are regarded as "ageist". And, like race and gender, age is frequently used as a basis by which people are negatively categorized, often resulting in prejudice and discrimination. Unfortunately, the workforce is not immune from such stereotypical thinking (Perry, Kulik & Bourhis, 1996; Redman & Snape, 2002). Older workers are often categorized as less productive, competent and motivated than their younger counterparts (Chiu, Chan, Snape & Redman, 2001; Hummert, 1999), and they are also perceived as less creative, logical, and able to perform under pressure. Although empirical findings have deemed these relationships largely inaccurate (Cole, 2008), ageist attitudes nevertheless prevail in organizations, consequently straining communication between older and younger workers. In fact, researchers (Hummert & Ryan, 1996) have found that negative stereotypes heighten social distance and increase avoidance of people of different generations.

The latter finding is quite problematic if organizations want older workers to engage in generative behaviours, such as sharing their knowledge with their younger colleagues. McAdams and de St. Aubin's (1992) theory of generativity clearly stipulates that generative behaviour is a result of one's inner desire to care for the well-being of the next generation. However, these researchers maintain that of equal importance is an environment that elicits such behavior. Manheimer (2004) contends that generativity requires both a giver and a receiver. If younger workers disdain their older counterparts and believe that their aging colleagues' experience is obsolete and their knowledge irrelevant, little, if any, knowledge will be exchanged between workers of different generations. Although we may conceive of generativity as a unidirectional relationship from the giver to the receiver, we should not lose sight that the exchange requires a willing and welcoming recipient. As such, I suspect that older workers who feel valued by their younger colleagues will report greater levels of generativity. Specifically, hypothesis four states the following:

H4: The Perceived Value factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale will be positively correlated with Generativity

3.5.6. Convergent and discriminant validity

3.5.7. Generativity and workplace generativity

McAdams and de St. Aubin's (1992) Loyola Generativity Scale was designed to assess individual differences in generative concern in adults. Thus, their scale is comprised of twenty items that reflect passing on one's knowledge, contributing to one's community, caring for other people, creating products, and having a lasting impact. It can be conceived of as a global scale of generative concern. The workplace generativity factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale is comprised of four items that emerged from our scale development exercise. And like generativity it taps an employee's desire to share one's knowledge and skills with the next generation of workers. However, it also assesses one's desire to mentor younger colleagues and one's ambition to learn and grow from one's work. I therefore suspect that workplace generativity will be related to the Loyola Generativity Scale as both constructs are thought to tap the same nomological network. However, I maintain that workplace generativity is a reflection of one's specific desire to be generative in the domain of work, and should not be highly correlated with a global generativity construct, such as the Loyola Generativity Scale. As such we propose the following:

H5: The workplace generativity factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale and generativity will exhibit a positive, but low to moderate, correlation.

3.5.8. Workplace generativity and financial anxiety

I have no reason to suspect that workplace generativity would be related to an individual's evaluation of his/her financial status. The desire to mentor younger colleagues and share one's knowledge and experience with the next generation of workers should be independent of a person's assessment of his/her personal financial situation. Thus, I chose to assess discriminant validity of the workplace generativity factor with a measure of subjective financial well-being. I thus propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: The Workplace Generativity factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale and financial anxiety will not be correlated with one-another

3.6. STUDY 2B: METHOD

3.6.1. Sample

Participants were invited to take part in an online study investigating employees' decisions to continue working past the age of 65 or opt for retirement, and how they felt about sharing their knowledge with younger colleagues. An email was sent to people in the researchers networks and requests were also made via Facebook and LinkedIn. In exchange for participation we invited participants to take part in a pre-retirement planning seminar focused on the emotional and social aspects of this next life stage.

This process generated a total sample of 147 people, 90 female and 57 male participants. 36 held bachelor's degrees or a university certificate, 37 held Master's degrees or a certificate above a bachelor's degree, 19 completed doctorates, 17 completed a non-university certificate or diploma, 9 had some university undergraduate education, 5 had some graduate work, 4 had a high school diploma, 2 people had a degree in dentistry/medicine, 1 had some high school and 17 did not report their educational attainment. The largest group of employees, 54, worked in the educational sector, 16 came from professional fields such as law, finance and accounting, 10 worked in dentistry and medicine, 14 worked in business, sales and customer service, 12 were employed in the technology sector, 5 worked in manufacturing, 4 worked in human resources and 32 indicated that they worked in "other" sectors. 102 people were married or living in a common law relationship, 22 were divorced, 4 widowed and 19 were single. 107 participants had children, and 40 did not. The sample ranged in age from 52 to 76 with a mean age of 59.91 (SD = 4.58). The median age was 59 and the mode was 56. The average length of tenure with an organization was 18.6 years (SD = 12.45) and the average length of time within one's current position was 11.48 years (SD = 12.45).

3.6.2. Measures

The Late Career Motivation Scale was the 16- item scale derived from the previous analysis. Responses were provided on a 1 (*completely unimportant*) to 5 (*very important*) Likert scale. Participants were asked to indicate how important each statement was, or is, in their decision to continue working or retire. All four scales had high reliabilities. Workplace generativity had a reliability of α = .93, desire for structure and purpose had a reliability of α = .89, the pursuit of other interests had a reliability of α = .84, and perceived value had a reliability of α = .82.

The Need for Cognition Scale (Cacioppo & Petty, 1982) is an 18-item measure used to assess a person's enjoyment of cognitive effortful activity. The survey instrument contains items such as "I would prefer complex to simple problems" or "thinking is not my idea of fun" arranged on a 5-point scale from "extremely uncharacteristic of me" to "extremely characteristic of me." Of the 18 items 9 are worded positively and 9 are worded negatively. Higher scores are indicative of a desire and enjoyment of engaging in effortful thinking. An extensive history of empirical investigation has revealed that the scale is a reliable and valid measure and is gender neutral. The coefficient alpha was .86 in the current sample.

Job tenure was measured using one item that asked participants, "how long have you been working in your current position." The mean response was 11.5 years, (SD = 9.6), and ranged from 17 months to 41 years.

Generativity was measured using 19 items from the Loyola Generativity Scale developed by McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992). We removed the item, "If I were unable to have children of my own, I would like adopt" because it wasn't suitable for the current sample of participants in their 50s and older. Exemplar items include, "I think I would like the work of a teacher," "others would say that I have made major contributions to society," and "I have important skills that I try and teach others." Respondents were asked to indicate how often each statement applied to them. Responses categories included never, seldom/occasionally, fairly often and very often/almost always. Coefficient alpha was .81 in this sample.

Financial anxiety was measured using Lowenstein, Prelec and Weber's (1999) money anxiety index, which consists of four questions designed to assess people's subjective perceptions of the sufficiency of their income. Examples of items include, "I have plenty of money to do the things that I enjoy," and "I have sufficient income for my wants and my needs." Responses are recorded on a 4-point scale where a score of 1 indicated strong disagreement and a score of 4 revealed strong agreement with the statement. The coefficient alpha in this sample was .87.

3.7. RESULTS

3.7.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

A Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) using Mplus (Muthén, & Muthén, 2007) was conducted on all 16 items that were retained from the exploratory factor analysis. Each item was assessed based on the factor loadings and the modification indices. Model indices that were twelve or greater were used as a cut-off point in order to indicate substantial improvements to the model. Two items fit this criterion. Item 10, *because work provides me with an opportunity to make a contribution* and item 15, *because I want to go before I am pushed out.* Moreover, item 15 was redundant with item 21, *I want to go before I am asked to leave due to declining performance*. Lastly, item 24, *I do not like my colleagues*, had a very low R-square and seemed to be tapping a different latent variable. As such, it was discarded. Thus, after extensive examination of the analyses, items 10, 15, and 24 were deleted in order to improve the overall fit of the model resulting in a total of 13 retained items. Please see table 3 for a list of the retained items. The resultant scale is composed of 13 items, and a four-factor solution proved the best fit of the data: ($\chi 2$ (59) = 135.35, RMSEA = .09, CFI = .94, TLI = .91, SRMR = .07) as it was found to have a greater fit than the single factor solution:($\chi 2$ (65) = 751.20, RMSEA = .27, CFI = .41, TLI = .29, SRMR = .21) and the two-factor solution ($\chi 2$ (64) = 579.13, RMSEA = .23, CFI = .55, TLI = .46, SRMR = .18). Table 4 presents the results of the CFA with the proposed and alternative factor structures.

Table 3
CFA results indicating a four factor model containing 13 retained items

Workplace generativity
1. To learn and grow from my work
2. So I can share my knowledge
3. Because my experience benefits others
4. So that I can mentor the next generation of workers
Desire for structure and purpose
5. Because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning
6. So that I have something to do everyday
7. So that I have a place to go everyday
The pursuit of other interests
8. Because I want to travel
9. In order to pursue my passions
10. In order to pursue my hobbies
Factor 4: Perceived value
11. Because I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues
12. Because I want to go before I am asked to leave due to declining performance
13. Because my younger colleagues regard me as old

Table 4. Confirmatory Factor Analyses For Proposed and Alternative Factor Structures

Proposed and alternative factor structures	$\chi 2$	df	$\chi 2/\mathrm{df}$	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Four-Factor Model	135.35	59	2.29	0.94	0.91	0.094	0.07
Two Factor-Model	579.13	64	9.05	0.55	0.46	0.23	0.18
One Factor Model	751.2	65	11.56	0.41	29	0.27	0.21

N =184, CFI = comparative factor index, TLI = Tucker Lewis index, RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation

SRMR = standardized root mean square residual

3.7.2. Convergent and discriminant validity

Table 5 reports the correlations among the *Late Career Motivation Scale factors* and the validation variables. Hypothesis 1 examined the association between need for cognition and workplace generativity and revealed that these two variables are related ($r = .27$, $p = .01$). Hypothesis 2 and 3 explored the association between job tenure and the *desire for structure and purpose*, and *the pursuit of other interests*. Results revealed support for both of these hypotheses. Job tenure and the desire for structure and purpose is related ($r = .28$, $p = .001$), and as anticipated, job tenure and the pursuit of other interests is negatively related ($r = -.25$, $p = .001$). Hypothesis 4 examined the relationship between generativity and perceived value. Results revealed support for this hypothesis ($r = .28$, $p = .01$). Hypothesis 5 assessed the relationship between workplace generativity and generativity in order to demonstrate convergent validity. The results of the analysis revealed that workplace generativity and generativity are indeed related to one another, however, the correlation reveals that the two measures are tapping two different constructs as demonstrated by the strength of the correlation ($r = .49$, $p = .01$).

Hypothesis 6 assessed discriminant validity by examining the relationship between workplace generativity and a measure of subjective financial anxiety because theoretically these two constructs should not be related. The result of the analysis revealed support for this hypothesis. As anticipated, workplace generativity and financial anxiety proved to be unrelated ($r = .01$, $p = ns$).

Table 5. *Inter-item correlations among the Late Career Motivation scale factors & Validating Variables*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Workplace Generativity	-	.267**	-.061	-.051	-.141	.274**	.010	.489*
2. Structure & purpose		-	-.380	-.280**	.283**	-.120	.079	-.033
3. Pursuit other interests			-	-.032	-.253**	.106	-.013	-.036
4. Perceived value				-	-.172	.082	-.006	.275**
5. Job tenure					-	-.064	.018	-.141
6. Need for cognition						-	.081	.411**
7. Financial anxiety							-	.085
8. Generativity								-

* p < .05, ** p < .01

3.8. DISCUSSION

My goal was to develop a parsimonious survey measure assessing reasons for continued work and reasons for retirement, in a sample of mature employees 55 and over. What emerged from the analysis was a four-factor measure in which two factors assess reasons for continued work, and two factors assess reasons for retirement.

The first factor, workplace generativity, is composed of the following four items: *to learn and grow from my work; so I can share my knowledge; because my experience benefits others; and so that I can mentor the next generation of workers*. Three items are indicative of an employee's desire to groom younger colleagues and share one's knowledge and experience. One item, however, to learn and grow from my work, is reflective of older workers' desires to continue working for purposes of professional development. Thus, as Cappeli and Novelli (2010) maintain, our reasons for working are complex and involve a multitude of factors. While the desire to be generative and share one's knowledge with younger colleagues is of paramount importance to this sample of workers, they are also personally motivated to further develop their skills and knowledge. Both of these issues should pique the interest of employers in sectors of the economy that are currently facing labour shortages. One solution is to tap into existing talent pools, such as mature workers, who want to groom younger colleagues while continuing to develop their own skills and knowledge.

The second factor, *desire for structure and purpose*, is comprised of three items that also relate to reasons for continued work but seem to reflect a different motivation for wanting to do so. The three items that compose this factor are: *because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning; so that I have something to do every day; and so that I have a place to go to every day*. For some people work is clearly a way in which to structure their lives. And as the findings of the current study indicate, the longer an employee has been working in the same position, the greater is the desire for structure and purpose. Lending further support to this assertion is the result from the most recent American Association of Retired People study, *staying ahead of the curve* (2013), in which 40% of respondents affirmed that they regard work as an opportunity to feel useful and stay busy.

In addition to providing structure, work also serves to satisfy one's psychological needs for competence, achievement and contribution (Smyer & Pitt-Catsouphes, 2007). Thus, if such needs are being met at work, then a person may feel little desire to pursue interests outside of work. This may explain why our data revealed a negative relationship between job tenure and the third factor of the Late Career Motivation scale, *the desire to pursue other interests*. This factor is composed of three items: *because I want to travel; in order to pursue my passions; and, in order to pursue my hobbies*. This factor is quite similar to that of the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory (1992). However, the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory contains two other items that relate to a spouse wanting his/her partner to retire and an item that reads wanting to make room for younger colleagues. Interestingly, I had several similar items in both the item sort task and the first questionnaire administration, but they did not load onto any of the Late Career Motivation factors and were therefore dropped from subsequent analyses. The results may suggest that different variables are currently influencing people's decision to retire, in comparison to the reasons that were of paramount importance when the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory was first created.

Lending support to the argument that different variables are currently contributing to employees' reasons for retirement is the issue of generational differences. More specifically, items reflecting a lack of appreciation of older workers' knowledge and experience were not part of the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory (1992), yet, they did surface in our sample and comprise two items on the fourth factor of the Late Career Motivation Scale. This last factor, *perceived value*, reflects respondents' perception of their value as defined by themselves and their younger colleagues. This factor is composed of the following items: *I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues; I want to go before I am asked to leave due to declining performance, and my younger colleagues regard me as old*. This scale contains two statements about younger workers' conception of their mature colleagues and a third item that illustrates the desire to maintain control over one's decision to exit the workforce while still performing at the top of one's game, thus adding value to the organization. This item is perhaps one of the most intriguing findings to surface from our data, as it suggests that mature workers may be hesitant to continue working beyond the age of 65 because they are unsure of their abilities to perform at satisfactory levels. This was a theme that emerged in several interviews with our retirees in the previous study. Thus, although mature workers may be cognitively and physically capable of continued work beyond the age of 65, they may choose to self-select out of work because of concerns over their abilities to meet performance standards.

When I probed participants about this very issue in my interview study and asked whether or not anyone had expressed concern over their performance, all responded no. Moreover, when asked if they, themselves, felt that their performance had started to diminish, they all responded no. Thus, this item may reflect an outdated mindset in which participants inaccurately equate 65 with old age and decreased abilities, which may partly explain their reasons for retiring. Furthermore, it may also explain why the other two items loaded on this factor. Whether or not younger workers do in fact regard their older colleagues as old, or if it is mature employees' own perception of how they are viewed by younger co-workers, both feed into ageist stereotypes of an older worker's capabilities and fuel the belief that 65 is synonymous with retirement age.

3.8.1. Limitations and Conclusion

The consequence of negatively labeling older employees as old, whether it is other's categorization of mature workers or a self-imposed descriptor that they ascribe to themselves, has detrimental effects. Firstly, as Desmette and Gaillard's (2008) findings indicate, when an employee comes to identify him/herself as a member of the "older worker" stigmatized group, he/she may disengage from work. According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1997), this process occurs because "labels tend to become reified as objective and normative accounts of social reality" (p.48). People search for environmental cues and role definitions to determine and model appropriate behaviour, and they come to believe that the labels imposed upon them are an accurate, valid and objective depiction of themselves, or of the category to which they belong. As such, stereotypes impress upon the stereotyped group erroneous beliefs about their capabilities, which members, in turn, adopt as true (Greller and Stroh, 1995). In other words, one way that stereotypes influence behaviour is through the self-fulfilling prophecy. Such thinking can be detrimental as it results in disillusionment and demotivation (Capowski, 1990). Crocker and Major (1989) maintain that psychological disengagement from work is a coping mechanism by which the older employee comes to lose interest and devalue the domain in which he/she has been stigmatized, thereby reducing stigma-related stress. As such, if older workers come to believe that they are old, and their knowledge is obsolete, they will refrain from sharing their expertise with younger colleagues. In this regard, they will abstain from being generative. The theory of generativity (McAdams & St. Aubin, 1992) clearly stipulates that for people to be generative, they must deem that which they wish to offer as a gift, whether in the form of a product or as a piece of sage advice, to be worthy of contribution. The data from the current study support this claim as a relationship was found between perceived value and generativity. Thus, if older workers adopt the perspective that their accumulated knowledge and experience is irrelevant, they will, in turn, believe that they have nothing of value to offer their younger colleagues.

The development of the Late Career Motivation Scale has proven to be a fruitful endeavour. The results provide evidence of the usefulness of this scale as a measure of the different motives of mature workers. Moreover, the findings suggest that individual factors, such as need for cognition and job tenure, are linked to late career motivation. More specifically, need for cognition was found to be related to workplace generativity, indicating that mature workers who are high in need for cognition want to share their knowledge and mentor younger colleagues. This finding may shed light on who, amongst late-career workers, would make for the best candidate to mentor younger colleagues. Also of interest were the findings that job tenure was positively related to older workers' desire for structure and purpose, and negatively related to desire to pursue other interests. I reasoned that the longer one has worked in a particular job, the more likely one is to rely on work as a way of providing structure and purpose to one's life, thereby decreasing one's need to pursue interests and hobbies outside of work. Lastly, my data revealed that there exists a relationship between perceived value and generativity, suggesting that mature workers need to feel that their knowledge and experience is of value to their younger colleagues for them to engage in generative action.

Of course, these findings are correlational, and there may be alternate explanations for these relationships. For example, job tenure may be positively correlated with the desire for structure and purpose because people do not know how else they would structure their time if they didn't work and not because they identify with their work roles, or love what it is that they do. Thus, exploring the relationships between job tenure and desire for structure and purpose by integrating concepts such as *job involvement* would help us discover whether employees choose to remain at work because they identify with what they do, or because work provides a structure for their lives that they otherwise wouldn't have if they retired. Likewise, job tenure may be negatively correlated with the desire to pursue other interests because the nature of work has radically changed in the past decade (Health Canada, 2008). Employees are demanding work arrangements that enable them to better balance workplace responsibilities with family obligations. In response, employers have adopted workplace practices such as *flextime* in which arrival and departure times are set around "core" business hours in which employees are expected to be at work. For example, core hours may be set from 11:00 am to 3:00 pm allowing the employee the flexibility to work his schedule around the hours he is required to be in the office. *The compressed work week*, another alternate work arrangement, entails being off one day a week in exchange for working a longer workday during the week. Twenty-three percent of Canadian businesses have implemented flextime and 14% have instituted the compressed workweek (Health Canada, 2008). The availability of these work schedules may help mature employees to better structure their time so that they can pursue interests and hobbies outside of work. In other words, people may be living more balanced lives and working may no longer mean that one has to delay the pursuit of hobbies or other interests until retirement. Today, work schedules may allow for engagement in both activities simultaneously. Future research should take into account this possibility. Moreover, these relationships require more extensive study of a longitudinal nature to determine causality.

Additionally, the late career motivation scale necessitates further validation for us to be confident that it is, in fact, generalizable to other samples (Stone, 1978). Although I established convergent and discriminant validity for the workplace generativity scale, I did not do so for the other three factors. Also, the results of the CFA required the deletion of three survey items to attain the best fit of the model for the data. As such, the scale must be tested on a new sample and the scale development process repeated (Hinkin, 1998).

Although the current study revealed a number of interesting results, I wanted to further explore the antecedents of the Late Career Motivation Scale and examine individual motives, and contextual variables relating to the organizational environment. Additionally, findings from study 1 suggest that individual motives and the organizational environment contribute to outcomes such as knowledge sharing and the likelihood of continued work. These relationships will be explored in Study 3.

3.8.2. Practical Implications

One of the more important results to emerge from the development of the Late Career Motivation Scale was the *Workplace generativity* factor and the finding that older workers want to learn and grow from their work. Mature workers' desire for continued professional development is a need most often neglected by organizations (Grelller & Simpson, 1999; Czaja & Sharit, 2009; Postuma & Campion, 2009). Older employees are often passed over for training and development opportunities because they are regarded as having less potential than their younger counterparts and employers don't believe they will receive a return on their investment. Research findings, however, indicate that "payback" periods for training investments usually require 3-5 years (Greller & Simpson, 1999). Thus, as Greller and Simpson point out, "even 60 year olds may well have that much career ahead of them!"(p. 335). One of the key findings from Armstrong-Staseen and Ursel's (2009) study investigating perceived organizational support and training and development practices in a sample of older Canadian employees, revealed that firms that offer opportunities to upgrade one's skills and acquire new knowledge are regarded as more supportive than firms that don't offer such initiatives. Moreover, such practices influence employees' intentions of remaining with their employers. According to a study conducted by Manpower (2007), organizations are not investing in the retention of older workers because they do not know what to do in order to make their firms more attractive to mature employees. I argue, as do Armstrong-Staseen and Ursel, that training initiatives for older workers is one solution that would aid retention.

Additionally, the Late Career Motivation Scale may shed light on who wants to continue working beyond the traditional retirement age. In light of an anticipated skills shortage organizations should not only be concerned about retaining older workers, but they should also focus on retaining workers who want to share their knowledge and mentor younger colleagues. Of course it is not always easy to distinguish workers who want to share their knowledge and experience from those who do not. However, findings from the current study revealed that those high in need for cognition tend to display greater levels of workplace generativity. Older workers who have a need to engage in complex and challenging cognitive tasks may therefore relish the opportunity to engage in training and development opportunities and serve as mentors to younger colleagues. In this regard, organizations can both retain and build upon their current knowledge base while ensuring that knowledge is transferred from older workers to their younger counterparts. Seeing how knowledge transfer is a key component of the knowledge creation process and is paramount to a firm's competitive advantage (Argote, Beckman & Epple, 1995; Baum & Ingram, 1998), it would be wise for organizations to rethink their training and development practices as well as what initiatives would inspire older employees to perceive their organizations as supportive of their personal and professional well-being.

Lastly, the *Perceived Value Factor* of the Late Career Motivation Scale may also prove fruitful in assessing diversity challenges. Low scores on this factor may signify an opportunity for employers to debunk ageist stereotypes by offering diversity-training seminars to both young and mature workers alike. This may serve two purposes: one, aging workers may reconsider their decision to retire and opt to continue working beyond the age of 65; and two, younger workers may start to rethink their outdated views of their older counterparts.

The results of the Late Career Motivation Scale suggest that the retirement landscape is indeed changing. Two decades ago when the Retirement Satisfaction Inventory (Floyd et al., 1992) was devised generational differences had yet to emerge in academic circles or the popular press as workplace challenges, alternate work schedules had yet to be established, and working beyond 65 was perceived as avant-garde by the boomer generation. Today, we are starting to contemplate age-friendly workplaces that accommodate all four generations, and we are beginning to reconceptualise age as a marker of productivity. The Late Career Motivation Scale can help employers shed light on mature workers desires to share their knowledge and experience with younger colleagues and also how mature workers perceive their organizations. This in turn should help foster the beginning of a conversation surrounding employment practices that meet the needs of aging workers and that foster knowledge sharing cultures.

CHAPTER 4: LATE CAREER MOTIVATION, KNOWLEDGE SHARING BEHAVIOURS & DESIRE FOR CONTINUED WORK (STUDY 3)

Introduction

Among the many rewards derived from work are engagement in meaningful activity and social interaction. Indeed, the pursuit of purposeful activity plays a notable role in a life well lived (Mobily, Lemke & Gisin, 1991). Likewise, personal relationships and bonds of friendship among colleagues meet our need for approval and belonging. Organizational membership fosters a shared identity, so much so that strong emotional ties often prevent employees from leaving their respective organizations, even when there is promise of greater financial reward (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). Bergami and Bagozzi (2000) maintain that organizational membership is one of the most important sources of group affiliation because of the amount of time that people spend at work. And Pratt (1998) contends that membership in an organizational community satisfies our most existential need – the desire for a purposeful life. In this regard, organizations provide employees an arena in which to pursue meaningful work, opportunities to develop intimate relationships and a shared identity with similar others. In essence, work imbues our lives with meaning and purpose.

Of course, I do not mean to suggest that purposeful pastimes and heartfelt relationships do not exist external to the workforce. However, longer and healthier lifespans have made the pursuit of late careers possible. Thus, if older workers are engaged in meaningful work, enjoy close colleague relationships and desire the opportunity for achievement and the occasion to mentor others, do they choose to continue working or are there other factors that pull these individuals towards retirement? I wondered if the very structure of organizational life, with its opportunity for accomplishment and goal pursuit, is attractive to mature employees and influences their desire for late-career employment.

At the same time, the world's population is aging and organizations are facing skills shortages. Mature workers, who have accumulated knowledge and experience over their careers, can serve to fill this knowledge gap, should they want to remain at work past the traditional retirement age. Moreover, they can share their knowledge and experience with their younger counterparts, enabling knowledge continuity from one generation of workers to the next. As was previously discussed, knowledge sharing is an essential component of the knowledge creation cycle, leading to new and improved product and service innovations. However, knowledge sharing requires a supportive and nurturing environment characterized by warm, trusting and affective interpersonal relationships (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). As such, I wondered if mature employees have a generative desire to share their knowledge with their younger counterparts, and want to groom the next generation of workers.

The findings from my first two studies led me to believe that the organizational context and individual motives do influence older employees' desire to share their knowledge, and their intention of continued work. More specifically, strong ties between colleagues, and the desire to maintain affectionate relationships with others, emerged as possible antecedents of knowledge sharing behaviours. Additionally, I suspected that employee perceptions' of their organizations as caring entities concerned about worker well-being, referred to in the literature as *perceived organizational support*, would in turn influence knowledge sharing behaviours and intention of remaining with one's organization. I was also interested in exploring if the achievement and power motives are related to an older employee's desire for continued work. What follows is a detailed discussion of the study's key variables. I start by reviewing the literature on perceived organizational support and support for colleagues, then examine the research on individual motives and explain the rationale behind the proposed hypotheses.

4.2.1. Perceived organizational support

When a person is fairly treated there is a moral obligation to repay in kind the favourable treatment (Gouldner, 1960). The exchange of benefits may include tangible resources such as money, services or information, as well as intangible emotional rewards such as appreciation, respect or liking (Batson, 1993; Blau, 1964). The principle of reciprocity strengthens the relationship between two people and it also serves to reinforce the relationship between employee and employer (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001). The latter is referred to in the literature as *perceived organizational support* (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). Specifically, employees who feel fairly treated by their organizations tend to compensate by behaving in ways that advantage their employers (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Rousseau 1989).

Perceived organizational support is defined as "a general perception concerning the extent to which the organization values [employees'] general contributions and cares for their wellbeing" (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMaestro, 1990, p. 51). The theory stipulates that perceived support develops as a result of employees' tendency to attribute human-like characteristics to organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, if a firm's agents behave uncharitably or charitably, workers will attribute such behaviour to the firm itself and not to the motivations of the firm's agents (Levinson, 1965). This perception is aroused by the belief that an organization is legally, financially and morally responsible for the behaviour of its workers; by an organization's culture, norms, policies and traditions that dictate employee conduct; and agents' possession of power and influence over individual workers (Levinson, 1965). Thus, disrespectful or respectful treatment is regarded as a reflection of whether or not the organization likes or dislikes an employee, which, in turn, determines the employee's commitment towards the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). When employees perceive that their firms value their contributions and care about their wellbeing, they reciprocate with increased performance, commitment, extra-role behaviours (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and intention of continued participation (Allen, Shore & Griffith, 2003).

Of particular interest to the current study is the relationship between perceived organizational support and extra-role behaviours (Katz, 1964), also referred to in the literature as *organizational citizenship behaviours* (Organ, 1988) or prosocial behaviours (Brief & Motowildo, 1986). In recent years, there has been a proliferation of research conducted on extra-role behaviours and its close cousins, organizational citizenship behaviour (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Lepine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002) and prosocial organizational behaviour (Brief & Motowildo 1986; George, 1990; Grant, 2007). Although there are differences between these categories of behaviours, there is consensus among scholars that all belong to the same nomological network (Kane, Magnusen, & Perrewe, 2012). Such behaviours include promoting a positive workplace culture, assisting colleagues, safeguarding organizational resources, accepting disturbances and annoyances without grievance and engaging in acts that are not part of one's general workplace responsibilities (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Katz, 1964). In short, one may conceive of such behaviours as going beyond the call of duty. Obviously, such behaviours cannot be mandated by an organization, yet, they significantly influence firm success (Katz, 1964) as they provide additional resources and eliminate the need for official processes or procedures (Organ & Konovsky, 1989), and protect the formal system from becoming overwhelmed (Barnard, 1938). For example, an altruistic employee assists others with work related problems, which clearly contributes to the functioning of the organization, yet is not formally rewarded by the firm. Findings indicate that perceived organizational support is related to organizational citizenship behaviours (Witt, 1991), and prosocial behaviours (Brief & Motowildo, 1986) such as helping coworkers and volunteering innovative and constructive solutions to organizational challenges (Eisenberger et al., 1990; Lynch Eisenberger & Armeli, 1999; Moorman, Blakely, & Niehoff, 1998).

My specific interest in the mentioned relationships lies in the commonalities that knowledge sharing behaviour shares with organizational citizenship behaviour. Just like organizational citizenship behaviours, firms depend on the good will of their employees to share their knowledge and expertise, as they cannot mandate them to do so (Kim & Mauborgne, 1998). Thus, I anticipate that mature employees who feel that their organizations support their personal and professional well-being are more likely to reciprocate by sharing their knowledge with younger co-workers. More specifically I hypothesize the following:

H1: Perceived organizational support will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours.

I also suspect that older employees who perceive their organizations as supportive will want to pursue continued work past the age of 65. Previous research findings indicate that employees who feel greater support from their firms compensate by continued participation in their organizations (Allen, Shore & Griffith, 2003; Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, the findings from Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel's (2009) study lend further support to this relationship. Their study, investigating Canadian professional and managerial employees 50 and older, indicated a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and intention to remain with their respective organizations. As such, I propose the following:

H2: Perceived organizational support will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work past the age of 65

Similarly, I argue that if a mature worker perceives low levels of support from her organization, she will be more likely to opt for retirement (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Wayne, Shore & Liden, 1997). My rationale for this argument stems from the retirement literature, which describes reasons for retirement as falling into two camps (Feldman, 1994; Hardy & Quadango, 1995). *Push factors* are defined as negative reasons for retirement, such as poor health, the need to care for a loved one or dislike of one's job. I assume that low levels of perceived organizational support would likely belong to this category of factors. Alternatively, *pull factors* are perceived as positive reasons for retirement and include the desire to pursue activities other than work. Thus, I suspect that push factors are likely to have an impact on pull factors. More specifically, if older employees' needs are not being fulfilled at work, I suspect that they start looking at activities outside of the workplace to meet these needs, making other interests more salient. I, therefore, surmise that mature employees who perceive low levels of support from their organizations, and want to pursue travel and other interests, will likely choose to retire. As such, I propose the following:

> *H3: The desire to pursue other interests will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work*

Additionally, Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-LaMaestro (1990) maintain that organizational support bolsters the likelihood that an employee will integrate the concept of organizational membership into his/her self-identity. The process of identifying as an organizational member has implications for knowledge sharing behaviours. More specifically, Kramer, Brewer and Hanna's (1996) findings indicate that identification with a collective heightens interest and involvement in the collective's outcomes. As such, Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) argue that collective membership acts as a resource to motivate knowledge sharing behaviours. Lewicki and Bunker's (1996) findings are evidence that group identification increases occasions for knowledge exchange, and the frequency in which individuals engage in cooperative behaviour (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998). In contrast, groups that have different identities may face serious impediments to knowledge sharing, learning and the creation of new knowledge (Child & Rodrigues, 1996; Simon & Davies, 1996). This latter finding is specifically relevant to the current study because age has been found to be one of the most salient cues for social categorization (Brewer & Lui, 1989). Moreover, it is linked to prejudice and discrimination (North & Fiske, 2012), resulting in strained communication (Hummert & Ryan, 1996) and increased avoidance of people of different generations. In this regard, if age serves to differentiate these two groups of employees, and these differences overshadow their common identity as organizational members, this will reduce contact between the generations of workers in face-to-face communications (Hornsey & Hogg, 2000). Furthermore, if older workers feel that their younger colleagues perceive them as old and their knowledge outdated, they may, in turn, devalue their own expertise (Crocker & Major, 1989; Desmette & Gaillard, 2008; Greller and Stroh, 1995) and feel little reason to impart it to others. Accordingly, Greller and Stroh maintain that such beliefs may even result in older employees choosing to retire, despite their desire to continue working. Maurer (2001) demonstrated that exposure to negative age stereotypes influences older workers' confidence in their abilities to participate in learning and development exercises. Likewise, Levy's (1996) findings indicated that subliminal exposure to negative age stereotypes could modify one's self-perception. For example negative stereotypes of aging affected older participants' memory performance, memory self-efficacy and perception of aging in general.

As the above findings indicate, negative stereotypes of older workers can result in older employees' complete withdrawal from the workforce (Greller & Stroh, 1995). In other words, mature workers will come to display low levels of *self-efficacy*, defined by Bandura (1997) as the belief in one's ability to perform a particular task, and an essential component of knowledge transfer (Cho, Li & Su, 2007). According to the findings of Cho and colleagues, when people are confident in their ability to share valuable information, they are highly motivated to do so. Moreover, Constant, Kiesler and Sproull (1994) maintain that when people share useful expertise, they increase their sense of self-confidence, which in turn serves as a motivator to share their knowledge (Bock & Kim, 2002). However, if people display low levels of self-efficacy and devalue their own knowledge then I surmise that they may choose to retire. I therefore postulate the following:

H4: Employees' perception of the value of their own knowledge will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and knowledge sharing behaviours.

H5: Employees' perception of the value of their own knowledge will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work.

4.2.2. Support from co-workers

According to Ghoshal and Moran (1996), firms have an *organizational advantage* over markets because of their ability to quickly and efficiently create and transfer knowledge. More specifically, one of the main advantages accrued to firms is their ability to transfer tacit knowledge (Kogut & Zander. 1993; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). These authors contend that tacit knowledge transfer requires organizational conditions that foster high levels of *social capital*. The concept of social capital first originated in community studies to illuminate the influence that strong, trusting personal relationships, characterized by cooperation and collective action, have on the survival and success of city neighbourhoods (Jacobs, 1965). Scholars have since applied the term to a multitude of disciplines including management (Baker, 1990). More recently Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) have put forth a theory of social capital to explain the creation and dissemination of intellectual capital. They define *social capital* as, “the sum of the actual and potential resources embedded within, available through, and derived from the network of relationships possessed by an individual or social unit” (Nahapiet & Goshal, 1998, p. 243). Nahapiet and Ghoshal argue that there are three interrelated attributes of social capital that are important to its development, which include structural, cognitive and relational dimensions. The *structural dimension* refers to an employee’s network of connections and can be characterized by the strength of ties between people, where an employee is situated in the organizational hierarchy and the density of his/her network. The *cognitive facet* refers to shared meanings and interpretations. It can be conceived of as a common language necessary for communication and understanding. And lastly, the *relational dimension* pertains to the quality of one’s relationships. The relational dimension refers to the development of relationships over time and is characterized by friendship, respect and influence. It is through the relational dimension that employees meet their needs for approval, status, and prestige. I am most concerned with the relational dimension as it provides a description of the conditions required for tacit knowledge transfer, as it’s in these relationships that knowledge is exchanged and new knowledge created (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Nahapiet and Ghoshal’s (1998) conception of relational capital is quite similar to Granovetter’s (1973) description of strong ties. Such relationships are defined by interpersonal connections in which people trust, identify, and share an affective bond and affinity for one another (Bolina, Turnley & Bloodgood, 2002). In short, relational capital is characterized by people who know, like, and trust one another. These relational assets facilitate the transfer of knowledge from one colleague to another, and without this, knowledge sharing will not occur. In fact, according to Szulanski (1996), one of the greatest challenges of sharing knowledge between organizational departments is strained relationships.

These findings are of particular interest to the current investigation. In my interview study, I asked participants how they felt about sharing their knowledge with younger colleagues. Several participants reported that they would welcome the opportunity and would even avail themselves after retirement, should their successors require assistance. It was clear that these individuals had an affinity for their younger colleagues and wanted to facilitate their growth and development. Others in the sample, however, were quite adamant about leaving their respective organizations and never wanting to be contacted. The latter group expressed ill feelings towards their younger colleagues. Previous research findings and my results from study 1, lead me to believe that for older workers to share their knowledge and experience with younger colleagues, there must exist a positive and warm relationship. In other words, workforce relationships need to be characterized by strong ties, and arduous relationships will serve as a barrier to successful knowledge sharing behaviours. In sum, I argue that knowledge sharing behaviour requires positive relationships in order to flourish. I, therefore, propose the following:

H6: Colleague support will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours

In addition, I wanted to further explore the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour by examining whether or not older workers' motivation to share their knowledge can be explained by their desire to be generative with their work colleagues. Here, I once again invoke Carstensen and colleagues' (1999) socio-emotional selectivity theory and McAdams and de St. Aubin's (1992) theory of generativity. Research indicates that older workers attribute more importance to the intrinsic benefits derived from work than to extrinsic rewards that may have been accorded greater prominence earlier in life (Kooij, De Lange, Jansen, Kanfer, & Dikkers, 2011). Thus, meaningful work may trump the importance of money, and success may come to be associated with significance as opposed to status. Socio-emotional selectivity theory (1999) posits that as endings draw near purposeful goals and meaningful relationships become increasingly important, and there is a heightened focus on creating positive interactions. I therefore argue that as an employee approaches retirement, one of the ways in which to engage in emotionally gratifying experiences is to share one's knowledge and experience with others. Research findings reveal that people are intrinsically motivated to share their knowledge because helping others is rewarding, and participating in problem-solving and intellectual pursuits is both cognitively challenging and fun (Wasko & Faraj, 2000). And here I draw upon McAdams and de St. Aubin's theory (1992) of generativity, however, I maintain that it is *workplace* generativity that will motivate older employees to want to share their knowledge and experience with their younger counterparts and groom the next generation in the context of work. Thus, if older employees share warm, trusting and supportive relationships with their younger colleagues, I hypothesize that they will be more likely to contribute to their professional development and advance their careers, by way of sharing their knowledge and experience. As such, I propose the following:

H7: Workplace generativity will mediate the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviours

4.2.3. Individual Motives: Achievement, Power and Affiliation

The theory of generativity (Erikson, 1963; McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) proposes that generative behaviour is a result of environmental factors that elicit a person's innate desire to care for the next generation. This innate desire is fuelled by three explicit motives: achievement, power and affiliation. Having discussed the workplace environment in terms of perceived organizational support and colleague support, I will now focus our attention on the "big three" motives (McClelland, 1995) and their relationship to knowledge sharing behaviours and the likelihood of continued work.

According to McClelland and colleagues (1989), individual motivation is fuelled by *explicit motives*. Explicit motives are also referred to as self-attributed motives, and are the conscious explanations that people assign to their behaviour. For example, a person who is hardworking may describe herself as "achievement oriented" (Kehr, 2004). Explicit motives govern voluntary behaviour and are heavily influenced by societal expectations and normative pressures (Koestner, Weinberger, & McClelland, 1991; McClelland, 1985). These motives manifest as spontaneous responses to specific situations or stimuli. As such, they reflect people's choices and attitudes. In other words, explicit motives govern our preferences. The achievement-oriented person will, therefore, develop a preference for attaining high grades or excelling at work (Kehr, 2004). Explicit motives develop after one has acquired language skills and an understanding of the social expectations imposed by the larger culture (Koestner, Weinberger, & McClelland, 1991).

McClelland (1995) refers to the "big three" classes of motives as achievement, power and affiliation. The *achievement motive* is conceived of as a persistent concern with surpassing standards of excellence (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1992). The *power motive* is defined as the desire to have an impact on others by influencing, persuading, assisting, disputing or attacking (Winter, 1973; McClelland, 1975). And the *affiliation motive* is defined as the desire to establish, maintain or rebuild affectionate relationships with others (Atkinson, Heyns, & Verooff, 1954). Motives do not on their own determine behaviour, rather motives predict behaviour in response to particular incentives. More specifically, McClelland and colleagues (1989) argue that explicit motives are activated by *social incentives*, comprised of environmental characteristics such as rewards, demands, norms, prompts and expectations, provided by a boss, colleague or a group. For example, people who value achievement perform better in laboratory studies in which high performance expectations are explicitly conveyed to participants (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, & Lowell, 1992). Thus, people motivated by a sense of achievement respond positively to high social expectations such as the pursuit of excellence.

Additionally, explicit motives predict behaviour in response to social incentives, which are constrained by highly controlled environmental circumstances. Such behaviour is referred to as *respondent behaviour.* Behaviours are classified as respondent when it can determined what led to their formation (McClelland, 1980).

In an organizational setting, managers have a certain degree of control over the environmental context and can, therefore, influence employee behaviour. Our results from study 1 lead me to believe that organizations can create environments that either help or hinder knowledge sharing behaviours, and the likelihood that an employee will work beyond the traditional age of retirement. More specifically, if a mature employee values *achievement* and work affords her the opportunity to engage in challenging tasks and meaningful activities, there is probably a greater likelihood that she will desire continued employment. Likewise, I argue that a person who is driven by *power* will also want to work past the age of 65 in a capacity in which he can fulfill the desire to be influential, such as in the role of mentor. Of course these motives need to be nurtured by organizational practices that afford older workers the opportunity to engage in interesting work and the occasion to mentor younger colleagues. As such, firms that provide *social incentives*, such as the reward of challenging work, and the opportunity to act a mentor to younger colleagues, will likely elicit motives of achievement and power. In turn, these motives should influence respondent behaviours in the form of continued work past the age of 65 and knowledge sharing behaviours. I therefore propose the following:

> *H8: A strong achievement motive will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work*

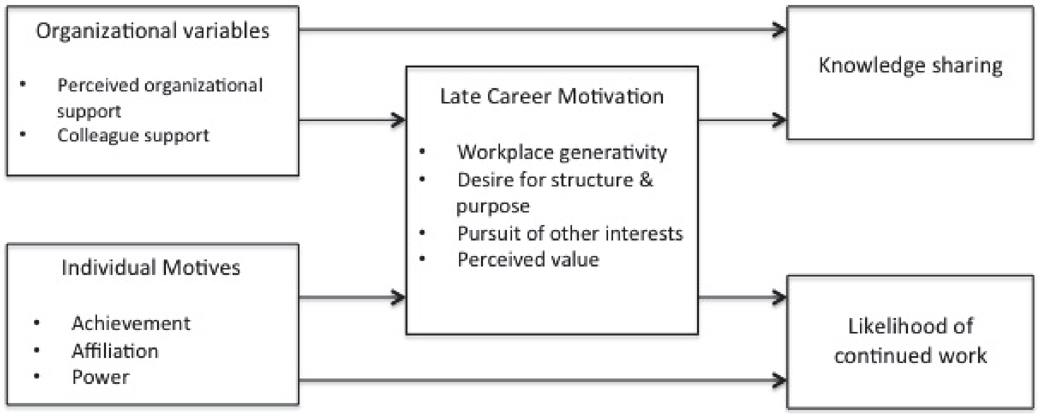
> *H9: A strong power motive will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work*

Of equal importance is the notion of relational capital. That is, mature workers need to have strong ties to those with whom they want to share their knowledge. Here, too, organizations can nurture positive respondent behaviours by creating firms that value knowledge sharing cultures. For example, organizations that encourage cooperation over competition lay the foundation for knowledge sharing norms (Nahapiet and Ghoshal, 1998). Such norms act as social incentives and are likely to arouse the affiliation motive in employees who value close and warm relationships with others, which should subsequently influence respondent behaviour in the form of knowledge sharing practices. I therefore hypothesize the following:

> *H10: A strong affiliation motive will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours*

Please see Figure 2 for a model of the proposed relationships between the study's key variables.

Figure 2: Model of Study 3 Hypotheses



4.2.4. Summary of Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1
Perceived organizational support will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours.

Hypothesis 2
Perceived organizational support will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work past the age of 65

Hypothesis 3
The desire to pursue other interests will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work

Hypothesis 4
Employees' perception of the value of their own knowledge will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and knowledge sharing behaviours

Hypothesis 5
Employees' perception of the value of their own knowledge will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work

Hypothesis 6
Colleague support will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours

Hypothesis 7
Workplace generativity will mediate the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviours

Hypothesis 8
A strong achievement motive will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work

Hypothesis 9
A strong power motive will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work

Hypothesis 10
A strong affiliation motive will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours

4.3. METHOD

4.3.1. Sample and procedure

Participants were invited to take part in an online study investigating knowledge sharing behaviours and employees' desire for continued work beyond the age of 65. In total 147 employees, 90 female and 57 male participated. The sample ranged in age from 52 to 76 with a mean age of 59.91 (SD = 4.58). Complete information on the sample and procedure can be found in the method section of Study 2B.

4.3.2. Measures

P**erceived Organizational Support** was measured using ten items from the perceived organizational support scale developed by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986). According to Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002), a shortened form of the original scale is often used by researchers for practical purposes. These researchers maintain that because the 36-item scale is unidimensional and possesses high internal reliability it is not problematic to use a shortened form. As such, I used the same items as Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel (2009) who used the perceived organizational support scale with an older sample of Canadian workers. Examples of scale items include: "my organization values my contribution to its well-being," "the organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work" and "the organization strongly considers my goals and values." Responses are provided on a 5-point scale and range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Coefficient alpha was .91 in my sample.

Support from co-workers was measured using four items taken from Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinneau's (1975) Social Support from Co-workers and Supervisor's scale, however, colleagues were the only referent that was used. Exemplar items include, "how much do your colleagues go out of their way to do things (like sharing your tasks) to make your life easier" and "when things get tough, how much can you count on your colleagues for advice or information?" Responses are provided on a 4-point scale and range from not at all to very often. Coefficient alpha was .85 in my sample.

Achievement, power and affiliation motives were measured using Schönbrodt and Gerstenberg Unified Motive Scales (2012). Each scale contains 6 items. Sample items for the Achievement scale include “maintaining high standards for the quality of my work” and “projects that challenge me to the best of my ability”. Items contained in the Power Scale include, “The opportunity to exercise control over an organization or group” and “I like to have the final say.” Examples of items from the Affiliation scale include, “I engage in lots of activities with other people” and “encounters with other people make me happy.” Two different response formats are used for all three scales. Items that are formulated as statements are responded to using a 6-point Likert scale with categories that range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Items that are formulated as goals require an importance rating; response categories range from not important to extremely important and are also rated on a 6-point Likert Scale. Coefficient alpha for all three scales in my sample were as follows: Coefficient alpha was .88 for power, .88 for achievement and .82 for affiliation.

Knowledge sharing behaviours was measured by Cabrera, Collins and Salgado’s (2006) Sharing one’s Ideas and Experiences with others Knowledge Sharing Scale. The scale contains four items. Exemplar items include, “anytime I have valuable information related to my work, I do whatever I can to make it available to other people whom I think will be interested” and “when information is requested about some work that I have done or in my area of expertise, I do not hesitate to provide the interested person with all the information that I have.” Responses are provided on a 5-point scale and range from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Coefficient alpha was .70 in my sample.

Likelihood of continued work was measured with a single question that read: How likely are you to continue working in the next five years? Response categories ranged from very unlikely to very likely and included a response item that read undecided. A response category *not applicable* was also included in order to ensure that only employees, and not self-employed or business owners, were included in the final sample. Lower scores indicate that people are likely to retire in the next five years, and higher scores reflect an individual’s desire for continued work.

The Late Career Motivation Scale was composed of the 13- item scale developed in Study 2. The scale contains four factors: Responses were provided on a 1 (*completely unimportant*) to 5 (*very important*) Likert scale. Participants were asked to indicate how important each statement was, or is, in their decision to continue working or retire. The workplace generativity factor is composed of four items. Exemplar items include: “I want to continue working to learn and grow from my work” and “I want to continue working so that I can mentor the next generation of workers.” The desire for structure and purpose factor contains three items. Examples of items include*: “*I want to continue working because work gives me a reason to get out of bed” and “I want to continue working so that I have something to do every day.” The third and fourth factors relate to reasons for retirement and each factor is comprised of 3 items. Examples of items from the third factor, the pursuit of other interest, include: “I want to retire in order to travel” and “I want to retire in order to pursue other interests.” And exemplar items from the last factor, perceived value, read: “I want to retire because I don’t feel valued by my younger colleagues” and “I want to retire before I am asked to leave due to declining performance.” All four scales had high reliabilities. Workplace generativity had a reliability of $\alpha = .93$, desire for structure and purpose had a reliability of $\alpha = .89$, the pursuit of other interests had a reliability of $\alpha = .84$, and perceived value had a reliability of $\alpha = .82$.

Demographic variables

I examined age, gender, marital status, and educational attainment. Response categories for marital status included: married, divorced, widowed, single, or common law. The response categories for education ranged from some High school to Doctorate with an option for other and a request to specify what other was.

Control variables

An extensive literature on retirement research has identified several consistent predictors of the retirement decision, including health and financial related factors (Beehr, Glazer, Nielson & Farmer, 2000; Wang & Shultz, 2010). Thus, in order to examine the relationship between organizational factors and individual motives on the decision to retire, I wanted to ensure that these known predictors, health and finances, were not influencing these relationships. I therefore used them as control variables. I chose to assess the financial factor using a subjective measure of *financial anxiety* as I maintain that it is a person's perception of the adequacy of one's income that is most important to the retirement decision as opposed to using objectives measures of financial status. Please see study 2B for details on the financial anxiety measure.

Subjective Health was assessed by using one question asking respondents to rate their overall health. The item read, "In general how would you rate your overall health?" Responses are provided on a 7-point scale ranging from terrible to excellent. It is common practice to use a single item assessment of subjective health in retirement research (Wang, Zhan, Liu & Shultz, 2008).

In the following section I report the results of our analyses. I start by reporting the demographic data of the sample, and follow with the results of the hypotheses relating to the first outcome variable, *knowledge sharing*, and then report the analyses of the second outcome variable, *likelihood of continued work*. Lastly, I report the results of additional analyses. Please see Table 6 for zero item correlations among study 3 variables.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics, and Zero Order Correlations for Study 3 Variables

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Age	59.1	4.58	-										
2	Gender	1.39	.5	.24**	-									
3	Health	2.0	.88	-.18		-								
4	Financial Status	4.7	1.63	.26**	.06	-.22**	-							
5	POS	3.2	.86	.10	.11	.03	.20*	-						
6	CS	2.5	.73	-.05	-.11	.01	.11	.51**	-					
7	Achievement	3.9	.8	-.2	.08	-.06	-.01	.07	.13	-				
8	Power	2.5	1.1	.07	.1	.04	.05	.09	.13	.42**	-			
9	Affiliation	2.8	.9	.08	.00	-.10	.05	.23**	.24**	.22**	.22**	-		
10	Knowledge Sharing	4.1	.6	-.04	-.07	-.17	.05	.24**	.31**	.40**	.22**	.23**	-	
11	Continued Work	2.3	1.5	-.23**	.03	-.1	-.24**	.15	.02	.24**	.15	.15	.06	-

* $p < .5$, **$p < .01$

Please note that: POS refers to Perceived Organizational Support, CS refers to Colleague Support, and the likelihood of retirement lies on the same continuum, but at the opposite end, of likelihood of continued work

4.4. RESULTS

4.4.1. Demographic variables

It should be noted that the sample for the current study is the same sample as that of study 2B in which I conducted the Confirmatory Factor Analysis**.** For detailed information regarding the participants' educational attainment, workplace sector, and marital status please refer to the sample description in study 2B**.** In brief, a total 147 people completed the online questionnaire; 90 female and 57 male participants. The sample was split between those who held bachelors' degrees or a non-university certificate (39.5%) and those who held graduate level degrees or certificates (39.5%). Nine percent had a high school diploma, and 11.6% did not report their educational attainment. The majority of employees, 36.7%, worked in the educational sector, 17.7% were employed in professional fields or in dentistry and medicine, 20.4% worked in the business and technology sectors, 3.4% in manufacturing and the remaining 22% responded "other". The age of participants ranged from 52 to 76 with a mean age of 59.9 (SD = 4.58). The median age was 59 and the mode was 56. The average length of employee tenure was 18.6 years (SD = 12.45) and the average length of time in their current position was 11.5 years (SD = 12.45).

The majority of mature workers perceived their health as very good (M = 5.99, SD = .88) and the adequacy of their income as sufficient for their wants and their needs (M = 4.7, SD = 1.63). Sixty-four percent indicated that they were *very unlikely* or *unlikely* to continue working in the next 5 years in their current job, in contrast to 26% of their counterparts who reported that they were *likely* or *very likely* to continue working. 10% were undecided. Of the mature workers who reported that they are likely to retire from their current jobs in the next five years, 12.2%, plan on joining the ranks of the fastest growing segment of entrepreneurial Canadians, who are 55 and over, and starting their own businesses (Tal, 2012). Twenty-six percent of those who plan on retiring from their current positions intend to work elsewhere, whereas 38% do not. 6.1% want to work full-time, 36.7% want to work part-time and 11.6% were undecided. 13.6% want to work in the same industry, 18.4% want to work in a different industry and 21.8% reported that they were undecided. Fifty-seven percent of the sample worked in the public sector, 32% worked in the private sector and 10.9% indicated "other."

4.5. WHAT PREDICTS KNOWLEDGE SHARING BEHAVIOUR?

The relationships between organizational variables and knowledge sharing

I conducted a hierarchical regression analysis in order to assess the relationships among the organizational variables, *perceived organizational support and colleague support*, and *knowledge sharing behaviours*. An examination of Table 6 revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. Furthermore, the collinearity statistic, *the Variance Inflation Factor* (*VIF)*, indicated that all factors ranged from 1.000 to 1.357, which was well below the standard of 10.0 (Meyers, 1990), indicating that multicollinearity did not affect the analyses in any way. Table 7 provides the results for the following hierarchical regression analysis.

Examining the correlations among our key variables, I found that the participants' health was correlated with their level of interest in knowledge sharing behaviours. I therefore included health as a control variable and entered it at stage one of the regression analysis. I then proceeded to enter perceived organizational support and colleague support together in stage two, because they share the same environmental context. The results of the analyses revealed that at stage one, health significantly contributed to the regression model, F (1, 145) = 4.37, $p < 0.05$ and accounted for 3% of the variation in knowledge sharing behaviour. The inclusion of the organizational variables (perceived organizational support and colleague support) significantly improved the predictive accuracy of the model, $\Delta R^{2 =}$ .13, ΔF (2, 143) = 8.66, $p < 0.01$, and accounted for an additional 13.4% of variation in knowledge sharing behaviour, and this change was significant F = (3, 143) = 7. 38, $p < .001$. However, while colleague support was a significant predictor of knowledge sharing behaviour (β = .25, t (143) = 2.78, $p < 0.05$), perceived organizational support was not (β = .11, t(143) = 1.25, *not significant).* On the one hand, these results indicate that there is a relationship between knowledge sharing behaviour and colleague support. More specifically, greater colleague support predicted greater levels of knowledge sharing behaviour. On the other hand, the experience of a supportive environment in the broader organization did not influence knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting knowledge sharing behaviour

Variable	B	SEB	ß	ΔR^2
Step 1				.03*
Health	.12	.06	.17*	
Step 2				.13**
Health	.13	.06	.18	
POS	.08	.07	.11	
Colleague support	.21	.08	.25*	

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Mediation analyses

I then proceeded to examine whether the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing would be mediated by workplace generativity. In other words, I predicted that the greater the perception of support from colleagues at work, the more likely it was that an employee would experience feelings of generativity, and this would result in more knowledge sharing.

Our approach to this analysis involved estimating the effect of the proposed mediator, using bias-corrected bootstrapping methods. Bootstrapping is a technique that is used to estimate mediation; according to Field (2013), this method is becoming increasing common and is regarded as one of the most robust ways to calculate the significance of a mediator (Field, 2013; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping is used to empirically derive the distribution of the test statistic, or standard error, by resampling from the original data set. Because it is too expensive and time consuming to draw repeated samples from the population of interest, the bootstrap method uses the data from the original sample. Singh and Xie (2008) refer to this as using the study sample as a “surrogate population” to estimate the sampling distribution of a test statistic. Essentially the method creates what these researchers refer to as “phantom samples”, and these phantom bootstrapped samples correct for bias in the original data set. The end result is that the researcher can be more confident in the sample’s test statistics (Field, 2013).

In order to test for mediation I first conducted regression analyses to examine each component of the mediation model. Please see Table 8 for the results of this analysis. Findings indicated that colleague support was positively associated with knowledge sharing behaviour ($\beta = .22$, $t = 2.64$, $p < .05$). The results also indicated a positive relationship between colleague support and work generativity ($\beta = .38$, $t = 3.28$, $p = .001$). Lastly, the results indicated that mediator, *workplace generativity,* was positively associated with knowledge sharing behaviour ($\beta = .14$, $t = 2.48$, $p < 0.05$). Having established these significant relationships, mediation analyses were conducted using the bootstrapping method with bias-corrected confidence estimates (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). In the current study, the 95% confidence interval of the indirect effects was attained with 1000 bootstrap samples. The results of the mediation analysis revealed the mediating role of workplace generativity in the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour ($\beta = .05$; CI = .01 to .13). The results indicated that the direct effect of colleague support on knowledge sharing continued to be significant ($\beta = .22$, $t = 2.64$, $p < .05$) after controlling for workplace generativity. This indicates partial mediation. In sum, the greater the perception of support from work colleagues, the more likely a mature employee will feel generative towards her coworkers, and this generativity contributes to her engaging in more knowledge sharing behaviours.

Table 8

Mediation model with work generativity as the mediator and knowledge sharing as the outcome

	Value				Knowledge Sharing			
Colleague Support	β	*SE*	CI_{95}		β	*SE*	CI_{95}	
CS → Work generativity	.38	.11	.149	.601				
CS → Knowledge sharing					.22	.08	.054	.378
Work generativity → Knowledge haring					.14	.06	.028	.257

Note. N = 144. Number of bootstrap samples with bias corrected confidence intervals is 1000. CS = colleague support.

The relationship between the affiliation motive and knowledge sharing behaviour

As hypothesized, a significant positive relationship was found between the affiliation motive and knowledge sharing behaviour ($r = .23$, $p < .01$). The results therefore indicate that the stronger the desire for affiliation, the greater the likelihood that older workers will engage in knowledge sharing behaviour.

4.6. WHAT PREDICTS THE LIKELIHOOD OF CONTINUED WORK?

The relationship between perceived organizational support and the likelihood of continued work

Next, I assessed the relationship between perceived organizational support and the likelihood of continued work. Contrary to expectation, no relationship was found between these two variables ($r = .15$, *not significant*). The result indicated that perceived organizational support does not predict the likelihood of continued work in this sample. It should be noted that this result contradicts that of Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel's study with a sample of Canadian workers (2009).

Mediation analyses using the Late Career Motivation Scale

The proposed analyses using three factors of the Late Career Motivation Scale, *the desire to pursue other interests*, *perceived value* and *the desire for structure and purpose* as mediators between perceived organizational support and the likelihood of continued work could not be conducted as the initial relationship between perceived organizational support and the likelihood of continued work was not supported.

The achievement and power motives, and the likelihood of continued work

I conducted a hierarchical regression analysis in order to assess the relationship between the achievement and power motives and the likelihood of continued work. An examination of the correlation table revealed that no independent variables were highly correlated. Furthermore, the collinearity statistic, *the Variance Inflation Factor*, indicated that all factors ranged from 1.004 to 1.214, which was well below the standard of 10.0 (Meyers, 1990), indicating that multicollinearity did not bias the data in any way. Table 9 contains the results of this analysis. I included financial anxiety as a control variable as it is a consistent predictor of the likelihood of continued work in the retirement literature, as well as in this sample. Note that health was not included as a control variable in this analysis because it was not correlated with the likelihood of continued work in our sample (r = .098, *not significant*).

The perception of one's financial status was therefore entered at stage one of the regression analysis. I then proceeded to enter the achievement and power motives together in stage two, because they both fuel individual behavior. The results of the analyses revealed that at stage one, financial status significantly contributed to the regression model, F (1, 145) = 8.5, $p <$ 0.05 and accounted for 6% of the variation in the likelihood of continued work. As expected, this relationship was negative. The inclusion of the individual motive variables (achievement and power) significantly improved the prediction accuracy of the model, $\Delta R^{2 =}$ .061, ΔF (2, 143) = 4.92, $p < 0.05$, and accounted for an additional 11.6% of variation in the likelihood of continued work, and this change was significant F = (3, 143) = 6. 27, $p < .001$. However, while the achievement motive was a significant predictor of continued work, β = .2, t(143) = 2.3, $p < 0.05$, the power motive was not β = .08, t(143) = .97, *not significant.* These results indicate that there are associations between the achievement motive and likelihood of continued work. More specifically, the stronger the achievement motive, the greater the likelihood that mature workers will desire continued work. In contrast, the power motive did not influence mature employees' intentions to continuing working.

Table 9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Continued Work

Variable	B	SEB	ß	ΔR^2
Step 1				.06*
Financial status	-.22	.08	-.24*	
Step 2				.12*
Financial status	-.23	.08	-.24*	
Achievement motive	.38	.17	.20*	
Power motive	.11	.12	.08	

* $p < .05$

4.7. ADDITIONAL ANALYSES: A MORE IN DEPTH VIEW OF THE CURRENT SAMPLE

In order to gain a more comprehensive picture of the participants in the current study I decided to conduct further exploratory analyses. In the section that follows we first examined if the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour was mediated by the desire for affiliation. I then investigated if there exist any differences in the levels of achievement motivation between mature workers who want to retire and those that want to continue working. Lastly, I explored how pre-retirees anticipate structuring their time once they retire from their current positions, and what activities they intend to pursue.

Does affiliation mediate the relationship between perceived colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviours?

I decided to investigate if the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour was mediated by the affiliation motive. More specifically, I predicted that environments characterized by strong social support would stimulate the affiliation motive, which in turn would influence knowledge sharing behaviour.

To test for mediation I first conducted regression analyses to examine each component of the mediation model. Please see Table 10 for the results of this analysis. Findings indicated that colleague support was positively associated with knowledge sharing behaviour ($\beta = .23$, $t = 3.30$, $p = .001$). Furthermore, the results indicated a positive relationship between colleague support and affiliation ($\beta = .30$, $t = 3.01$. $p = .05$). Lastly, the results revealed that the mediator, *affiliation,* was positively associated with knowledge sharing behaviour ($\beta = .11$, $t = 2.08$, $p < 0.05$). Having established these relationships as significant, I proceeded to conduct mediation analyses using the bias-corrected bootstrapping method (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). As I did with the previous meditational analysis, I set a 95% confidence interval, and the indirect effects were attained with 1000 bootstrap samples. The results of the mediation analysis revealed the mediating role of affiliation in the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour ($\beta = .003$; CI = .003 to .098). Findings revealed that the direct effect of colleague support on knowledge sharing was still significant ($\beta = .23$, $t = 3.30$, $p = .001$) after controlling for affiliation, indicating partial mediation. Thus, supportive colleague relationships activate the sense of affiliation, which leads to knowledge sharing behaviour.

Table 10

Mediation model with affiliation as the mediator and knowledge sharing as the outcome

	Value				Knowledge Sharing			
Colleague Support	β	*SE*	CI_{95}		β	*SE*	CI_{95}	
CS → Affiliation	.31	.11	.105	.508				
CS → Knowledge sharing					.23	.07	.091	.363
Affiliation → Knowledge sharing					.11	.05	.005	.220

Note. N = 147. Number of bootstrap samples with bias corrected confidence intervals is 1000. CS = colleague support.

Are mature employees who desire continued work more achievement oriented than their counterparts who want to retire?

Next, we wanted to better understand if the mature workers who were *likely* or *very likely* to continue working differed in their level of achievement motivation, from their counterparts who reported that they were *unlikely* or *very unlikely* to continue working in their current positions. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the achievement motive in the sample of mature workers who indicated that they were most likely to continue working in their current jobs, and their colleagues who were most likely retire in the next 5 years. There was a significant difference between these two groups. More specifically, mature employees who wished to continue working in the next 5 years reported greater levels of the achievement motive, ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .70$), compared to those who planned to retire from their current positions ($M = 3.73$, $SD = .83$), $t\,(130) = 2.67$, $p < .05$, $d = .14$. This finding is particularly important for organizations that want and need to retain older workers. Specifically, the results indicate that mature employees are motivated to continue working, in part, by a sense of achievement. Opportunities to fulfill one's desire for achievement may serve to retain these individuals. While these two groups of employees significantly differed in their level of achievement, follow up analyses using the power and affiliation motives indicated no such differences.

What do mature employees anticipate doing in retirement?

I used a version of the *Every Day Activities Questionnaire* (Pushkar, Arbuckle, Conway, Chaikelson, & Maag, 1997) to assess the *frequency* in which mature workers currently engage in specific activities, and how often they intend to pursue such activities once they retire. While the original inventory measures level of *importance* and *enjoyment* of various activities, I determined, in consultation with Dr. Dolores Pushkar, that frequency was the most relevant metric for our sample. Additionally, I limited the questionnaire items to those that were most applicable to this sample. I included the Everyday Activity Questionnaire (1997) in the current study because I wanted to gain a more comprehensive understanding of how would-be retirees plan on structuring their time in retirement. Paired samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare the current frequency of activity engagement of mature workers with their intended frequency of activity engagement once retired. There were significant differences on six of the ten paired comparisons. For means, standard deviations and t-test statistics please see Table 11. Specifically, the significant differences in the mean scores of current activity engagement and future intended activity engagement included *helping family members or friends*; *attending cultural events*; *physical activities*; *creative activities* and *hobbies*; *traveling*; and *entertaining*. All six paired analyses revealed that mature employees intended to engage in such activities more frequently once they retire, in comparison to their current level of participation. Of most interest is how these activities rate when compared to one another. For instance, the intention to engage in more frequent future physical activity ranks as number one among all significant paired t-tests with a mean score of 3.69, (SD = .60), indicating that mature employees intend to pursue physical activity practically every day, in comparison to their current level of physical activity which hovers around a little more than weekly, with a mean score of 3.22 (SD = .96) at the 0.001 level of significance (t = 7.02, df = 146, p < .001). It should be noted that this finding corroborates evidence of this very intention from several of our study 1 participants. The desire to engage in more frequent physical activity is followed by an eagerness to pursue creative endeavours, spend time with and entertain family and friends, attend cultural events and lastly, travel more often. For means and standard deviations of *the rank order* of these activities please see table 12. It should be noted that the paired t-tests that did not indicate any significant differences between current and future engagement included: reading, surfing the internet, pursuing continuing education opportunities, and mentoring others outside one’s current organization.

Table 11

Results for pairwise t-tests comparing current and future activity engagement

Variable	Time 1		Time 2					
	M	SD	M	SD	*n*	*t*	DF	*p*
Help	2.63	0.99	2.90	0.92	131	5.54	130	.00
Culture	1.89	0.78	2.39	0.68	135	9.66	134	.00
Educational	1.86	1.02	2.05	0.95	64	1.69	63	.096
Read	3.66	0.71	3.71	0.66	145	1.47	144	.145
Physical	3.22	0.96	3.69	0.60	147	7.02	146	.00
Create	2.34	1.15	3.06	0.91	98	7.64	97	.00
Travel	1.51	0.72	2.11	0.75	142	9.71	141	.00
Entertain	2.37	0.85	2.68	0.78	139	6.80	138	.00
Internet use	3.68	.73	3.70	0.66	142	.73	141	.47
Mentor	2.25	1.10	2.37	0.98	83	1.68	82	.10

Table 12
Rank ordered Future Activity Engagement by Intended Frequency

Activity	M	SD
Physical	3.69	.60
Creative	3.06	.91
Help family & friends	2.90	.92
Entertain family & friends	2.68	.78
Cultural pursuits	2.39	.68
Travel	2.11	.75

Table 13

Results of Study 3 Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Outcome
H1: Perceived organizational support will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours.	Rejected
H2: Perceived organizational support will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work past the age of 65	Rejected
H3: The desire to pursue other interests will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work	Rejected
H4: Employees' perception of the value of their own knowledge will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and knowledge sharing behaviours	Rejected
H5: Employees' perception of the value of their own knowledge will mediate the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work	Rejected
H6: Colleague support will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours	Supported
H7: Workplace generativity will mediate the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviours	Supported
H8: A strong achievement motive will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work	Supported
H9: A strong power motive will be positively correlated with the likelihood of continued work	Rejected
H10: A strong affiliation motive will be positively correlated with knowledge sharing behaviours	Supported

4.8. DISCUSSION

The current study explored how the organizational environment and individual motives influence knowledge sharing behaviour and the intention to continue working, in a sample of employees 52 and over. Specifically, I sought to investigate the association of perceived organizational and colleague support, and the affiliation motive on knowledge sharing behaviour. I also examined the impact of perceived organizational support, and the achievement and power motives on the likelihood of continued work. What follows is a detailed discussion of my findings.

4.8.1. Organizational Variables and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

According to McAdams and de St. Aubin (1992), the intrinsic desire to be generative must be fostered by an environment that nurtures one's generative needs. I tested this hypothesis in the context of work, examining how two organizational variables, perceived organizational support and colleague support, affected knowledge sharing behaviour. The analysis revealed that, after controlling for health, colleague support was indeed associated with knowledge sharing, whereas perceived organizational support was not. Moreover, the hypothesized relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour was mediated by workplace generativity. Thus I infer that older workers who feel supported by their colleagues reciprocate in kind by being generative and engaging in knowledge sharing behaviour. This finding lends further support to both the empirical (Szulanski, 1996) and practitioner literatures (Delong, 2004; Leonard & Swap, 2004) on knowledge sharing behaviour. However, the current study makes a distinct contribution to the field by studying generativity in a sample of aging workers, and examining the organizational conditions that nurture generative action and thus, contribute to knowledge sharing behaviour.

Leonard and Swap (2004) argue that people need a reason to share their knowledge and expertise with others. The motivation to do so may be financial if firms offer employees incentives to engage in knowledge sharing behaviour. However, these researchers also argue that sharing one's knowledge and experience with others may be the result of the social benefits that accrue to employees, such as the development of a positive professional reputation or the desire to help others succeed. In the latter case, knowledge sharing may be regarded as an altruistic behaviour, benefitting the knowledge recipient, but likewise contributing to the sense of self-competence of the knowledge giver, and providing an opportunity to be of service to others (Batson, 1991). Current findings from the fields of neuroscience and psychology have revealed that *giving behaviour*, be it in the form of one's time or money (Moll, 2006) cause the giver to reap what researchers refer to as the *helper's high* (Van Der Linden, 2007). It seems that we are "wired" to be generous. Giving, researchers have found, activates the production of endorphins and has been likened to the reaction of learning that you are the winner of a lottery jackpot (Svoboda, 2013). This latter finding lends further credence to McAdams and de St. Aubin's theory of generativity (1992), which stipulates that the desire to be generative is innate. However, as evolutionary psychologists explain, and as McAdams and de St. Aubin's theory postulates, this desire is shaped by social experience and cultural transmission, which in turn influences with whom we choose to be altruistic or generative, and under what circumstances (Warneken & Tomasello, 2009). The current study supports these notions, and extends these findings to the organizational context. Humans may indeed be hard wired to engage in altruistic or generative acts, but such behaviour is influenced by the environmental context in which one operates, leading us to argue that a firm can either help or hinder the desire to be generative.

While I recognize that firms cannot mandate workers to be supportive of one another, they can certainly influence the likelihood of cooperative behaviour by instituting norms that foster collaborative efforts. Cooperative norms include emphasizing group effort as opposed to individual entrepreneurship, team based decision-making and organizational membership (Starbuck, 1992). The latter is believed to foster a shared identity, which enables greater ease and frequency of knowledge exchange (Child & Rodriguez, 1996). Companies that are successful at encouraging knowledge sharing behaviour also provide employees with structural spaces, such as communal kitchens, lounge areas or cafes, which encourage spontaneous and unofficial opportunities for interaction. Social gatherings such as company trips, or daylong hiking or sailing activities are also encouraged. Company-wide training initiatives too are deemed to be more than simple educational experiences; they are also valuable for social networking (Starbuck, 1992). Cooperative norms cultivate the opportunity to establish and nurture relational capital, which ultimately serves organizations in their ability to quickly and efficiently share knowledge between employees (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998).

Although perceived organizational support was a positive bivariate correlate of knowledge sharing behaviour, our findings revealed that health and colleague support captured most of the variance in the regression model; thus perceived organizational support was not a predictor of knowledge sharing behaviour in this sample. I suspect that because knowledge sharing is a behaviour that occurs between people, the perception of organizational support may be too distal a variable to influence such an intimate act. In other words, the relationship that an employee shares with her colleagues is more likely to affect her decision to share her knowledge, than is the perception that she should share her knowledge because the firm values and appreciates her personal contribution and cares for her wellbeing. An alternate way of conceptualizing of this relationship is to conceive of a scenario in which an employee does not feel supported by his organization, but he shares his knowledge with his coworkers because of their close and supportive connection. In fact, I saw evidence of this in the first study in which employees did not necessarily feel supported by their organizations, but felt committed and obligated to leave their positions in the hands of capable successors, most of whom they referred to as friends.

I conclude that in the context of knowledge sharing at work, the quality of one's personal relationships with colleagues may be a more important factor than is perceived organizational support. Future research is necessary in order to determine if this finding can be replicated with other samples.

4.8.2. Colleague support, affiliation and knowledge sharing behaviour

The results of the current study also revealed that there is an association between affiliation and knowledge sharing behaviour. This finding corroborates evidence from the knowledge sharing literature indicating that strong social ties are essential for knowledge transfer to occur (Nahapiet, 1996; Starbuck, 1993; Szulanski, 1996). Moreover, findings also revealed that affiliation mediated the relationship between colleague support and knowledge sharing behaviour. Specifically, supportive colleague relationships elicit the desire for affiliation, which subsequently influences knowledge sharing. This relationship suggests that the quality of co-worker relationships is an important predictor of knowledge sharing behaviour. Drawing upon Carstensen and colleagues' socioemotional selectivity theory (1999), as one ages, the perception that time is limited starts to influence our decisions about how and with whom we spend our days. More specifically, our choices are motivated by a desire to live a life of meaning, and experience a deepening of intimate ties, thus privileging familiar relationships characterized by positive emotional states, over more superficial or unpredictable connections (Carstensen, Isaacowitz & Charles, 1999). In this regard, I argued that older employees would prefer to share their knowledge with colleagues whom they know, trust and like. It is worth repeating that I am aware that organizations cannot sanction colleagues to be supportive of one another, however, I argue that firms can create environments that emphasize cooperative social norms and highlight organizational membership, as well as opportunities for socialization. This in turn should foster the development of strong ties between coworkers.

One of the important implications of the previous finding is the notion that older workers may prefer to mentor younger colleagues with whom they have established relationships, making the retention of an organization's mature workforce imperative for the transfer of tacit knowledge. While firms can recruit knowledgeable workers from elsewhere to train younger colleagues, the lack of an established relationship between mentor and mentee is likely to hinder and even obstruct the knowledge sharing process. As Nahapiet and Ghoshal (1998) explain, "friendships and obligations do not readily pass from one person to another" (p. 244), rendering relational capital a distinct competitive advantage for organizations.

4.8.3. Perceived organizational support and the likelihood of continued work

The current study also examined the relationship between perceived organizational support and likelihood of continued work. Contrary to expectation, the results indicated that there was no relationship between these two variables. This finding contradicts previous research indicating a positive relationship between perceived organizational support and intention to remain at work, in two samples of older Canadian workers (Armstrong-Stassen & Ursel, 2009). I suspect that this result may reflect the changing nature of the psychological contract between employee and employer as workers near retirement. Findings from the literature indicate that when employees decide to retire, they psychologically distance themselves from their commitment to work (Adams, Prescher, Beehr, & Lepisto, 2002; Feldman, 1994; Shultz & Wang, 2007). Thus I reason that as one nears retirement age the support provided by one's organization may matter little, if at all, to one's decision to retire or continue working, freeing people from the obligation they might have felt towards their organizations earlier in their careers. In other words, older employees may feel that they have already repaid in kind their organizational debt with their years of service. One explanation for the differing findings between our study and that of Armstrong-Staseen and Ursel's (2009) may have to do with the participants' age. The average age of the mature workers in our study was 60, whereas those in Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel's two investigations were approximately 55. Although a difference of five years may not appear significant, 60 may actually have symbolic meaning for mature workers. *Retirement reminders* such as information from financial institutions, government pension statements and invitations from senior citizen clubs and associations, start to appear more frequently as one nears sixty. And let's not forget the speculation and probing by friends, family and colleagues who inquire as to when one plans on exiting the workforce (Bérubé, 2010). Such cues may lead one to believe that it is time to start preparing to retire. In this regard, support from one's organization may be of little consequence when contemplating this monumental life decision because other factors bear greater weight. Future longitudinal research is needed to determine if perceived organizational support does indeed change with age.

4.8.4. Individual motives and the likelihood of continued work

I also set out to examine the influence of explicit motives on older workers' intentions to continue working with their current employer. Regression analyses revealed that the perception of one's financial status and the achievement motive both influence this decision, whereas the power motive did not. Thus, mature workers who perceive their financial situation as inadequate are more likely to continue working. This finding is consistent with that of the retirement literature (Zhan, Wang, Liu, & Shultz, 2009). Additionally, the results revealed that achievement motivation is associated with the intention to continue working in the next five years. In a more in depth look at the differences between employees who intend to continue working in their current positions over the next five years, with those that plan to retire, results revealed greater achievement motivation for those who want to continue working. It is worth noting that achievement motivation was not related to age in our sample. This finding lends support to the growing body of literature investigating age and achievement motivation. Specifically, it substantiates the results of Bouman, De Jong and Janssen's research (2011) indicating that meaningful work and opportunities for achievement were important predictors of work motivation for older employees. Additionally, Rabl (2010) study's investigating achievement motives in a sample of German employees revealed that age was not related to the need for achievement. What is noteworthy about these studies is that these findings were not anticipated. In fact, the researchers had predicted that aging workers would be less achievement-oriented than their younger counterparts. These results have important implications for how we conceive of aging in the context of work, and how we design work for mature employees.

The increase in life span has, in essence, postponed the aging process (Blagosklonny, 2010). Thus, we are living longer and healthier lives, extending our productive working years well beyond the age of 65—the age that scholars, economists, physicians and politicians, once referred to as the age of disease and decline (Costa, 1998). We should therefore re-examine our assumptions about aging and what it means to be an older worker in the context of the twenty-first century. Our societal conceptions of older workers are deeply ingrained in an out-dated cultural view that perceives the mature employee as less achievement oriented and less capable than her younger counterpart. Yet we have very little empirical evidence to suggest that this is the case. In fact, much of scientific evidence not only refutes this assumption, but also indicates that older employees are more motivated, loyal, creative, reliable and adaptable in comparison to their younger counterparts (McEvoy & Cascio, 1989; Sturman, 2003). Moreover, many of the studies investigating achievement motivation and aging workers examine this relationship using samples of employees who are not even fifty years of age (Bouman, De Jong & Janssen, 2011; Kooij, de Lange, Jansien, Kanfer, & Dikkers, 2011); they employ different achievement scales (Rabl, 2011; Woo, Gibbons & Thornton, 2007) and use correlational designs (Mehrabian & Blum, 1996; Mellinger & Erdwins, 1985; Rabl, 2011). As such, it is difficult to obtain an accurate assessment of older employees' achievement motivation.

Confounding matters is the very real possibility that mature workers' motivation is likely affected by organizational incentives and environmental conditions. Ageist stereotypes held by managers negatively influence the training and development initiatives accorded to older workers, thus hindering not only the very ability of these employees to improve their skills, but also stifling, if not extinguishing their motivation for achievement. In the language of McClelland and colleagues (1989), motives themselves do not predict behaviour, rather it is social incentives such as organizational rewards or managerial expectations that elicit motivated responses. Thus, when studying achievement motivation it would be wise for researchers to account for the organizational context in which mature employees work, such as assessing training and development initiatives and opportunities for meaningful work (Kooij et al., 2011). Indeed, Armstrong-Stassen and Ursel's (2009) investigation of training and development practices in two samples of older Canadian workers indicated that such opportunities are related to the intention to continue working. These findings highlight the importance of studying the organizational environment in which older employees work, and they may shed light on what social incentives nurture the achievement motivation of mature workers.

Although the achievement motive was a significant predictor of older workers' intentions to continue working, the power motive was not. I reasoned that the achievement-oriented individual would desire continued employment because work provides an arena in which to engage in challenging tasks, improve one's skills and surpass one's own standards of excellence. I also surmised that the power-oriented individual would want to continue working in order to fulfill his desire to be influential, such as in the role of mentor. However, results indicated that there was no relationship between the intention to continue working and the power motive. I suspect that this is the case because there are many opportunities to fulfill this motive outside of the work context. Indeed constructive roles such as that of volunteer, board member, or grandparent can meet one's desires for power. Moreover, an alternate explanation may be drawn from looking at the means of all three motives which reveal that in this sample of mature workers, power had the lowest mean, 2.5 (SD = 1.14), in comparison to the achievement (M = 3.86, SD = .80) and affiliation motives (M = 2.84, SD = .91). It should be noted that 2.5 on this scale was an indication that this motive was of some importance to participants. Thus, I reason that in this sample, power was not as relevant for mature workers. Moreover, for those who are motivated by the desire to influence others, there are opportunities to do so outside of the workforce.

4.8.5. Structured time in retirement

The results of the current study indicated that pre-retirees intend on increasing the frequency with which they engage in the following activities in retirement: physical activity, creative endeavours, helping and entertaining family and friends, engaging in cultural pursuits and lastly, travelling. I argue that these findings have important implications for how we design work for older adults. Physical activity was ranked as number one among all activities that people intend on pursuing more frequently in retirement. This is a noteworthy finding and supports the claims made by many of the participants in our first study. It seems that mature employees long for the opportunity to engage in more frequent physical activity. However, work schedules often hamper the ability to pursue physical exercise as frequently as people would like. Thus, employers who want and need to retain older workers can offer programs that meet the changing desires of these workers.

Flexible work schedules would enable older workers to restructure their time so that they can accommodate time for more frequent physical activity, creative and cultural pursuits and time to help family and friends. For instance, American Express has a *phased retirement* program that enables older workers to work on individual projects. Novartis pharmaceutical company invites retirees to work on short-term assignments. CVS pharmacy offers its *Snow Bird Program* to older employees working in pharmacies to seamlessly travel between states so that they can relocate to warmer climates in the winter, and cooler climates in the summer, and work in different retail outlets in their preferred location (Hewlett, Sherbin, & Sumberg, 2009). Programs that enable older workers to work remotely, part-time, or on special projects (providing these are feasible work options) serve to accommodate the desires of aging workers and retain top talent. While I recognize that some employers are hesitant to adopt phased retirement programs because they fear that part-time employees will never leave (Stibbe, 2013), I maintain that older employees, like all employees, should be evaluated based upon their ability to meet performance objectives. In this regard, I also maintain that poorly performing employees should not be retained at any age.

Additionally, I suspect that at some point in time, the majority of people will opt for full-time retirement. When we become cognizant that our days on earth are numbered (Carstensen et al, 1999), we start to recognize that the most important currency of all is *time*. Indeed the happiest amongst us are those that are *time affluent*, choosing to spend their days with those with whom they share close and intimate ties and in the pursuit of meaningful endeavours (Kasser & Sheldon, 2009; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon & Schkade, 2005). I suspect that even for those who are motivated by a sense of achievement and want to continue working beyond the age of 65, there will come a day when they too decide to hang up their hats. I anticipate however, that they will choose to do so at a later age in life – one that is more reflective of current life span development.

CHAPTER 5: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Thesis synopsis

The current thesis examined the late career motivation of mature workers. The objective of our first study was to explore how mature employees felt about sharing their knowledge with their younger colleagues. As such, I drew upon McAdams and de St. Aubin's (1992) theory of generativity, and Carstensen's socio-emotional selectivity theory, in order to examine the career motivation of older employees as they transition from work to retirement. I employed a qualitative research design and interviewed people at various stages of the retirement transition: employees 55 and over, people engaged in bridge employment and retirees. Findings indicated that the majority of older workers did indeed want to share their knowledge with their younger counterparts, however, this desire was associated with an organizational environment that valued older workers and the knowledge and experience they had accumulated over their careers.

Next, I used the findings from study 1 to develop a survey measure to assess the motivation of mature workers, which resulted in a four-factor model. *The Late Career Motivation Scale* is comprised of two factors that measure reasons for retirement, and two factors that measure reasons for continued work. I then proceeded to use the scale in Study 3 to test my hypotheses. I specifically examined the relationships between the organizational environment and knowledge sharing behaviour, and individual motives and the likelihood of continued work. The factors of the late career motivation scale were proposed as mediators between the antecedent and outcome variables.

In sum, my results indicated that colleague support was related to knowledge sharing behaviour. Moreover, this relationship was mediated by workplace generativity and the affiliation motive. In addition, achievement motivation was related to the intention to continue working, whereas the power motive was not. What follows is discussion of the limitations of the three studies and a focus on future research.

5.1. Limitations and future research

The results of the current studies should be considered within the context of several limitations. Firstly, Study 1 would benefit from an increased sample size as it would allow for future hypothesis testing about possible differences between the three categories of people that were examined: working, retired and those engaged in bridge employment. For example, a larger sample would help shed light on how achievement oriented employees adjust to life in retirement, in comparison to those who continue working.

Secondly, the development of the late career motivation scale requires further study in order to validate the survey tool. While I did conduct convergent and divergent validity analyses for the workplace generativity factor, I did not do so for the other three factors. Additionally, the confirmatory factor analysis indicated that the best fit of the model required the removal of three items from the scale, which necessitates that I test the scale on a new sample of participants in order to determine generalizability (Heinkin, 1998).

Thirdly, the data from study 3 were obtained via self-report and thus subject to common method variance. However, inter-item correlations indicated that the relationships were not inflated, so I do not believe the single source measures posed a serious threat to the results. Moreover, the data obtained from Study 3 were correlational and therefore causation cannot be established. Specifically, it is unclear as to whether or not it is the organizational environment, such as colleague support that elicits knowledge sharing behaviour, or perhaps it is employees who share their knowledge that are perceived as supportive. Likewise, it would be beneficial to conduct a longitudinal study in order to examine how work related motives change over time in a sample of workers 50 years of age and older. Such a study would help determine if, as socio-emotional selectivity theory (Castensen, 1991) predicts, workers' motives do in fact change as they age, subsequently influencing their desire to share their knowledge with close and familiar others in an effort to create a positive emotional experience prior to their workforce exit. Under such circumstances I would expect that the desire to share one's knowledge would likewise result in greater knowledge sharing behaviour over time.

Furthermore, generativity is a complex construct and is best assessed by several measures. In particular, generativity scholars suggest that in addition to the Loyola Generativity Scale, the construct should also be studied using autobiographical episodes (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992). This method involves asking participants to describe specific events in their lives, such as a monumental experience or a challenging event. For each occurrence participants are asked to write about the event by including details such as where it took place, who was involved, what the event signifies about one's life, and how the event influenced one's growth and development. The narratives are then content analyzed according to generative themes. Such an exercise, applied to the context of work, may help shed light on the formative experiences that underlie the self-defining stories that lead some employees to adopt the role of generative worker, while others reject the very idea of grooming the next generation.

Another suggestion for future research is to include measures of implicit motives such as the Thematic Apperception Test (McClelland, 1958). The Thematic Apperception Test, or as it is more commonly referred to today, the *Picture Story Exercise*, is a projective assessment designed to evaluate unconscious thought patterns, attitudes, and emotional responses. Participants view a series of pictures, and are then tasked with the objective of writing a story about each of the pictures. The theory postulates that the participants will project their own needs on to the story. The stories are then coded for three implicit needs: achievement, affiliation and power using a system developed by Winter (1989). Implicit motives are elicited by situational cues that are associated with pleasant affective preferences and behavioural tendencies (McClelland, Koestner and Weinberger, 1989). These motives develop early in life, do not require language to evolve and are believed to govern behaviour over time. What is important to note is that implicit and explicit motives correlate with different behaviours and respond to different incentives, thereby, eliciting different responses (McClelland, Koestner and Weinberger, 1989). Thus, it would be interesting to unearth how implicit motives influence knowledge sharing behaviour at work. Using the Picture Story Exercise would illuminate what unconscious motives drive knowledge sharing behaviour, which are not accessible to the conscious mind and cannot be verbalized or measured by survey instruments. Such a method would be an additional tool that assists in our understanding of knowledge sharing behaviour at work.

Additionally, there are a number of ways in which Study 3 could be improved. More specifically, a social desirability scale should have been included in order to reduce the possibility of response bias. Also, the study would have benefited from having detailed information about the exact age at which participants intend on retiring. I asked participants' to rate the likelihood that they would retire from their current job "in the next five years." Asking for an exact age at which employees want to retire would help to get more precision in inferences about late-career planning.

Furthermore, although job involvement emerged as a potential antecedent of continued work and spousal health surfaced as a reason that older employees opt to retire, these variables were not examined in the third study and may help researchers better understand mature workers late career motivation. The relationship between work related attitudes and retirement intentions has been contradictory and inconsistent. Specifically, Shmidt and Lee (2008) and Gee and Baillie's (1999) results indicate a negative relationship between job involvement and retirement intentions, whereas Adams, Prescher, Beehr, and Lepisto's (2002) findings reveal a positive association between the two variables. Researchers suggest that while the job involved employee may exhibit positive attitudes towards her job, she may also intend to retire in order to spend more time with family and friends, and pursue leisure interests and hobbies outside of work. According to Gobeski and Beehr (2008), findings regarding work related attitudes and retirement may be contradictory because researchers have not investigated whether or not these employees would opt for bridge employment. Mature workers who are highly involved in their jobs may be more likely to pursue bridge employment if given the opportunity, as opposed to completely withdrawing from the workforce and entering full time retirement. Thus, job involvement merits further examination and should be included in future investigations examining older workers intentions of continued work, retirement and the possibility of bridge employment.

Likewise, spousal health has been found to influence retirement decisions among older workers whereby wives are more likely to retire when their husbands become ill, however, husbands choose to continue working when their wives experience a decline in their health (Insler, 2014). One of the women in Study 1 indicated that she decided to retire because of her husband's declining health, and one of the female bridge employees revealed that her husband's health would dictate her future employment status. In contrast, only one of the men in the study indicated that his wife was ill, however, he hired a professional caregiver to ensure that she was properly cared for while he was at work. Moreover, her health was not a factor in his decision to continue working. He had plans to retire from his primary career and start a new business. These findings suggest that the decision to continue working or retire may be different for men and women whose spouses become ill, and should therefore be taken into account in future research.

Lastly, as previously discussed, I have reason to suspect that some workers may retire because they have reached the age of 65 and feel that it is time to exit the workforce. However, if we were to invite older workers to contemplate different employment options, would it change the outcome and increase the number of older employees who choose to work past the age of 65? In Study 3, I asked participants about their thoughts regarding the survey. Examples of the commentary include the following: "it made me think," "thought provoking," "I find this survey asks very important and relevant questions, and it made me think about my life goals and my future. I enjoyed completing it and found it very interesting," "I feel it was extremely informative." Although I am not certain which survey items the participants are specifically referring to, the comments do suggest that the overall content of the study may have piqued their curiosity and influenced their thinking on the topic. Future research is needed to determine if merely raising the issue of retirement along with the possibility of pursuing alternate employment options does influence the retirement decision.

A Note about Generalizability

It must be noted that the results of the current studies are limited to knowledge workers in Canada, which restrict the generalizability of the findings. Firstly, research indicates that knowledge sharing is influenced by national culture. More specifically, national values transcend human behaviour in general, and workplace practices in particular (Ryan, Windsor, Ibragimova, & Prybutok, 2010). In countries that are characterized by high power distance, high status individuals tend to hold power, are respected and are quite influential. As such, knowledge tends to flow across, as opposed to up and down, hierarchical channels, as it does in low power distance countries such as Canada, where information tends to flow freely among employees, regardless of status (Hofstede, 2001). Thus, in high power distance cultures junior employees share information with other junior employees. Likewise, senior workers share knowledge with their counterparts (Tan, Wei, Watson & Walczuch, 1998). Under such circumstances, formal knowledge transfer programs may be more effective for intergenerational knowledge transfer to occur because the goals of such programs are to facilitate two-way communication between workers and reduce communication barriers. As was previously discussed, in many instances tacit knowledge transfer requires that the student question the teacher in order to better understand why he performs certain functions, or why she favours a particular business practice (Ipe, 2003; Leonard & Swap, 2004). The implementation of formal knowledge transfer programs may therefore legitimize the younger employee's questioning of his superior's decisions, thus making the process acceptable to all those involved in high power distance cultures. Future research is needed in order to better understand the conditions that facilitate intergenerational knowledge transfer initiatives cross-culturally.

Secondly, empirical evidence is starting to emerge suggesting that knowledge sharing is influenced by industry sector in North America. More specifically, Ryan and colleagues' (2010) research findings indicate that knowledge is shared more often in service organizations such as consulting and electronics' firms, than it is in the automotive or industrial sectors. It is not well understood as to why this is the case, however, researchers speculate that the automotive industry is in a period of transition and has yet to evolve to a more competitive business model, as one that promotes the sharing of best practices (Ryan et al, 2010). Educational institutions or consulting firms may be more effective at sharing knowledge because their business model is built upon transferring knowledge from teacher to student, and consultant to client. Such practices may thus easily translate to the transfer of knowledge between employees themselves, because knowledge sharing is incorporated into the very fabric of daily business practice and the essence of the institution's objectives. Future studies should therefore account for industry sector when examining knowledge sharing initiatives and practices.

Lastly, is also important to note that older employees working in professions that are labour intensive, such as firefighters or carpenters, may have no choice but to retire if they are physically incapable of fulfilling the obligations and responsibilities of their job. Alternatively, employees engaged in knowledge work, such as those in the current studies, are therefore advantaged in that the decision to continue working or retire is really a privileged one.

These results provide a theoretical rationale and practical implications for the importance of developing a better understanding of the late career motivation of older workers and their desire to share their knowledge with their younger counterparts. We have entered a new frontier in health and longevity, which I believe will usher in more positive changes in how we conceive of aging at work. I am optimistic that the world is ready to rethink its perception of older workers, and I am hopeful that older workers are ready to rethink their perception of themselves and the possibilities of working beyond the age 65.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

In the last decade the aging of the world's population has become the subject of much debate as governments confront the challenges of longer life spans and the repercussions of aging societies. As such, international organizations such as the Organization for Economic Development and the International Monetary Fund have called upon businesses to take their place at the table and offer innovative solutions that encourage longer working lives, and ease the financial plight of pension payouts, and staggering healthcare costs associated with aging populations. By all fiscal and economic measures, the view from above points to the necessity of altering pension policies and increasing the age at which people collect retirement benefits. However, the issues on the ground are just as complex, if not even more challenging to solve. A deeply ingrained cultural mindset of the older worker as incapable is not only nurtured by organizations, but may very well be perpetuated and sustained by older workers themselves.

Let us revisit *Sandra* whom you met at the very beginning of the thesis introduction. Sandra is a 63-year-old woman who is contemplating retirement and is torn between whether or not to keep on working or retire. She loves her job, but worries that her younger colleagues regard her as old. She clearly articulates that she does not want to be perceived as *dead wood,* and also expresses concern over what her friends might think if she keeps on working. Yet, she worries that without work she will become irrelevant, and her life will lack meaning. She envies her retired friends who have adapted to a slower pace of life, no longer having to squeeze in early morning workouts, or exercise after a long day of work. Like many of us who struggle with such monumental life decisions, Sandra vacillates between the possibilities of what her future might look like, enthusiastic and eager, but likewise anxious and apprehensive. Indeed, for a segment of society the decision to retire is not as simple as the change in our chronological age from 64 to 65, but encompasses a multitude of other factors. Surprisingly, no one in the interview study mentioned declining abilities, or decreased performance, when discussing their decision to continue working, or exit the workforce and retire.

Harvard professor, Dr. Ellen Langer, has profoundly influenced my thinking about mature workers and aging at work. I have been inspired by her research, and wonder: If older workers perceived themselves as experienced, as opposed to conceiving of themselves as old, would that influence their decision to remain at work past the age of 65? Langer is regarded as the mother of positive psychology because of her pre-eminent work, which started long before the field of positive psychology was even formalized. In 1979 Langer, along with four of her graduate students, conducted an experiment that they later came to refer to as the "counter-clockwise" study. The objective of the investigation was to examine if psychologically turning back the clock by twenty years could influence physiology. More specifically, Langer recruited 16 elderly men in their seventies and separated them into control and experimental conditions. All the men were in reasonably good health yet experienced physical limitations such as difficulty reading, even with eyeglasses. Some walked with canes and others were hunched over due to arthritis. The eight men in the experimental condition participated in a weeklong retreat at a monastery in New Hampshire that was retrofitted to simulate the year of 1959. As such, there were no modern day conveniences, nor were there any mirrors to reflect their current physical appearance. The aim of the study was for the men to go about their lives as they did twenty years beforehand. They were to discuss the political and social issues of 1959, watch movies and listen to radio shows of that era, and talk to one another as though they were actually living in that year. Langer told the experimental group to make a concerted effort to inhabit "the person that they were twenty years ago" and she affirmed, "we have good reason to believe that if you are successful at this, you will feel as you did in 1959" (Grierson, 2014). In contrast, the control group gathered at the retreat one week later and was asked to reminisce about their lives in 1959. They experienced the same surroundings and activities as the experimental group, but they were not asked to live as though it was 1959. Because no biomarkers exist to measure chronological age, Langer put the men through a battery of tests before and after the experiment to measure weight, dexterity, flexibility, hearing, memory, vision, and intelligence. The men were also photographed before and after the study. When the study was complete and the data analyzed, the results indicated that the men in the experimental condition had improved joint and manual dexterity, stood taller and had better posture, did better on the intelligence tests, and had improved vision, memory and hearing after the week long retreat. Moreover, they had fared better than their counterparts in the control condition. They were also judged by a group of independent raters as looking "noticeably younger" than prior to the experiment (Langer, 2009). In her book, *Counter-clockwise*, Langer comments on the experiment and states:

> The study shaped not only my view of aging but also my view of limits in a more general way for the next few decades. Over time I have come to believe less and less that biology is destiny. It is not primarily our physical selves that limit us but rather our

> mindset about our physical limits. Now I accept none of the medical wisdom regarding the course our diseases must take as necessarily true (p.10).

Langer published the original study in a book called *Higher stages of human development.* Once it was complete, however, she purposefully left out much of the vibrant details that characterized the experiment, such as the impromptu football game that broke out between the older men as they waited for a bus. The researcher explains that she anticipated that the journals would reject her findings and would not publish her work. By her own admission, Langer explains in an interview conducted with the New York Times in 2014, the study was small, conducted over a week and full of possible confounding variables. There were certainly alternate ways that one could explain her results. But it was the unconventional nature of the study that she suspected would cause it to be rejected. Accordingly, she explained, "It was just too different from anything that was being done in the field as I understood it. You have to appreciate, people weren't talking about mind-body medicine" (Grierson, 2014). In 2010 the BBC recreated Langer's original study for TV and the renewed attention put her work in the spotlight. She has since written C*ounter-clockwise* in which she describes her research and details her philosophy about the power of mindfulness and possibility. Langer's work on mindfulness is not to be confused with the Eastern practice of meditation. Rather, her work centres on how we mindlessly make decisions by falling prey to our cognitive biases, which tend to lead us astray, cause us to follow the crowd and limit our ability to recognize possibility.

Langer's research findings are quite compelling to me as a researcher who studies aging, albeit, in the context of work. I find it both telling and exciting that it took so long to bring the counter-clockwise study to light. It is telling because it required thirty-one years to discuss the details of an experiment that Langer believed would be received with great scepticism, if at all. It is exciting because I am hopeful that we have entered a new era in which people may not entirely embrace, but at the very least might entertain, Langer's results. Moreover, I believe that her findings have great implications for successful aging at work.

One of the tenets of Langer's philosophy, also supported by empirical evidence from the discipline of behavioural economics, is the notion that people do not make decisions that are in their best interest (Ariely, 2008; Thaler & Sustein, 2008). Even more disconcerting is the finding that many of us make mindless decisions (Langer, 2009). Thus, I started to wonder if mature employees mindlessly choose to retire at 65 because of the societal expectation of our North

American culture to do so. Do we unconsciously resort to making mindless decisions even when it has to do with choices that will significantly alter the course of our lives? Indeed findings from behavioural economics have consistently challenged the notion that humans are rational. In fact, the discipline was founded based on the very assumption that we are not rational decision makers. In a recent survey conducted by the Teachers' Insurance and Annuity Association of America (2014), findings revealed that Americans spend more time choosing what TV program to watch, or where to celebrate a birthday dinner than the time they allocate to setting up a retirement savings account. It is therefore probable that many have not even considered the implications of being retired or the socio-emotional issues that are associated with this life transition. If we can challenge people's narrow thinking and help them to reframe the very concept of retirement so as to include options such as phased retirement, flex-time, working remotely or consulting on special projects, then older employees may be more amenable to remaining at work past the age of 65. In other words, if we expand their repertoire of what is possible, they may just choose an alternate option to full-time retirement. However, if left to make this decision on their own, without consultation from human resources, I suspect that employees will opt for full time retirement because they may not even be aware of alternate employment options.

Of course the experience of retirement may turn out to be different than what it was initially anticipated to be, motivating people to return to work. Findings from the U.S. Health and Retirement study (2002) revealed that 33% of retirees are only somewhat satisfied with retirement, and 6% reported dissatisfaction with this new life phase. Furthermore, difficulties adjusting to retirement are associated with physical decline and depression (Dorfmann & Moffett, 1987; Mathews & Brown, 1987). Research indicates that planning for life in retirement results in a more positive assessment of the experience (Mutran, Reitzes, & Fernandez, 1997), decreased chronic stress and positive emotional adaptation (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997). Phased retirement would help familiarize older workers with what life is really like as a retiree, simulating a *retirement rehearsal* of sorts. Such an approach would also help businesses retain key talent, transfer expertise and better prepare younger workers to assume new roles and responsibilities. It would, too, protect organizations from losing critical knowledge. Delong (2004) cautions; once employees leave and retire they do not seek employment with their former organizations. They desire positions that are less demanding and that offer more time to pursue other interests, resulting in lost opportunities to transfer critical organizational knowledge. Compounding matters is the substantial business cost associated with hiring, training and onboarding new staff until they become as proficient at their jobs as their predecessors (Delong & Mann, 2003). Phased retirement programs would protect organizations from amassing such steep expenses, while providing older employees the opportunity to better prepare for this next chapter of their lives.

Additionally, businesses need to start making better decisions when it comes to retaining and managing their aging workforces. Organizations must determine how they can accommodate the needs and wants of mature workers. Clearly, warning firms about the impending loss of knowledge and the financial fallout of retiring boomers has not been an effective tactic to encourage businesses to rethink their retention policies (Peterson & Spiker, 2005). I advocate a proactive approach to this issue and one that emphasizes the benefits of retaining older workers. In this spirit, I now turn to the practical application of the findings.

6.1. Practical Implications

6.1.1. Human resource managers should become better decision architects

Drawing on the work of behavioural economists (Thaler & Sunstein, 2008) and psychologists (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981) who study decision making, I suggest that human resource managers can encourage older workers to make better choices by acting as decision architects (Beshears & Gino, 2015). There is a substantial body of empirical findings indicating that people are poor decision makers and that we often fall prey to our cognitive biases. For example, we often underestimate the time required to complete a project, or we fail to consider the long-term consequences of our actions. While it is extremely difficult to change the brain's hardwiring, which is often why we make such mistakes, we can change how people make decisions by the manner in which we present information. In other words, we can become better decision architects (Beshears & Gino, 2015). In this regard, I believe that human resource managers can help mature workers move out of the arena of mindlessly making retirement decisions, and into a new realm of conscious decision making in which they can contemplate greater possibilities for work beyond the age of 65. For example, when speaking to mature workers about their options for continued work, I suggest that human resource managers have knowledge about the workings of government and company pension policies and how the decision to work beyond the age of 65 may influence the accrual of pension benefits. If human resource managers are equipped with this information, it removes barriers such as employees, themselves, having to make sense of complex pension regulations and tedious government forms, thus facilitating and easing the decision making process. Moreover, research suggests that monumental events are good opportunities to move people to action (Ly, Mazar, Zhao, Soman, 2014).

Additionally, experts maintain that it is well within the legal right of an organization to inquire about the future employment intentions of their employees without falling prey to an anti-age-discrimination lawsuit. However, it is advised that firms do so in the context of talent management or succession planning issues. As such, it is best to ask all employees of their future employment aspirations when conducting annual performance reviews. Such conversations should be handled with care, remain confidential and facilitate an open discussion about retirement and the various employment opportunities available to older workers such as phased retirement or consulting projects, should these be viable work options (Bruce, 2013).

I suspect that mindful nudging will increase the number of employees who want to work beyond the age of 65. However, future research is needed to determine if such a technique is effective.

6.1.2. Design work that fuels older workers' motives

The findings from Studies 1 and 3 suggest that mature workers are driven by different motives. In my sample, achievement motivation influenced mature workers' intentions of remaining with their current employer. Thus, organizations need to ensure that older employees have access to opportunities for achievement and meaningful work. Furthermore, firms should make training and development opportunities available to mature workers so that they can improve their skills and ensure that their knowledge remains current and up to date.

Additionally, findings from Study 3 indicate that older employees do want to engage in workplace generativity. Specifically, they want to share their knowledge and groom the next generation of workers. Thus, opportunities for different generations to work together would serve to fulfill mature workers generative needs. Moreover, findings from Study 3 revealed that the power motive and workplace generativity are related. Thus, businesses would be well advised to provide older workers with opportunities to mentor younger colleagues. While the results from the study revealed that the power motive was not related to the likelihood of continued work in this sample, the findings suggest that mature workers want to mentor younger colleagues prior to retirement. As such, knowledge transfer programs should be instituted into daily business practice so as to capture the knowledge and experience of mature workers prior to their exit. Moreover, in accordance with the above-mentioned arguments, opportunities for informal socialization serve to meet employees' needs for affiliation, and also benefit organizational members by providing arenas to gather and establish rapport with other workers, thus nurturing relational capital, while contributing to an organization's competitive advantage.

6.1.3. Get in the game: combating age stereotypes with virtual reality

The theory of generativity (McAdams & de St. Aubin, 1992) predicts that for people to engage in generative acts they must regard their contributions to others as valuable. The results from Study 2 indicated an association between perceived value and generativity. Thus, I argued that mature employees' need to feel that their knowledge is relevant for them to share their expertise. Moreover, this theme also emerged as one of the four factors of the late career motivation scale. The repercussions of longer careers are associated with the possibility of ageist attitudes and actions in the workplace. To combat such stereotypes scholars have advocated diversity training seminars and workshops. There is also a new tool in our arsenal to combat ageist attitudes that is only now emerging from Stanford's Virtual Human Interaction Lab. Researchers Oh, Bailenson, Weisz and Zaki (in press) examined perspective taking in a virtual environment in an effort to decrease ageist attitudes toward older adults perceived as belonging to a threatening out-group. Findings indicated that when people embodied an elderly person in a virtual environment, positive feelings and the desire to interact with older people increased. Although these findings merit further investigation, they do show promise and offer a new and interesting method to combat ageism that may prove fruitful with a younger generation.

Additionally, other effective methods shown to reduce intergenerational conflict include reverse mentoring and more recently *digital reverse mentoring* introduced by Time Warner. This vanguard program was designed to keep senior executives at the forefront of digital media by having college graduates mentor their experienced counterparts, and teach them how to use Facebook and Twitter. Moreover, these relationships also enable older workers to gain a more intricate understanding of the consumer preferences, communication styles and values of this younger generation (Hewlett, Sherbin, & Sumberg, 2009). In return, college graduates gain invaluable advice, guidance and access to the networks of their mature colleagues.

6.1.4. The Picasso Principle

In their article, *Establishing the positive contributory value of older workers*, researchers Peterson and Spiker (2005) draw upon a story told by Meyer and Davis that exemplifies the Picasso principle. According to Meyer and Davis (as cited by Peterson and Spiker, 2005), one day in a Paris café a woman approached Pablo Picasso and requested that he sketch her and in turn she would pay him a reasonable fee. To the woman's surprise Picasso completed the sketch within minutes and in exchange requested 500,000 francs. "But it only took you a few minutes", the woman exclaimed, to which Picasso replied, "No, it took me about forty years". In keeping with this theme, in his book, *Lost knowledge*, David Delong (2004) recounts a similar story of a retired engineer who was asked to return to the manufacturing plant where he used to work in order to help diagnose a problem with some of the plant's equipment. After several hours the former engineer marked a piece of equipment with an X indicating the location of the difficulty. He then handed the plant manager a bill for $50,000 dollars: $1 for the chalk, and $49,999 for determining where to place the X. These stories signify the extensive knowledge, skills and experience that mature workers have accumulated over their years of experience on the job. Likewise, they illustrate the power these workers have, should organizations require their assistance on matters only they have the knowledge to solve.

The findings of this thesis indicate that most workers would willingly gift their knowledge as an act of generativity to their successors, as it is an opportunity to write one's professional legacy, or what McAdams (1986) refers to as one's self-defining story. The transfer of knowledge from an older worker to a younger colleague is an occasion to display one's achievements, influence those with whom one shares close ties, and enact a positive and purposeful finale to the last chapter of one's narrative at work. I maintain that firms that value the knowledge and experience of their mature employees are more likely to inspire an environment of workplace generativity. Of course, older employees will one day leave their respective organizations and retire, however, if the organizational environment supports the transfer of knowledge from older to younger workers, the firm will be in a position to promote innovation and maintain a competitive advantage. Moreover, should such an organization require the assistance of former employees, it is likely that retirees will cooperate and request a fair market wage in exchange for their time and expertise. Or perhaps, as exemplified by several of the employees in the first study, they may willingly offer their services for free. In the words of Saint Francis of Assisi: *For it is in giving that we receive,* and as generativity scholars profess, it is in this manner that one achieves immortality.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: CATEGORY DEFINITIONS AND ITEMS GENERATED FROM CONTENT ANALYSIS

Category definitions	**Items**
Competencies **Adequate knowledge, skills,** **and abilities to perform one's job**	**I want to retire when I am at the top of my game** **I want to retire before I am asked to leave due to declining performance** **I want to retire because I feel that it is getting harder and harder to keep up with the workload** **I want to retire before I am pushed out** **I want to retire on my own terms**
Interests and purpose **The pursuit of desired** **Interests, or passions**	**I want to retire in order to pursue other interests** **I want to retire in order to spend more time with family and friends** **I want to retire in order to pursue my passions** **I want to retire in order to pursue my hobbies** **I want to retire in order to start my own business** **I want to retire in order to travel**
Generational Issues **Workplace challenges that** **involve different age groups**	**I want to retire because I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues** **I want to retire because I feel like a dinosaur** **I want to retire because I am frustrated working with younger employees** **I want to retire because my younger colleagues regard me as old** **I want to retire in order to make room for younger workers** **I want to retire because I have difficulties communicating with younger workers**
Stressors **Pressures, inconveniences** **and hassles that influence** **daily life**	**I want to retire because I don't want to deal with bureaucratic matters** **I want to retire because I don't like my colleagues** **I want to retire because I don't want to deal with workplace stress** **I want to retire due to declining health** **I want to retire in order to provide care for my spouse or parents** **I want to retire because I am tired of working** **I want to retire because I am concerned about my health**

Category definition and Items generated from content analysis

Category definitions	Items
Learning and Development Activities that engage or develop an individual's skills and talents	I want to continue working so that I can continue to use my skills I want to continue working because I love the opportunity to learn and grow from my work I want to continue working because I feel challenged by my work I want to continue working because I enjoy solving work related problems I want to continue working because work challenges my intellectual abilities I want to continue working so that I have some place to go to everyday
Meaning and purpose The significance of work	I want to continue working so that I will have something to do everyday I want to continue working because I don't know what I would do if I didn't work I want to continue working because work gives my life meaning I want to continue working because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning I want to continue working because I like my coworkers I want to continue working so that I won't be bored
Benefit others The desire to be of service to others/ the reward we receive from helping others	I want to continue working so I can share my knowledge I want to continue working so that I can mentor the next generation of workers I want to continue working so that I can leave a legacy I want to continue working so that I can leave a footprint I want to continue working so that others can benefit from my experience I want to continue working because work provides me with the opportunity to make a contribution
Recognition: The acknowledgement of achievement, service, or merit	I want to retire from my job because I am passed over for professional development activities I want to retire from my job because I don't feel my work is appreciated I want to retire from my job because my work is not recognized by my organization

APPENDIX B

Consent Form For Study 1

A study exploring retirement decisions

The purpose of the present study is to foster a greater understanding of how Canadian employees want to retire. While some Canadians prefer to gradually transition into retirement by reducing the number of hours they currently work at their present jobs, others opt to leave their current place of employment for jobs in a different industry, start a business of their own, continue to work full time or completely withdraw from the labour force into a retirement where they do not work for money.

As part of your participation in this study you will be asked a series of questions regarding your thoughts about retirement and how you want to transition into this next life phase. The interview will take approximately one hour to complete. With your permission, the interview will be audio-taped, so that it can be transcribed for analysis. Your name, personal characteristics, company name and geographic location will be disguised in the transcript so that you cannot be identified in any way. The tape and this consent form will be stored in a locked cabinet in a locked office. Your participation is strictly voluntary. You may decline to answer any question that makes you uncomfortable in any way, and you may withdraw from the research at any time.

This study is being conducted by Gillian Leithman, as part of her doctoral work and it will be overseen by Dr. Linda Dyer of Concordia's faculty of Management. If you have any questions or concerns you can contact Gillian at gb_leith@jmsb.concordia.ca, Dr. Linda Dyer at dyer@jmsb.concordia.ca or Adela Reid, Research Ethics and Compliance Officer, Concordia University, at (514) 848-2424, extension 7481 or by email at areid@alcor.concordia.ca

Your signature below serves to signify that you agree to participate in this study.

I agree for my voice to be digitally recorded _____ yes _____ No

I agree for direct quotes from my interview to be used under a pseudonym __ Yes __ No

Signature:	________________________	Signature:	________________________
Participant:	________________________	Researcher:	________________________
Date:	________________________	Date:	________________________

APPENDIX C

Interview Protocol Study 1

Current Job Description

1. I would like to know about your current job.
2. Tell me about your position? How long have you been with company x?
3. How do you feel about your career at _____? Things you are most happy with? Not so happy?
4. Does your organization value your contribution?

Future of work at your current organization

5. Are there opportunities to learn and grow in your current job?
6. Do you feel challenged by your work?

Moving on from current organization

7. Barring any unforeseen circumstances, would you remain with your organization indefinitely?
8. What incentives or benefits would you need from your current employer in order to remain on the job passed the age of 65?

Thoughts about retirement

9. What are your thoughts about your retirement?
10. What considerations factor into your decision to retire (health, finances, relationships)?
11. Would you be interested in continuing to work for pay after the age of 65? Tell me why you would, or wouldn't want to continue working?

Describe your ideal retirement

10. If you could design your own career in retirement (your ideal career), tell me what it would look like:

    Probes:

    - Would you continue working for your current employer at the same job?
    - Would you want to remain in the same organization but do something different?
    - Would you want to work at the same job but in a different organization?
    - Are you looking to pursue paid work that is different from what you are currently doing now? If so, what would you like to do?
    - How many hours would you like to work?
    - Would you work the entire year?
    - Would you only work on particular jobs or contracts?
    - Would you want to work from home?

Knowledge transfer

11. How do you feel about passing on your knowledge to the next generation of workers?

APPENDIX D

Instructions for Item Sort Task

Here is a stack of 49 items. Your task is to read each item and then assign it to the category to which you believe it belongs.

The categories are defined as follows:

Learning and Development: activities that engage or develop an individual's skills and talents

Meaning and purpose: the significance of work

Benefit to others: The desire to be of service to others /the reward we receive from helping others

Recognition: the acknowledgement of achievement, service or merit

Competencies: adequate knowledge, skills and abilities to perform one's job

Interests: the pursuit of desired activities or passions

Generational issues: workplace challenges that involve different age groups

Stressors: pressures, inconveniences and hassles that influence work-life balance

APPENDIX E

Instructions to determine response categories for the late career motivation scale

Below are 3 different ways that participants will be asked to rate survey items. In your opinion, what is the easiest way to answer the survey items. Please circle your answer.

Response categories include:
Importance
Frequency
Level of agreement

Below are examples of each:

People consider different reasons as they choose to continue working beyond the traditional age of retirement, or exit the workforce. Below is a list of statements that people have made when contemplating this very decision. Using the scale below as a guide, **indicate how important** this statement is to your decision to retire or continue working. Please note there are no right or wrong answers.

Completely unimportant	**Of little importance**	**Moderately important**	**Important**	**Very important**
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

1	I want to continue working because I feel challenged by my work	1	2	3	4	5
2	I want to continue working so that I can leave a footprint	1	2	3	4	5
3	I want to retire in order to pursue other interests	1	2	3	4	5
4	I want to retire on my own terms	1	2	3	4	5

People consider different reasons as they choose to continue working beyond the traditional age of retirement, or exit the workforce. Below is a list of statements that people have made when contemplating this very decision. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate **how often you think** about this each statement.

Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

I want to continue working because I feel challenged by my work	1	2	3	4	5
I want to continue working so that I can leave a footprint	1	2	3	4	5
I want to retire in order to pursue other interests	1	2	3	4	5
I want to retire on my own terms	1	2	3	4	5

People consider different reasons as they choose to continue working beyond the traditional age of retirement, or exit the workforce. Below is a list of statements that people have made when contemplating this very decision. Using the scale below as a guide, please indicate your **level of agreement** with each statement.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**

I want to continue working because I feel challenged by my work	1	2	3	4	5
I want to continue working so that I can leave a footprint	1	2	3	4	5
I want to retire in order to pursue other interests	1	2	3	4	5
I want to retire on my own terms	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F

Consent form for study 2

Dear Participant,

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Gillian Leithman, a doctoral student at the John Molson School of Business. The objective of the study is to explore workers' decisions to retire or continue working past the traditional age of retirement. Below is a list of statements that people have made when contemplating this very decision. We are interested in knowing if these statements have influenced your thinking about retirement. If a question does not pertain to you, simply indicate that it is not applicable. Please note there are no right or wrong answers.

Estimated completion time is fifteen minutes.

Your participation is strictly voluntary and you may withdraw from the research at any time. Please be assured that all information will remain anonymous and confidential.

This study is being overseen by Dr. Linda Dyer of the John Molson School of Business' faculty of Management. If you have any questions or concerns you can contact Gillian at gb_leith@jmsb.concordia.ca, or Linda Dyer at dyer@jmsb.concordia.ca or Adela Reid, Research Ethics and Compliance Officer, at areid@alcor.concordia.ca

If you wish to receive a report of the study's findings once complete, please email Gillian at gb_leith@jmsb.concordia.ca .

We thank you in advance for your participation. Your time and effort are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gillian Leithman and Dr. Linda Dyer

I HAVE CAREFULLY STUDIED THE ABOVE AND UNDERSTAND THIS AGREEMENT.
I FREELY CONSENT AND VOLUNTARILY AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY.

Name (please print) ___________________________________

Signature ____

Date ____

Witness ____

APPENDIX G

Study 2 Survey

The statements below refer to reasons why people want to **continue working** beyond the age of traditional retirement. Using the scale below as a guide, indicate how important this statement is to your decision to continue working.

1	2	3	4	5	NA
Completely unimportant	**Of little importance**	**Moderately important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Not applicable**

to engage in a variety of cognitive activities	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because work gives my life meaning	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to leave a footprint	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to leave a legacy	1	2	3	4	5	NA
to learn and grow from my work	1	2	3	4	5	NA
so I can share my knowledge	1	2	3	4	5	NA
so that others can benefit from my experience	1	2	3	4	5	NA
so that I can mentor the next generation of workers	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because work provides me with the opportunity to make a contribution	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to collect a pay cheque	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because my work benefits others	1	2	3	4	5	NA

Using the space below please answer the question: **"Why did you choose your current job or career?"**

____
____
____
____
____
____

The statements below refer to **reasons why people want to retire**. Using the scale below as a guide, indicate how important this statement is to your decision to retire.

1	2	3	4	5	NA
Completely unimportant	**Of little importance**	**Moderately important**	**Important**	**Very important**	**Not applicable**

because I am tired of working	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to provide care for my spouse or parents	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I don't feel my work is appreciated	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to pursue my hobbies	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I feel that it is getting harder and harder to keep up with the work load	1	2	3	4	5	NA
Before I am pushed out	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I don't want to deal with workplace stress	1	2	3	4	5	NA
while I can still do my job effectively	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to make room for younger workers	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I no longer want to deal with deadlines	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to spend more time with family and friends	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I am concerned about my health	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to travel	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because my organization does not value my contribution	1	2	3	4	5	NA
before I am asked to leave due to declining performance	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because my younger colleagues regard me as old	1	2	3	4	5	NA

in order to pursue my passions	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I am frustrated working with younger employees	1	2	3	4	5	NA
in order to start my own business/practice	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I feel like a dinosaur	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I don't like my colleagues	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I don't want to deal with bureaucratic matters	1	2	3	4	5	NA
because I have difficulties communicating with younger workers	1	2	3	4	5	NA
While I am at the top of my game	1	2	3	4	5	NA

The following questions ask for demographic data:

1. What is your gender? ☐ M ☐ F

2. What is your age? ________

3. What is your marital status? ☐Married ☐Divorced ☐Widowed ☐Single ☐Common law

4. Do you have children? ☐ Yes ☐ No

5. How long have your worked for this organization? ________ years

6. How long have you been working in your current position? ________ years

7. Please indicate the title of your position: ____

8. How likely are you to retire from your current job in the next 5 years?

1	2	3	4	5	NA
Very unlikely	**Unlikely**	**Undecided**	**likely**	**Very likely**	**Not applicable**

9. If you are planning on retiring from your current job in the next 5 years,

a) Do you plan on working elsewhere? ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ Undecided

b) Do you plan on working? ☐ Full-time ☐ Part-time ☐ Undecided

c) Do you plan on working? ☐ In the same industry ☐ In a different industry

12. What is the highest level of education you have completed? (Please circle that which corresponds best)

Primary School:	1	2	3	4	5	6
Secondary School:	7	8	9	10	11	12
CEGEP/College:	Diploma					
University:	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate			

Other (please indicate what level and how many years)

Thank you for your help!

APPENDIX H

Late career motivations

Consent to participate in research

Dear participant,

You are invited to participate in a research study being conducted by Gillian Leithman, a doctoral student in the department of Management at the John Molson School of Business. The objective of the study is to explore mature workers' motivations to retire or continue working beyond the traditional age of retirement and how they feel about transferring their knowledge and experience to their younger counterparts.

If you agree to participate in the study, please complete the questionnaire by following the instructions below. Estimated completion time is fifteen minutes.

Your participation is strictly voluntary and you may withdraw from the research at any time. Please be assured that all information will remain anonymous and confidential.

This study is being overseen by Dr. Linda Dyer of the John Molson School of Business' faculty of Management. If you have any questions or concerns you can contact Gillian at gb_leith@jmsb.concordia.ca, Linda Dyer at dyer@jmsb.concordia.ca or David McLauchlan, Manager of Research Ethics, Concordia University, at (514) 848-2424, extension 7481 or by email at david.mclauchlan@concordia.ca.

I thank you in advance for your participation. Your time and effort is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Gillian Leithman, BA, MSc, Ph.D. Candidate

Page 1

Late career motivations

POS

The following questions refer to your place of employment.
For each of the statements below please indicate your level of agreement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
The organization values my contribution to its well-being	○	○	○	○	○
If the organization could hire someone to replace me at a lower salary, it would do so	○	○	○	○	○
The organization strongly considers my goals and values	○	○	○	○	○
The organization really cares about my well-being	○	○	○	○	○
The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability	○	○	○	○	○
The organization feels there is little to be gained by employing me for the rest of my career	○	○	○	○	○
If I decided to quit, the organization would try to persuade me to stay	○	○	○	○	○
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work	○	○	○	○	○
If my job were eliminated, the organization would prefer to lay me off rather than transfer me to a new job	○	○	○	○	○
The organization tries to make my job as interesting as possible	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

LGS

For each of the statements below, please indicate how often the statement applies to you, by using the following scale.

	Never	Seldom / Occasionally	Fairly Often	Very Often / Almost Always
I try to pass along the knowledge I have gained through my experiences	○	○	○	○
I do not feel that other people need me	○	○	○	○
I feel as though I have made a difference to many people	○	○	○	○
I do not volunteer to work for a charity	○	○	○	○
I have made and created things that have had an impact on others	○	○	○	○
I try to be creative in most things that I do	○	○	○	○
I think that I will be remembered for a long time after I die	○	○	○	○
I believe that society cannot be responsible for providing food and shelter for all homeless people	○	○	○	○
Others would say that I have made unique contributions to society	○	○	○	○

(continued)

	Never	Seldom / Occasionally	Fairly Often	Very Often / Almost Always
I have important skills that I try to teach others	○	○	○	○
I feel that I have done nothing that will survive after I die	○	○	○	○
In general, my actions do not have a positive effect on other people	○	○	○	○
I feel as though I have done nothing of worth to contribute to others	○	○	○	○
I have made many commitments to many different kinds of people, groups, and activities in my life	○	○	○	○
Other people say that I am a very productive person	○	○	○	○
I have a responsibility to improve the neighbourhood in which I live	○	○	○	○
People come to me for advice	○	○	○	○
I feel as though my contributions will exist after I die	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

NC

For each of the following statements please indicate to what extent the statement is characteristic of you, using the scale below.

	Extremely Uncharacteristic	Somewhat Uncharacteristic	Uncertain / Don't know	Somewhat Characteristic	Extremely Characteristic
I would prefer complex to simple problems	○	○	○	○	○
I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking	○	○	○	○	○
Thinking is not my idea of fun	○	○	○	○	○
I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities	○	○	○	○	○
I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is likely a chance I will have to think in depth about something	○	○	○	○	○
I find satisfaction in deliberating hard and long for hours	○	○	○	○	○
I only think as hard as I have to	○	○	○	○	○
I prefer to think about small daily projects to long-term ones	○	○	○	○	○
I like tasks that require little thought once I've learned them	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

(continued)

	Extremely Uncharacteristic	Somewhat Uncharacteristic	Uncertain / Don't know	Somewhat Characteristic	Extremely Characteristic
The idea of relying on thought to make my way to the top appeals to me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Learning new ways to think doesn't excite me very much	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
The notion of thinking abstractly is appealing to me	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I would prefer a task that is intellectual, difficult, and important to one that is somewhat important but does not require much thought	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I feel relief rather than satisfaction after completing a task that required a lot of mental effort	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It's enough for me that something gets the job done; I don't care how or why it works	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I usually end up deliberating about issues even when they do not affect me personally	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Late career motivations

SFC

Using the four-point scale below, please indicate how often your colleagues offer you help in various forms.

	Not at all	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
How much do your colleagues go out of their way to do things (like sharing your tasks) to make your life easier?	◯	◯	◯	◯
How much might your colleagues provide money or other things if you were in need?	◯	◯	◯	◯
When things get tough, how much can you count on your colleagues to listen, show understanding and show that they care?	◯	◯	◯	◯
When things get tough, how much can you count on your colleagues for advice or information?	◯	◯	◯	◯

Late career motivations

KSB

For each of the statements below, please indicate your level of agreement using the following scale.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Anytime I have valuable information related to my work, I do whatever I can to make it available to other people whom I think may be interested	○	○	○	○	○
When information is requested about some work I have done or in my area of expertise, I do not hesitate to provide the interested person with all the information that I have	○	○	○	○	○
I participate actively in one or several forums or work groups within my organization, providing my ideas and helping others find solutions to their problems	○	○	○	○	○
I am too busy with my own work to be able to help others find solutions to their problems	○	○	○	○	○
I have confidence in my ability to provide knowledge that others in the organization consider valuable	○	○	○	○	○

(continued)

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I often search through the information tools I have available for information and experiences, which may be valuable for the work I am doing	○	○	○	○	○
I try to stay up to date by exploring all the information I can find through the information systems I have available	○	○	○	○	○
I often publish requests for advice and information that can help me in my work	○	○	○	○	○
I do not have time to search through the sources I have within my organization for information or experiences other people may have had	○	○	○	○	○
I have the expertise needed to provide valuable knowledge to others in the organization	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

UMS

Please indicate to what extent each of the following statements is characteristic of you, using the scale below.

	Not Important to me	Of Little Importance to me	Of Some Importance to me	Important to me	Very Important to me	Extremely Important to me
The opportunity to exercise control over an organization or group	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Being able to exert influence	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Being in a leadership position in which others work for me or look to me for direction	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Maintaining high standards for the quality of my work	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Personally producing work of high quality	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Projects that challenge me to the limits of my ability	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Continuously improving myself	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Continuously engaging in new, exciting, and challenging goals and projects	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Opportunities to take on more difficult and challenging goals and responsibilities	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Engaging in a lot of activities with other people	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Please indicate to what extent you agree with each of the following statements, using the scale below.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I like to have the final say	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I would like to be an executive with power over others	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have little interest in leading others	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I try to be in the company of friends as much as possible	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I spend a lot of time visiting friends	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Encounters with other people make me happy	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Often I would rather be alone than with a group of friends	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I go out of my way to meet people	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Late career motivations

LCM

Have you decided how long you will continue working? Have you decided that you want to retire at a specific time? Are you still trying to decide what to do? We would like to know the reasons that are important to people as they weigh their options in this important career decision.

The following statements refer to reasons <u>why people continue working beyond the traditional age of retirement</u>. Are (were) any of these important to you as you make (made) your decision?

	Not Applicable	Completely Unimportant	Of Little Importance	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important
Because work gives me a reason to get out of bed in the morning	○	○	○	○	○	○
In order to leave a legacy	○	○	○	○	○	○
To learn and grow from my work	○	○	○	○	○	○
So I can share my knowledge	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because my experience benefits others	○	○	○	○	○	○
So that I have a place to go to everyday	○	○	○	○	○	○
So that I can mentor the next generation of workers	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because work provides me with the opportunity to make a contribution	○	○	○	○	○	○
So that I have something to do everyday	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because my work benefits others	○	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

The following statements refer to reasons <u>why people want to retire</u>. Are (were) any of these important to you as you make (made) your decision?

	Not Applicable	Completely Unimportant	Of Little Importance	Moderately Important	Important	Very Important
Because I want to go before I am pushed out	○	○	○	○	○	○
In order to pursue my hobbies	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I feel it is getting harder and harder to keep up with the work load	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I don't feel valued by my younger colleagues	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I no longer want to deal with deadlines	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I want to travel	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I want to go before I am asked to leave due to declining performance	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because my younger colleagues regard me as old	○	○	○	○	○	○
In order to pursue my passions	○	○	○	○	○	○
Because I don't like my colleagues	○	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

EAQ

We'd like to know more about the activities you engage in everyday and if you plan on pursuing these activities in retirement. Please use the response key below to answer the questions.

	Not at all	Less than once a month	Monthly	Weekly	Practically every day
Do you **HELP FAMILY MEMBERS OR FRIENDS**, for example by babysitting, helping with shopping, giving lifts?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you attend **CULTURAL ACTIVITIES** such as films, theatre, concerts, museums?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
What about **CONTINUING EDUCATION**? Have you taken any academic or information courses over the last two years?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you **READ** books, magazines, newspapers, union or association newsletters or other types of documents?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you do **PHYSICAL ACTIVITIES**, such as exercising, walking, swimming, etc.?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

(continued)

	Not at all	Less than once a month	Monthly	Weekly	Practically every day
Do you do any **CREATIVE ACTIVITIES**, such as writing, painting, composing, or designing or any **CRAFTS AND HOBBIES**, such as knitting, woodworking, stamp collecting?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you do any **TRAVELLING** such as day trips, holidays, recreational trips?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you **ENTERTAIN** family members or friends at your home, do you VISIT family members or friends, or do you **GO OUT** (e.g., have coffee)?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you **SURF THE INTERNET** to read, chat, etc., or are you a member of a listserv?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○
Do you serve as a **MENTOR TO OTHERS outside your work organization**?	○	○	○	○	○
How often do you intend to engage in this activity in retirement?	○	○	○	○	○

Late career motivations

Employment Information

In what business sector do you work?

- Public
- Private
- Other (please specify)

Please indicate the business area you work in:

- Human resources
- Information Technology
- Information Management
- Business
- Law
- Accounting
- Customer services
- Manufacturing
- Distribution
- Sales
- Medicine
- Dentistry
- Financial Management
- Consulting
- Education
- Other (please specify)

How long have you worked for this organization?

Please indicate the title of your position

Late career motivations

How long have you been working in your current position?

How likely are you to retire from your current job in the next five years?

Not applicable	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Undecided	Likely	Very Likely
○	○	○	○	○	○

Do you plan on starting your own business after retiring from your current job?

○ Yes ○ No ○ Undecided ○ Not applicable

Do you plan on working elsewhere after retiring from your current job?

○ Yes ○ No ○ Undecided ○ Not applicable

Late career motivations

Working after retirement

If so, do you plan on working:

- ○ Full-time
- ○ Part-time
- ○ Undecided
- ○ Not applicable

And do you plan on working:

- ○ In the same industry
- ○ In a different industry
- ○ Undecided
- ○ Not applicable

If you choose to retire, or seek employment elsewhere, would you be willing to share your knowledge and experience with your previous employer if they contacted you to seek your advice and experience?

- ○ Yes
- ○ No
- ○ Not applicable

Late career motivations

Demographic Information

What is your gender?

- Female
- Male

What is your age?

What is the highest level of education you have completed?

	Please specify
Less than high school	
Graduated high school	
Non-university certificate	
University certificate/Bachelor's degree	
Master's or certificate above Bachelor's	
Degree in Medicine, Dentistry	
Doctorate	

Other (please specify)

What is your marital status?

- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Single
- Common Law

Do you have children?

- Yes
- No

Late career motivations

What is your citizenship?

- Canadian
- American
- Other (please specify)

What is your mother tongue? The language(s) first learned in childhood and still understood

- English
- French
- English and French
- English and other
- French and other
- English, French and other
- Other (please specify)

Knowledge of English

	Yes	No
Do you know English well enough to carry on a conversation?		
Do you understand spoken English?		
Can you read in English?		
Can you write in English?		

Knowledge of French

	Yes	No
Do you know French well enough to carry on a conversation?		
Do you understand spoken French?		
Can you read in French?		
Can you write in French?		

Late career motivations

In general, how would you rate your overall health?

- ◯ Excellent
- ◯ Very good
- ◯ Good
- ◯ Fair
- ◯ Poor
- ◯ Very Poor
- ◯ Terrible

Please indicate the degree to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
With my current income I have no trouble making ends meet	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have plenty of money to do the types of things I enjoy	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I have sufficient income for my wants and my needs	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I feel anxious about money	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Late career motivations

Debrief & Additional Comments

In this study, we are primarily interested in factors contributing to people's desire to retire or to continue working beyond the traditional age of retirement. We are also particularly interested in how people feel about transferring their knowledge and experience to their younger counterparts.

Is there anything else you'd like to share regarding these issues?

Do you have any comments and/or suggestions about the survey?

--> Just one more page left!

Late career motivations

Future Contact Information

We would like to follow up with you to explore how things turned out, that is, to find out whether you decided to continue working or to retire. If you would potentially like to be part of our follow-up study, please provide your contact information below.

Note that in order to maintain anonymity, all contact information will be stored separately from the survey data.

Name:

Email:

Phone number:

Thank you for your help!