

# **HUMAN CAPITAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH INTERACTION ACHIEVEMENT MODEL SOLUTIONS OF DIFFERENT GENERATIONS WITHIN THE ORGANIZATION - MOTIVATION PROCESS APPROACH**

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## **Abstract**

The purpose of writing this *article is* Achieving intraction achivement and avoiding conflict is becoming increasingly difficult in a workplace populated by Different Generations within the Organization. This paper presents a model and proposes HR solutions toward achieving co-operative generational interaction by motivation process approach. Design/methodology/approach – This paper adapts motivation processes of relations to explain the distinctiveness of generational work groups and the challenges and opportunities that these groups present when interacting in organisations. Park’s theory, Kubler ross grief cycle, is the mapped onto Park’s race relations cycle in order to link generational interaction to emotional reactions to change over time. Findings – The paper sets out a research agenda for examining how generations interact in the workplace. A human resource development philosophy could be expressed in the following terms: Strategic human resource development. It acknowledges the limitations of using Park’s theory of race relations, in particular the criticisms levelled at assimilationist approaches. Originality/value – The paper provides an alternative viewpoint for examining how generations co-exist and interact and shows how HR solutions can respond to the needs of different generations.

**Keywords : Different generation, Motivation process, Social stratification, Organizational change, Organizational culture,**

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The fundamental aim of strategic HRD is to enhance resource capability in accordance with the belief that the human capital of an organization is a major source of competitive advantage. It is therefore about ensuring that the right quality people are available to meet present and future needs. This is achieved by producing a coherent and comprehensive framework for developing people. (Amstrong, 2006). Harrison (2000), describe as strategic HRD is ‘development that arises from a clear vision about people’s abilities and potential and operates within the overall strategic framework of the business’. Strategic HRD takes a broad and long-term view about how HRD policies and practices can support the achievement of business strategies. It is business-led and the learning and development strategies that are established as part of the overall strategic HRD approach flow from business strategies and have a positive role in helping to ensure that the business attains its goals.

A human resource development philosophy could be expressed in the following terms. Amstrong (2006); 537). We believe that: Human resource development makes a major contribution to the successful attainment of the organization’s objectives and that investment in it benefits all the stakeholders of the organization. Human resource development plans and programmes should be integrated with and support the achievement of business and human resource strategies. Human resource development should always be performance-related – designed to achieve specified improvements in corporate, functional, team and individual performance, and make a major contribution to bottom-line results. Everyone in the organization should be encouraged and given the opportunity to learn – to develop their skills and knowledge to the maximum of their capacity. Personal development processes provide the framework for individual learning. While we recognize the need to invest in learning and development and to provide appropriate learning opportunities and facilities, the prime responsibility for development rests with the individual, who will be given the guidance and support of his or her manager and, as necessary, members of the HR department.

Work is the exertion of effort and the application of knowledge and skills to achieve a purpose. Most people work to earn a living – to make money. But they also work because of the other satisfactions it brings, such as doing something worthwhile, a sense of achievement, prestige, recognition, the opportunity to use and develop abilities, the scope to exercise power, and companionship. Within organizations, the nature of the work carried out by individuals and what they feel about it are governed by the employment relationship.

The term employment relationship describes the interconnections that exist between employers and employees in the workplace. These may be formal, eg contracts of employment, procedural agreements. Or they may be informal, in the shape of the psychological contract, which expresses certain assumptions and expectations about what managers and employer have to offer and are willing to deliver (Kessler and Undy, 1996). They can have an individual dimension, which refers to individual contracts and expectations, or a collective dimension, which refers to relationships between management and trade unions, staff associations or members of joint consultative bodies such as works councils.

The world is becoming a global village with a borderless and knowledgebased economy. Globalization can have far-reaching implications for human resource development (HRD) and management practices in general. The importance of systematically developing human resources in today's highly complex and dynamic organizational environments is increasingly recognized in practice. Therefore, HRD, as a promoter of various forms of learning possibilities in the workplace, has been taking on importance in changing work organizations (Valkeavaara, 1998)

Finding ways to maintain and develop human resources that are capable of being adaptable and flexible in today's turbulent business world has been a major issue. Kaeter (1995) suggested that preparation of HRD practitioners within academic institutions was too theoretical and not realistic enough. Determining which competencies should be taught in the degree programs is a question that needs to be answered ongoing. Validating what is important to include in preparing HRD practitioners for the real world and modifying existing curricula to respond to changes and needs of the workplace are challenges for HRD Researcher.

What competencies do HRD practitioners and university professors in Indonesia perceive to be most important—both at present and in the near future (within five to 10 years)—for currently enrolled HRD M.S. degree students to master before their entry into the labor market, and how do the two groups assess the actual level of competence of current graduates? An additional question was, what human resource development learning possibilities by different Generations within the Organization, and ways through Motivation Process Approach can solve the problem, and the papers presents a model and proposes HR solutions towards achieving co-operative generational interaction.

The three pillars of Human Resources Management (HRM), which explorer the strategic integrating of HRM, the role of manager and impact of HRM in organisation performance. The strategic model of HRM consist of two level, micro level and macro level. HRM model can provide a unifying and analytical framework which is broad, integrative and contingency based. The other hand, many factors affecting motivation strategis and the human resources contribution.

In seeking generational interaction, we should know that profiling generational work group and generational identify in organization. Park (1950) identifies four stages in order to relationship amongs divers group, such as initial contact, conflict, cooperation and assimilation. Reactions to change both individual, team, group, and organization.

## **2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT CHARACTERISTICS OF PEOPLE**

### **2.1 HUMAN RESOURCES DEVELOPMENT**

A human resource development philosophy could be expressed in the following terms. We believe that: Human resource development makes a major contribution to the successful attainment of the organization's objectives and that investment in it benefits all the stakeholders of the organization; Human resource development plans and programmes should be integrated with and support the achievement of business and human resource strategies; Human resource development should always be performance-related – designed to achieve specified improvements in corporate, functional, team and individual performance, and make a major contribution to bottom-line results; Everyone in the organization should be encouraged and given the

opportunity to learn – to develop their skills and knowledge to the maximum of their capacity.; Personal development processes provide the framework for individual learning; While we recognize the need to invest in learning and development and to provide appropriate learning opportunities and facilities, the prime responsibility for development rests with the individual, who will be given the guidance and support of his or her manager and, as necessary, members of the HR department.

## *2.2 HOW PEOPLE BEHAVE AT WORK*

Manage people effectively, it is necessary to understand the factors that affect how people behave at work. This means taking into account the fundamental characteristics of people.

Individual differences – as affected by people’s abilities, intelligence, personality, background and culture, gender and race. ( Amstrong;2006).

The management of people would be much easier if everyone were the same, but they are, of course, different because of their ability, intelligence, personality, background and culture (the environment in which they were brought up), as discussed below. Gender, race and disability are additional factors to be taken into account. Importantly, the needs and wants of individuals will also differ, often fundamentally, and this affects their motivation.

### *Attitudes – causes and manifestations.* ( Amstrong;2006)

An attitude can broadly be defined as a settled mode of thinking. Attitudes are evaluative. As described by Makin *et al* (1996), ‘Any attitude contains an assessment of whether the object to which it refers is liked or disliked.’ Attitudes are developed through experience but they are less stable than traits and can change as new experiences are gained or influences absorbed. Within organizations they are affected by cultural factors (values and norms), the behaviour of management (management style), policies such as those concerned with pay, recognition, promotion and the quality of working life, and the influence of the ‘reference group’ (the group with whom people identify).

### *Influences on behaviour – personality and attitudes.* ( Amstrong;2006)

Factors affecting behaviour. Behaviour at work is dependent on both the personal characteristics of individuals (personality and attitudes) and the situation in which they are working. These factors

interact, and this theory of behaviour is sometimes called interactionism. It is because of this process of interaction and because there are so many variables in personal characteristics and situations that behaviour is difficult to analyse and predict. It is generally assumed that attitudes determine behaviour, but there is not such a direct link as most people suppose. As Arnold *et al* (1991) comment, research evidence has shown that: 'People's avowed feelings and beliefs about someone or something seemed only loosely related to how they behaved towards it.' Behaviour will be influenced by the perceptions of individuals about the situation they are in. The term *psychological climate* has been coined by James and Sells (1981) to describe how people's perceptions of the situation give it psychological significance and meaning.

*Attribution theory – how we make judgements about people. ( Amstrong;2006)*

The ways in which we perceive and make judgements about people at work are explained by attribution theory, which concerns the assignment of causes to events. We make an attribution when we perceive and describe other people's actions and try to discover why they behaved in the way they did. We can also make attributions about our own behaviour. Heider (1958) has pointed out that: 'In everyday life we form ideas about other people and about social situations. We interpret other people's actions and we predict what they will do under certain circumstances.' In attributing causes to people's actions we distinguish between what is in the person's power to achieve and the effect of environmental influence. A personal cause, whether someone does well or badly, may, for example, be the amount of effort displayed, while a situational cause may be the extreme difficulty of the task.

*Orientation – the approaches people adopt to work.( Amstrong;2006)*

Orientation theory examines the factors that are instrumental, ie serve as a means, in directing people's choices about work. An orientation is a central organizing principle that underlies people's attempts to make sense of their lives. In relation to work, as defined by Guest (1984): 'An orientation is a persisting tendency to seek certain goals and rewards from work which exists

independently of the nature of the work and the work content.’ The orientation approach stresses the role of the social environment factor as a key factor affecting motivation. Orientation theory is primarily developed from fieldwork carried out by sociologists rather than from laboratory work conducted by psychologists. Goldthorpe *et al* (1968) studied skilled and semi-skilled workers in Luton, and, in their findings, they stressed the importance of instrumental orientation, that is, a view of work as a means to an end, a context in which to earn money to purchase goods and leisure. According to Goldthorpe, the ‘affluent’ worker interviewed by the research team valued work largely for extrinsic reasons.

*Roles – the parts people play in carrying out their work.* ( Amstrong;2006)

When faced with any situation, eg carrying out a job, people have to enact a role in order to manage that situation. This is sometimes called the ‘situation-act model’. As described by Chell (1985), the model indicates that: ‘The person must act within situations: situations are rule-governed and how a person behaves is often prescribed by these socially acquired rules. The person thus adopts a suitable role in order to perform effectively within the situation. At work, the term *role* describes the part to be played by individuals in fulfilling their job requirements. Roles therefore indicate the specific forms of behaviour required to carry out a particular task or the group of tasks contained in a *position* or job. Work role profiles primarily define the requirements in terms of the ways tasks are carried out rather than the tasks themselves. They may refer to broad aspects of behaviour, especially with regard to working with others and styles of management. A distinction can therefore be made between a *job description*, which simply lists the main tasks an individual has to carry out, and a *role profile*, which is more concerned with the behavioural aspects of the work and the outcomes the individual in the role is expected to achieve. The concept of a role emphasizes the fact that people at work are, in a sense, always acting a part; they are not simply reciting the lines but interpreting them in terms of their own perceptions of how they should behave in relation to the context in which they work, especially with regard to their interactions with other people and their discretionary behaviour.

Role theory, as formulated by Katz and Kahn (1966) states that the role individuals occupy at work – and elsewhere – exists in relation to other people – their *role set*. These people have expectations about the individuals' role, and if they live up to these expectations they will have successfully performed the role. Performance in a role is a product of the situation individuals are in (the organizational context and the direction or influence exercised from above or elsewhere in the organization) and their own skills, competences, attitudes and personality. Situational factors are important, but the role individuals perform can both shape and reflect their personalities. Stress and inadequate performance result when roles are ambiguous, incompatible, or in conflict with one another.

### 2.3 MOTIVATION

All organizations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through people. This means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and, importantly, the work they do and the organization context within which they carry out that work. The aim is to develop motivation processes and a work environment that will help to ensure that individuals deliver results in accordance with the expectations of management.

Motivation theory examines the process of motivation. It explains why people at work behave in the way they do in terms of their efforts and the directions they are taking. It describes what organizations can do to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities in ways that will further the achievement of the organization's goals as well as satisfying their own needs. It is also concerned with job satisfaction – the factors that create it and its impact on performance. In understanding and applying motivation theory, the aim is to obtain added value through people in the sense that the value of their output exceeds the cost of generating it. This can be achieved through discretionary effort. In most if not all roles there is scope for individuals to decide how much effort they want to exert. They can do

just enough to get away with it, or they can throw themselves into their work and deliver added value. Discretionary effort can be a key component in organizational performance.

Unfortunately, approaches to motivation are too often underpinned by simplistic assumptions about how it works. The process of motivation is much more complex than many people believe. People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals. It is wrong to assume that one approach to motivation fits all. That is why the assumptions underlying belief in the virtues of performance-related pay as a means of providing a motivational incentive are simplistic. Motivational practices are most likely to function effectively if they are based on proper understanding of what is involved. (Amstrong,2006)

We should to know: the process of motivation; see figure 1.

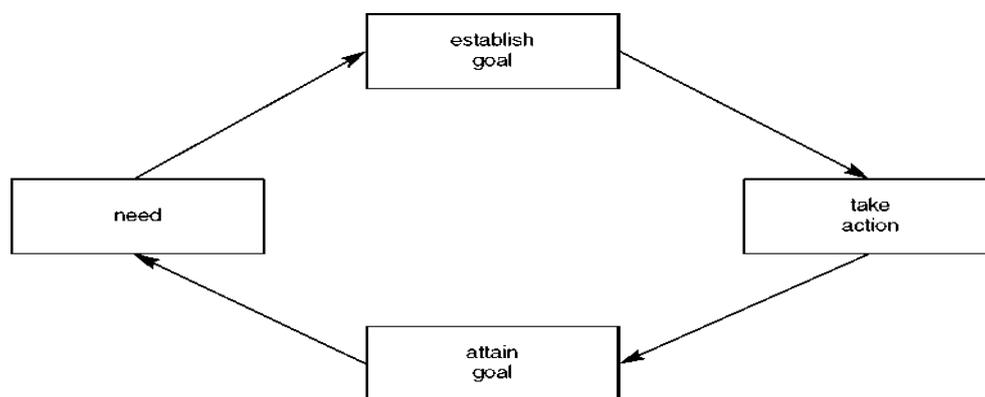


Figure 1 : The process of motivation  
Source: Amstrong:2006

Motivation at work can take place in two ways. *First*, people can motivate themselves by seeking, finding and carrying out work (or being given work) that satisfies their needs or at least leads them to expect that their goals will be achieved. *Secondly*, people can be motivated by management through such methods as pay, promotion, praise, etc.

There are two types of motivation as originally identified by Herzberg *et al* (1957):

*Intrinsic motivation* - the self-generated factors that influence people to behave in a particular way or

to move in a particular direction. These factors include responsibility (feeling that the work is important and having control over one's own resources), autonomy (freedom to act), scope to use and develop skills and abilities, interesting and challenging work and opportunities for advancement.

*Extrinsic motivation* - what is done to or for people to motivate them. This includes rewards, such as increased pay, praise, or promotion, and punishments, such as disciplinary action, withholding pay, or criticism. Extrinsic motivators can have an immediate and powerful effect, but it will not necessarily last long. The intrinsic motivators, which are concerned with the 'quality of working life' (a phrase and movement that emerged from this concept), are likely to have a deeper and longer-term effect because they are inherent in individuals and not imposed from outside.

In addition, Alderfer (1972) developed his ERG theory, which refers to the need for existence, relatedness and growth. Maslow's theory has been most influential. In process theory, the emphasis is on the psychological processes or forces that affect motivation, as well as on basic needs. It is also known as cognitive theory because it is concerned with people's perceptions of their working environment and the ways in which they interpret and understand it. Process or cognitive theory can certainly be more useful to managers than needs theory because it provides more realistic guidance on motivation techniques. The processes are: expectations (*expectancy theory*); goal achievement (*goal theory*); feelings about equity (*equity theory*).

*Expectancy theory*. The concept of expectancy was originally contained in the valency-instrumentality-expectancy (VIE) theory which was formulated by Vroom (1964). The strength of expectations may be based on past experiences (reinforcement), but individuals are frequently presented with new situations - a change in job, payment system, or working conditions imposed by management - where past experience is not an adequate guide to the implications of the change. In these circumstances, motivation may be reduced. Motivation is only likely when a clearly perceived and usable relationship exists between performance and outcome, and the outcome is seen as a means of satisfying needs.

*Goal theory* as developed by Latham and Locke (1979) states that motivation and performance are higher when individuals are set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted, and when there is a feedback on performance. Participation in goal setting is important as a means of getting agreement

to the setting of higher goals. Difficult goals must be agreed and their achievement reinforced by guidance and advice. Finally, feedback is vital in maintaining motivation, particularly towards the achievement of even higher goals.(Amstrong,2006)

Equity theory. Equity theory is concerned with the perceptions people have about how they are being treated compared with others. To be dealt with equitably is to be treated fairly in comparison with another group of people (a reference group) or a relevant other person. Equity involves feelings and perceptions and is always a comparative process. It is not synonymous with equality, which means treating everyone the same, since this would be inequitable if they deserve to be treated differently.

Equity theory states, in effect, that people will be better motivated if they are treated equitably and demotivated if they are treated inequitably. It explains only one aspect of the process of motivation and job satisfaction, although it may be significant in terms of morale.

But, as Porter and Lawler emphasize, mere effort is not enough. It has to be effective effort if it is to produce the desired performance. The two variables additional to effort which affect task achievement are: *ability* - individual characteristics such as intelligence, manual skills, know-how; *role perceptions* - what the individual wants to do or thinks he or she is required to do. These are good from the viewpoint of the organization if they correspond with what it thinks the individual ought to be doing. They are poor if the views of the individual and the organization do not coincide.

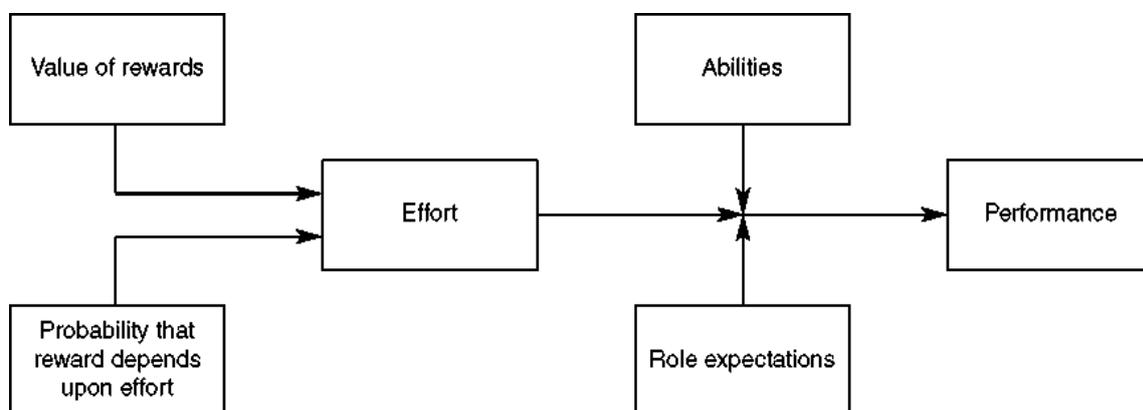


Figure 2: Motivation model (Porter and Lawler, 1968)  
Source: Amstrong:2006

## The Relationship Between Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Money

The basic requirements for job satisfaction may include comparatively higher pay, an equitable payment system, real opportunities for promotion, considerate and participative management, a reasonable degree of social interaction at work, interesting and varied tasks and a high degree of autonomy: control over work pace and work methods. The degree of satisfaction obtained by individuals, however, depends largely upon their own needs and expectations, and the working environment.

### *Motivation Strategies*

The factors that affect motivational strategies and the contribution that HR can make to achieving higher levels of motivation are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Motivation strategies

<i>Factors affecting motivation strategies</i>	<i>The HR contribution</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The complexity of the process of motivation means that simplistic approaches based on instrumentality theory are unlikely to be successful</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Avoid the trap of developing or supporting strategies that offer prescriptions for motivation based on a simplistic view of the process or fail to recognize individual differences</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• People are more likely to be motivated if they work in an environment in which they are valued for what they are and what they do. This means paying attention to the basic need for recognition</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage the development of performance management processes which provide opportunities to agree expectations and give positive feedback on accomplishments</li> <li>• Develop reward systems which provide opportunities for both financial and non- financial rewards to recognize achievements. Bear in mind, however, that financial rewards systems are not necessarily appropriate and the lessons of expectancy, goal and equity theory need to be taken into account in designing and operating them</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The need for work which provides people with the means to achieve their goals, a reasonable degree of autonomy, and scope for the use of skills and competencies should be recognized</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advise on processes for the design of jobs which take account of the factors affecting the motivation to work, providing for job enrichment in the shape of variety, decision-making responsibility and as much control as possible in carrying out the work</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The need for the opportunity to grow by developing abilities and careers.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide facilities and opportunities for learning through such means as personal development planning processes as well as more formal training</li> <li>• Develop career planning processes</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The cultural environment of the organization in the shape of its values and norms will influence the impact of any attempts to motivate people by direct or indirect means</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advise on the development of a culture which supports processes of valuing and rewarding employees</li> </ul>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Motivation will be enhanced by leadership which sets the direction, encourages and stimulates achievement, and provides support to employees in their efforts to reach goals and improve their performance generally</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Devise competency frameworks which focus on leadership qualities and the behaviours expected of managers and team leaders</li> <li>• Ensure that leadership potential is identified through performance management and assessment centres</li> <li>• Provide guidance and training to develop leadership qualities</li> </ul>

Source : Armstrong;2006

### 3. RESEARCH METHOD

#### 3.1 STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

HRD policies are closely associated with that aspect of HRM that is concerned with investing in people and developing the organization's human capital. As (Keep;1989) in Armstrong (2006) says: One of the primary objectives of HRM is the creation of conditions whereby the latent potential of employees will be realized and their commitment to the causes of the organization secured.

This latent potential is taken to include, not merely the capacity to

acquire and utilize new skills and knowledge, but also a hitherto untapped wealth of ideas about how the organization's operations might be better ordered.

### COMPONENTS OF HRD

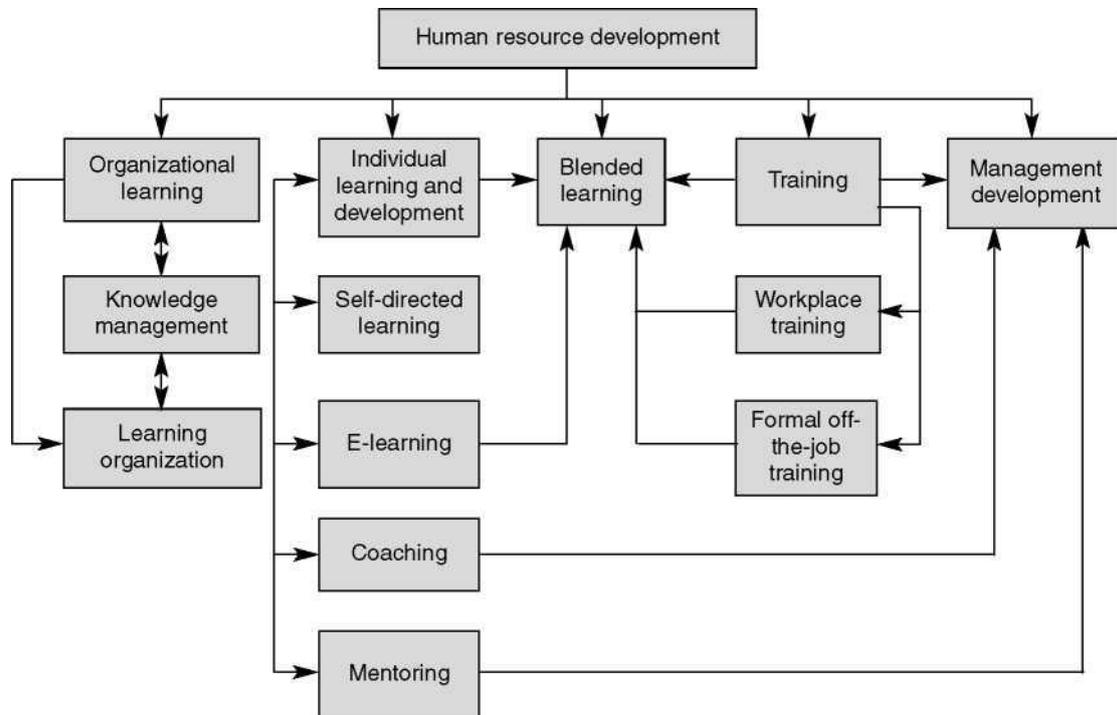


Figure : Components of human resource development/  
Source : Armstrong, Michael, 2006

### 3.2 THE THREE-PILLAR MODEL OF HUMAN RESOURCES MANAGEMENT

The three-pillar model of HRM, which emphasises the strategic integration of HRM, the role of managers and the impact of HRM on organisational performance, is the dominating paradigm in theory and organisational practice. On the macro level, strategic integration assumes the presence of a public-service-wide HR strategy and a respective central coordinating institution. Managers' ownership on the public service level refers to the crucial role of both senior officials and politicians in developing and implementing HR policies. The strategic model of HRM may be desirable on the macro level, but there are no straightforward ways of applying it successfully. However, this article is based on the evidence that, although there are many difficulties and challenges with strategic HRM, a strategic approach in itself is a positive development in order to give a sense of direction and a basis for the establishment of relevant and coherent HR policies. For the public service, a strategic HRM model can provide a unifying and analytical framework which is broad, integrative and contingency-based. The concept of strategic

human resource management has played a key role in management research and practice for the last three decades (Guest 1987; Boxall and Purcell 2011) (HRM) can add strategic value and contribute to the organisational success. According to this approach, originating from the private sector, people are a key resource and a critical element in an organisation's performance. The main rationale for strategic HRM thinking is that by integrating HRM with the organisation's strategy and by applying particular sets of human resource (HR) policies and practices, employees will be managed more effectively, individual and organisational performance will improve, and therefore success will follow (Holbeche 2001; Farnham 2010). "Strategic" is added to HRM, referring to HRM as a strategic function which does not only build organisations' performance, but also is forwardlooking and creates competitive advantage (Holbeche 2001). "Strategic" highlights the need for the determination of long-term goals of an organisation, the undertaking of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals (Goldsmith 1997; Armstrong 2000).

The concept of HRM can be divided into a hard and a soft approach. The "hard" version of HRM emphasises the need to manage people as any other key resource to attain maximum return and added value from them, whereas the "soft" approach highlights that employees need to be treated as valuable assets and a source of competitive advantage through their commitment and high quality of skills and performance (Storey 1989). It has, however, been found out that organisations tend to mix "hard" and "soft" HRM approaches (Legge 2005). The principles of strategic HRM also combine elements of both approaches.

However, a major debate in the field remains: to what extent is HRM converging across countries? Supporters of the convergence theory suggest that the Anglo- American "new" HRM practices are becoming alike internationally as a result of the global market and technological forces. The divergence theory, in contrast, argues that HR practices tend to be country-specific because of institutional and historical path-dependence (Farnham 2010).

In the 2000s, research on strategic HRM was expanded along many fronts. How leadership styles, investments in human capital and HR systems potentially affect organisational effectiveness was further examined. Current trends in strategic HRM research involve further examination of the established

ideas. Issues, such as how human capital or HR systems affect organisational performance and what kind of implementation issues of strategic HRM arise, continue to grab the attention of researchers.(Jarvalt,2012)

Taking into account the developments of the concept of HRM, the thesis suggests three main pillars that constitute strategic HRM. *First*, HRM emphasises the necessity of integrating HR activities with organisational strategy and with each other (Legge 2005). *Second*, managers play a crucial role in implementing strategic HRM (Storey 1989; Boxall and Purcell 2011). HR professionals are supposed to design strategically aligned HR systems, which the line managers are expected to carry out. *Third*, the link between HRM and organisational performance is emphasised (Guest 1997). This is based on the assumptions that HRM elicits commitment from employees and that committed persons perform better and are also more loyal to the organisation (Storey 1989; Boxall and Purcell 2011).

The three pillars of a strategic HRM model on the macro level (see also Table 2) would then include:

- (1) Vertical and horizontal integration of HRM assumes the presence of a public-service-wide HRM strategy (and a respective coordinating institution) as a framework for designing, steering and coordinating micro-level HRM strategies in individual public service organisations.
- (2) Whereas the micro-level approach postulates line manager ownership of HRM, the respective macro-level approach assumes ownership and implementation of a central HR strategy by individual public organisations and their leaders.
- (3) In order to improve performance in the public service as a whole, the macrolevel commitment needs to be enhanced. It does not only mean commitment to a particular organisation and its objectives but it also entails an overall public service motivation including public ethics, a desire to serve the public interest and loyalty to the government as a whole (Perry and Wise 1990).

Table 2: Strategic HRM model on micro and macro levels of public service

	Strategic fit		Role of managers		Organisational performance
Micro level (a public service organisation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Integration of organisational and HR strategy</li> <li>- Link between organisational strategy and external context</li> <li>- Integration and coherence of HR policies and practices</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Line managers' ownership of HRM</li> <li>- HR professionals as strategic partners to managers</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Importance of public servants' commitment to organisation</li> <li>- Emphasis on individual and organisational productivity and performance</li> </ul>
Macro level (public service)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Fit between public service HR strategy and external environment</li> <li>- Presence of public-service-wide HR strategy and coordinating institution</li> <li>- Coherence of micro-level HR policies and practices</li> <li>- Fit between public service HR strategy and internal resources</li> <li>- Shared values of public service</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Top executives' ownership of HRM</li> <li>- Support of political leaders to public service HR strategy</li> <li>- Strategic role of the coordinating institution</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Importance of public service motivation, including public ethics and loyalty</li> <li>- Importance of public trust in the public service</li> <li>- Emphasis on public sector performance</li> </ul>

Source :Jarvalt,2012

### *Strategic Method in Micro and Macro levels*

#### *1. Strategic integration of HRM*

The first pillar of the strategic HRM model (presented in Table 2) - strategic integration of HRM - refers to the organisation's ability to integrate HRM into its strategic plans (vertical integration) and to ensure that the various aspects of HRM cohere (horizontal integration) (Storey 1989; Armstrong 2000). In other words, it is assumed that there is a close link between HR and wider organisational strategies and the external forces shaping them. Additionally, in order to maximise the HR contribution to realising the "grand plan", recruitment and career management, training and development, performance appraisals, reward systems and other HR matters need to be coordinated (Delery 1998). This contingency approach suggests that for any organisational strategy on the micro level, there will be a matching HR strategy and a corresponding "bundle" of HR policies (Holbeche 2001). Although there is still a lack of evidence that this strategic integration will automatically lead to improved performance, a key finding in the research appears to be that implemented HR policies and practices depend on the context and need to be internally consistent and complementary in order to obtain the best effect

(Holbeche 2001).

On the macro or public service level, vertical integration of HRM does not only assume the presence of a public-service-wide HRM strategy (and a respective coordinating institution), but also a close fit between public service HR strategy and its external environment.

*1.1 External fit.* The external context of HRM is crucial because HR practices, in any country, are socially embedded in their wider, institutional, external contexts (Farnham 2010). Thus, vertical strategic fit also means that an organisation needs to match its capabilities and resources to the opportunities in the external environment (McCourt and Ramguttu-Wong 2003).

*1.2 Fit between macro- and micro-level HRM.* On the micro level, vertical integration of HRM refers not only to the external forces helping to shape HR, but also to the links between HR and wider organisational strategy and the management of an organisation as a whole (Farnham 2010). On the macro level, vertical fit assumes the presence of a public-service-wide HR strategy and a respective (central) institution to provide a framework for designing, steering and coordinating micro-level HRM policies and practices in individual public service organisations.

*1.3 Internal fit.* Whereas vertical integration of strategic HRM emphasises the importance of HRM alignment with an organisation's priorities and its external context, horizontal integration underlines the "fit" between different HR policies and practices and the degrees to which they support or contradict each other (Farnham 2010). On the macro level, internal fit implies the adoption of a holistic approach to the development of HR policies and the coherence of microlevel HR practices across public organisations. Horizontal integration also assumes HRM fit to organisations' internal resources, both on the micro and macro levels (Armstrong 2000).

The failure to ensure that internal resources are available may also be a barrier to the implementation of HR strategy. These internal resources include the capabilities of the HR professionals, both on the macro and micro levels, who are the key to the effective development and implementation of HR policies. Another crucial resource in terms of implementing strategic HRM in the public service is the managerial competence. Top officials are expected to adopt more holistic perspectives in HR, to look more widely and across the network as well as within departmental and national boundaries, to obtain

greater management and leadership responsibilities (Mountfield 1997). Middle managers play a substantial role in carrying out HR practices on the micro level.

## *2. Role of managers in strategic HRM*

The second element of the strategic HRM model is represented in the idea that effective implementation of HR strategies depends on the involvement, commitment and cooperation of managers (Armstrong 2000).

## *3. Organisational performance and strategic HRM*

The third defining characteristic of modern HRM is its emphasis on the importance of enhancing high commitment and performance (Armstrong 2000). It is based on a logical assumption that a committed person shows better results and adaptability, is willing to “go the extra mile” and is also more loyal to the organisation (Guest 1987; Storey 1989).

## *Implications for Human Resources Specialist*

The main implications for HR specialists of the factors that affect individuals at work are as follows:

- *Individual differences* – when designing jobs, preparing learning programmes, assessing and counselling staff, developing reward systems and dealing with grievances and disciplinary problems, it is necessary to remember that all people are different. This may seem obvious but it is remarkable how many people ignore it. What fulfils one person may not fulfil another. Abilities, aptitudes and intelligence differ widely and particular care needs to be taken in fitting the right people into the right jobs and giving them the right training. Personalities and attitudes also differ. It is important to focus on how to manage diversity as described in. This should take account of individual differences, which will include any issues arising from the employment of women, people from different ethnic groups, those with disabilities and older people.
- *Personalities* should not be judged simplistically in terms of stereotyped traits. People are complex and they change, and account has to be taken of this. The

problem for HR specialists and managers in general is that, while they have to accept and understand these differences and take full account of them, they have ultimately to proceed on the basis of fitting them to the requirements of the situation, which are essentially what the organization needs to achieve. There is always a limit to the extent to which an organization, which relies on collective effort to achieve its goals, can adjust itself to the specific needs of individuals. But the organization has to appreciate that the pressures it makes on people can result in stress and therefore become counter-productive.

- *Judgements about people* (attribution theory) – we all ascribe motives to other people and attempt to establish the causes of their behaviour. We must be careful, however, not to make simplistic judgements about causality (ie what has motivated someone's behaviour) – for ourselves as well as in respect of others – especially when we are assessing performance.
- *Orientation theory* – the significance of orientation theory is that it stresses the importance of the effect of environmental factors on the motivation to work.
- *Role theory* – role theory helps us to understand the need to clarify with individuals what is expected of them in behavioural and outcome terms and to ensure when designing roles that they do not contain any incompatible elements. We must also be aware of the potential for role conflict so that steps can be taken to minimize stress.

### 3.3 INTERGENERATIONAL INTERACTION IN ORGANISATIONS

*Achieving intergenerational interaction in organisations, we could be* Adapts Park's theory of race relations to explain the distinctiveness of generational work groups and the challenges and opportunities that these groups present when interacting in organisations. Rashford and Coghlan's cycle of organisational change, based on the Kubler-Ross grief cycle, is then mapped onto Park's race relations cycle in order to link generational interaction to emotional reactions to change over time. (Mc

Guire,2007)

### *Profiling Generational Workgroups*

Organisations are now characterised by growing levels of workforce heterogeneity. Such a situation is leading managers to examine the underlying values, attitudes and characteristics of generational groups. Research has indicated that different generations exhibit different learning styles (Costello et al., 2004), different memories (Schuman and Scott, 1989) and different value priorities (Bogdanowicz and Bailey, 2002). However, as Patota et al. (2007) point out, generational groups describe general characteristics and are not mutually exclusive, homogenous categories; consequently, not all Baby Boomers believe in lifetime employment, nor are all Generation Y individuals technologically minded.

While the Baby Boomer generation have followed traditional needs fulfilment stages starting from education, career, marriage and promotion towards self-achievement, Generations X and Y have circumvented the process, seeking self-achievement from their jobs and fulfilment of basic needs simultaneously (Yu and Miller, 2005). The work style and belief systems of Generation Y or Millennials (employees aged from late teens to mid-twenties) are regarded as fundamentally different from any other group of young people in the last 50 years (O'Reilly and Vella-Zarb, 2000). The so-called "me-generation" are much more likely than their parents to leave school and take time out from study to take on non-career jobs or to go travelling for a couple of years. She argues that many managers misread the independent spirit of Generation Y as reluctance to conform; however, this generation do want clear direction and management support, but seek flexibility and autonomy in task achievement and possess the real advantage of being very technologically literate and highly educated.

The clear differences in values and outlooks of generational work groups have made workforce and succession planning more challenging for HR managers. Managing the expectations of different generational groups in the workplace has forced HR departments to design separate sets of motivational drivers to optimise the performance of each group (Appelbaum et al., 2005). In the case of Baby Boomers, the key challenges faced include ensuring a strong balance of work and family life (Yu and Miller, 2005), recognition of loyalty, commitment and achievement (Southard and Lewis, 2004) and ensuring skill sets are aligned to changing job requirements (Arsenault, 2004). Indeed, Acompora and

Boissoneau (1997) suggest that many organisations see older workers as a better investment for their training efforts because they remain on the job longer than young people, and organisations receive a higher return on investment because of greater longevity in the employer/employee relationship. Consequently, employee retention is the critical challenge for organisations in managing Generations X and Y (Yu and Miller, 2005). Hutchings (2006) argues that mobility of younger workers is increasing and employers in the ageing, slow-growing industrialised nations are eager for talent, some of which they are acquiring through emigration from the developing world that is educating more workers than it can productively employ. To retain these workers, Cetron and Davies (2003) argue that organisations need to provide challenging work and opportunities for advancement and training.

### *Generational Identity in Organisations*

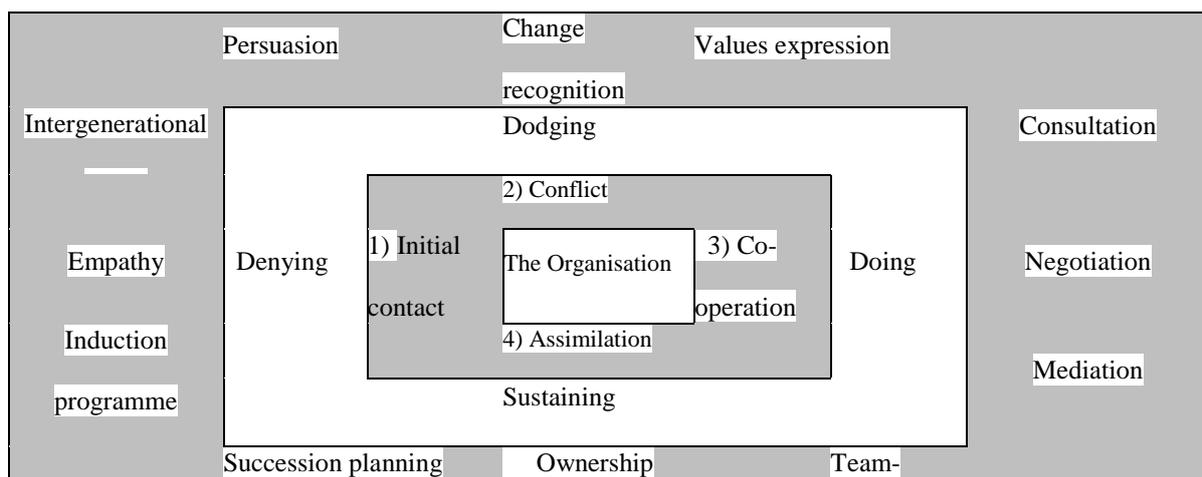
The identity of individuals and groups in organisations is important to the emergence of social relationships, norms and interaction processes. Hogg and Terry (2000) argue that organisations are comprised of internally structured groups that are located in complex networks of intergroup relations characterised by power, status and prestige differentials. They maintain that people, to varying degrees, derive part of their identity and sense of self from the organisations or work groups to which they belong. The attraction of individuals to certain work groups derives from an in-built need for belonging, security and companionship.

Individual self-categorisation forms the basis for group selection within organisations. Ely (1994) argues that identity has two components: (1) a personal component derived from idiosyncratic characteristics, such as personality and values; and (2) a social component derived from salient group characteristics such as gender, race and age.

Hogg and Terry (2000) argue that people in organisations or work units compare their own demographic characteristics with those of other members of the group or the group as a whole, and that perceived similarity enhances work-related attitudes and behaviour.

Individual psychological attachment to groups has important implications in how individuals perceive achievement and success. Ely (1994) argues that when individual identification with the group is strong, individuals may perceive their own capacity to succeed as related to, and dependent upon, the success of other members in the group.

A new model of human resource solutions for achieving intergenerational interaction in organisations. The identification of different generational groups with distinctive value sets within the organisation poses challenges for both academics and practitioners in understanding and managing the expectations and interactions of different groups as well as dealing with conflicts, which may occasionally arise. The model outlines an ecological approach to the study of the organisation and distinguishes four separate stages in generational group interaction. At the core lies the organisation, within which different generational groups co-exist. Generational diversity is defined as the age characteristics of individuals, which may be made explicit through dress, values or appearance, which increases the individual's visibility and by doing so makes more obvious his/her identity with a particular generational group and serves to enforce and maintain social distances with other generational groups. In seeking to explore generational interaction, the present article draws upon Park's (1950) race relations cycle, which examines how diverse cultures are merged, acculturated and assimilated.



**Source:** Adapted from theories of Park (1950) and Kubler-Ross (1969)

Figure 3: organisation generation interaction model

In seeking to explore generational interaction, the present article draws upon Park's (1950) race relations cycle, which examines how diverse cultures are merged, acculturated and assimilated. Park (1950) identifies four stages in order to explain relationships amongst diverse groups:

- (1) initial contact; (2) conflict; (3) cooperation; and (4) assimilation.

In exploring individual and group reactions to change, Rashford and Coghlan's (1989) cycle of organisational change is examined. The cycle consists of the following stages: denying; dodging; doing; and sustaining.

The cycle has an impact on the behaviour of organisations on four levels: (1) individual; (2) team; (3) group; and (4) organisation. The cycle has evolved from the Kubler-Ross (1969) grief cycle, which details a sequence of states by which individuals cope and adapt to change. Although this cycle was initially designed to describe the different emotional stages of individuals dealing with trauma, serious illness and death, there is a clear similarity between these stages and the stages individuals experience when dealing with organisational change.

For the purpose of the model, Rashford and Coghlan's cycle (1989) is mapped onto Park's (1950) race relations cycle. Finally, the appropriate HR interventions for dealing with generational group interaction at each stage of the Park (1950) and Rashford and Coghlan (1989) cycles are outlined.

While the roots of both intergenerational diversity and racial diversity lie in group-level beliefs and values and are observable demographic attributes, there are important differences between the concepts. It is argued that the source of intergenerational diversity lies in economic, political and social events that impact upon individuals of a similar age at a particular point in time. Patota *et al.* (2007) maintain that the shared experiences and collective memories of each generation lead them to a common set of values, beliefs and behaviours.

It is important to note that differences between members can often occur through the selective participation in economic, political and social subgroups. In contrast, racial identity is often determined or inherited through the values specific to a particular race or subculture (Peppas, 2001).

Harris and Moran (1996) explain that society is comprised of a series of Intergenerational subcultures with their own unique particular values sets. While this literature shows that differences exist between intergenerational and racial diversity, it is the similarities between the concepts that permit the application of Park's (1950) model to intergenerational diversity.

The model recognises that the organisation represents an arena in which several intergenerational groups work and interact. Such groups are not only distinguishable on the grounds of age, but collectively exhibit distinctive sets of beliefs and values. Frequently, employees become aware of the conditions of group membership through informal socialisation processes and individuals cannot always escape their group membership (Kirton and Greene, 2003).

Central to the model is the premise advanced by Arsenault (2004) who argues that the misunderstanding and under-appreciation of generational differences arises from the erroneous belief that people change their values, attitudes and preferences as a function of age. He maintains that generational values and preferences are life-long effects, which remain stable over time and are resistant to change, despite social and cultural advances. In agreement, Stauffer (1997) argues that such groups are not only distinguishable on the grounds of age, but collectively exhibit distinctive sets of beliefs and values. As such, the organisation is destined to remain a centre for diverse groups with unique value sets. Moreover, workplace change is interpreted and understood through the prism of values that each generational group possesses.

Furthermore, the model acknowledges the potency of strategically deployed HR interventions in the successful resolution of conflict. However, the model also acknowledges that not all individuals will move through the stages identified. Some will become stuck, and just as a number of individuals will never assimilate, some will never sustain change or even move beyond dodging, there may be individuals that will always have difficulties working in an integrated workforce.

#### *Stage 1: initial contact*

Organisations have become a melting pot of individuals from different genders, ages, races, backgrounds and educational experiences (Greller, 1990). Within organisations, individuals will seek to establish ties of identity and friendship with others and form networks within which to interact and both provide and receive support (Mehra *et al.*, 1998).

The first aspects of group identity is the application of systematic distinctions between insiders and outsiders: between “us” and “them”. He argues that the constitution of groups presupposes an institutional relationship along delineated lines whose members consider each other to be culturally distinct and where difference is reinforced through social contact, argues Eriksen (2002).

Likewise, Hogg and Terry (2000) maintain that self-categorisation of self and others into in-group and out-group accentuates the perceived similarity of the target to the relevant in- or out-group prototype. Ely (1994) argues that the motivation for drawing intergroup comparisons is to achieve and maintain a favourable self-image. He argues that this self-enhancement motive promotes in-group solidarity,

cooperation and support.

Chatman and Flynn (2001) acknowledge that greater demographic heterogeneity generates important benefits, such as increasing the variance in perspectives and approaches to work by different groups. They also suggest that increased competition may result from perceived intergroup differences. Competition both reinforces the self-efficacy of the group and places the group in opposition with other groups in the battle for resources.

#### *Change reaction: denying*

According to Rashford and Coghlan's (1989) cycle, the initial response to change is denial. Individuals may first question the relevance, value or timeliness of change and later deny the change's actual affect on them.

Thus, individuals and groups will passively resist the change (Maurer, 1996). Because the response to the creation of heterogeneous groups is also one of emphasising distinctiveness, accentuating differences and competition (Eriksen, 2002), it may be suggested that different generational work groups will isolate themselves.

HR interventions. During the initial contact stage, the focus of HR interventions is to gain acceptance of the relevance and validity of change (Rashford and Coghlan, 1989). HR needs to facilitate the introduction of new organisational members for whom socialisation is critical to their retention and level of commitment to the organisation. Moreover, effective induction and orientation programmes can result in a more unified and cohesive workforce.

#### *Stage 2: conflict*

Eriksen (2002) argues that conflict is an aspect of the relationship between groups and is caused by threats, real or imaginary, to an existing "ecological pattern" of mutual adjustment. Pfeffer (1983) argues that diverse employees have the potential to experience more conflict with one another because they are likely to have fewer shared experiences and more differences of opinion than similar employees. While Legge (1995) views conflict as a functional means of energising the organisation, stimulating learning and change and facilitating mutual accommodation through exploring and resolving, rather than suppressing differences, Jehn and Mannix (2001) argue that conflict between

groups is unlikely to be beneficial at any time.

*Change reaction: dodging*

At this stage, individuals acknowledge that change is about to occur, but the significance of the change is still questioned (Rashford and Coghlan, 1989). Individuals and groups may try to ignore and avoid getting involved with the change.

HR interventions. At this stage, HR interventions need to focus on securing individual ownership of the need for change (Rashford and Coghlan, 1989). The resolution of conflict among generational groups is a difficult and challenging endeavour. In conflict situations, Legge (1995) maintains that power is the medium for resolving differences. HR interventions typically take the form of persuasion or change recognition, usually resulting in the expression of underlying norms or values.

*Stage 3: co-operation*

In order to instil co-operative norms amongst generational groups, the social differences which separate such groups needs to be decreased. Park (1950) argues that differences in generation and custom mutually reinforce each other and generational conflict can only be lessened through greater interaction. He argues that values and customs are inherited through socialisation processes and that generational co-operation can arise through the establishment of shared norms and experiences.

Research by Zenger and Lawrence (1989) found that individuals are less inclined to share task information with those who are demographically different, highlighting the need for organisational interventions to promote generational interaction. Encouraging greater task participation and focusing upon outcomes creates a mutuality of interest and forces a realignment of priorities and interests. Engaging in bargaining often recognises a loss of situational control and can be accompanied by individual withdrawal and grudging recognition of changed circumstances.

*Change reaction: doing*

When entering this stage individuals and groups will acknowledge change as important. Some will decide to participate and give it a chance (Rashford and Coghlan, 1989), while others will be looking for a solution to the situation.

HR interventions. HR interventions should ensure a critical focus for change and prevent change

overload (Rashford and Coghlan, 1989). In the case of intergenerational conflict, the concept of functional antagonism is an important one (Chatman and Flynn, 2001). It describes an inverse relationship whereby as generational differences become more salient, groups will focus more on their differences than on their similarities. They argue that when this occurs, groups will be less likely to acknowledge and act in accordance with factors that tie them together.

#### *Stage 4: assimilation*

Moving from cooperation to assimilation tends towards the creation of an integrated workforce. As multigenerational work groups become more prevalent in the organisation, group differentiation and distinctiveness become based upon characteristics such as departmental affiliation and interest. Creating a committed workforce espousing values of mutual dependence, achievement and investment requires an acknowledgement of the strengths that each generational group contributes to the organisation (Clausing *et al.*, 2003). Generational strengths need to be conceptualised as benefits rather than threats within the organisation.

#### *Change reaction: sustaining*

At this stage individuals and groups accept the new way of proceeding and integrate it into the routine patterns of behaviour (Rashford and Coghlan, 1989). Ford (2006) maintains that sustaining change can only occur through appropriate organisational policies and practices; particularly, the creation of open processes and empowering communicative interaction.

HR interventions. The aim of HR interventions at this point is to encourage teamwork and generate greater levels of involvement and participation across all generational groups that creating environments that respect the needs of all generations is critical to a co-operative integrated workforce. They propose teambuilding events as a means of promoting unity and allowing different generations to work alongside each other as prejudices are usually diminished in small group settings. They also advocate the use of pairing amongst older and younger generations to promote confidence and self-esteem. HR programmes that appeal to all generations include: telecommuting, alternative work schedules, employee assistance programmes, floating holidays, performance-related pay and merit-based increases.

## 4. RESULTS

### 4.1. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT

#### *Human Resources Development and Human Resources Management*

HRD policies are closely associated with that aspect of HRM that is concerned with investing in people and developing the organization's human capital. As (Keep;1989) in Amstrong (2006) says: One of the primary objectives of HRM is the creation of conditions whereby the latent potential of employees will be realized and their commitment to the causes of the organization secured. This latent potential is taken to include, not merely the capacity to acquire and utilize new skills and knowledge, but also a hitherto untapped wealth of ideas about how the organization's operations might be better ordered.

The organizational process of developing people involves the integration of learning and development processes, operations and relationships. Its most powerful outcomes for the business are to do with enhanced organizational effectiveness and sustainability. For the individual they are to do with enhanced personal competence, adaptability and employability. It is therefore a critical business process in for-profit or not-for-profit organizations.

The elements of this process are (Amstrong:2006) : 1) *Learning* – defined by Bass and Vaughan (1966) as 'a relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of practice or experience'; 2) *Education* – the development of the knowledge, values and understanding required in all aspects of life rather than the knowledge and skills relating to particular areas of activity; 3) *Development* – the growth or realization of a person's ability and potential through the provision of learning and educational experiences; 4) *Training* – the planned and systematic modification of behaviour through learning events, programmes and instruction, which enable individuals to achieve the levels of knowledge, skill and competence needed to carry out their work effectively.

#### *Strategies for Human resources Development*

The strategic priorities for human resource development as defined by Harrison (2005) in Amstrong (2006) are to: 1) raise awareness of the need for a learning culture that leads to

continuous improvement; 2) develop the competence of managers to become actively involved in learning that leads to knowledge creation; 3) expand learning capacity throughout the organization; 4) focus on all the organization's knowledge workers, not just the key personnel; 5) harness e-learning to knowledge sharing and knowledge creation.

#### *Development steps*

The steps required to develop a learning and development strategy as described by Harrison (2005) in Armstrong (2006) are: 1. Agree on the strategy-making team.; 2. Clarify organizational mission; 3. Explore core values. 4. Identify the strategic issues facing the organization; 5. Agree on strategy and strategic plan.

#### *Models for the delivery of the strategy*

Carter *et al* (2002) in Armstrong (2006) suggest that the following models are available to deliver HRD strategy: 1) centralized – all learning and development activities are conducted and controlled from the centre; 2) key account holder – a small corporate centre is responsible for career management and management development processes; key account holders are responsible to the centre for delivering learning and training in business units; 3) devolved – all learning and development activities are devolved to business units; 4) business partner – key account holders report to business unit; 5) shared service – business units share common learning and development services and specify what they want to the corporate centre; 6) outsourced – training outsourced to providers by corporate centre or business units; 7) stakeholder – small corporate centre engages in transformational learning activities, separate shared service facilities are used, learning and development practitioners act as business partners and specialized learning is outsourced.

Motivation plays an important role in intergeneration interaction. In line with the strategic integration of Human Resources management, the role of managers has an impact on organizational performance, on an internal level. Line managers' ownership of HRM is directly related to HR professionals as strategic partners to managers. On the macro level, strategic integration assumes the presence of a public-service-wide HR strategy and a respective central coordinating institution. Managers' ownership on the public service level refers to the crucial role of both senior officials and politicians in developing

and implementing HR policies. The strategic model of HRM may be desirable on the macro level, but there are no straightforward ways of applying it successfully.

#### *4.2. ACHIEVING INTERGENERATIONAL INTERACTION IN ORGANISATION*

Park's (1950) race relations cycle, which examines how diverse cultures are merged, acculturated and assimilated. Park (1950) identifies four stages in order to explain relationships amongst diverse groups: initial contact; conflict; cooperation and assimilation.

In the step of initial contact the motivation for drawing intergroup comparisons is to achieve and maintain a favourable self-image. The argues that this self-enhancement motive promotes in-group solidarity, cooperation and support. Conflict was occurred diverse employees have the potential to experience more conflict with one another because they are likely to have fewer shared experiences and more differences of opinion than similar employees. that conflict between groups is unlikely to be beneficial at any time. Manager become encourage that conflict as a functional means of energising the organisation, stimulating learning and change and facilitating mutual accommodation through exploring and resolving, rather than suppressing differences. Cooperation and assimilation raising after initial contact and conflict, than management intervention need properly.

Park (1950) argues that differences in generation and custom mutually reinforce each other and generational conflict can only be lessened through greater interaction. Values and customs are inherited through socialisation processes and that generational co-operation can arise through the establishment of shared norms and experiences.

The cycle has evolved from the Kubler-Ross (1969) grief cycle, which details a sequence of states by which individuals cope and adapt to change. There is a clear similarity between these stages and the stages individuals experience when dealing with organisational change. For the purpose of the model, Rashford and Coghlan's cycle (1989) is mapped onto Park's (1950) race relations cycle. Finally, the appropriate HR interventions for dealing with generational group interaction at each stage of the Park (1950) and Rashford and Coghlan (1989) cycles are outlined.

#### *4.3. INTERNAL COMMUNICATION FOR INTERNAL PROFESIONAL*

Employee/organizational communications, a complex process that is vital to organizational success in a dynamic global marketplace. its importance and describe basic internal communication processes, networks and channels. Fundamentally, relationships grow out of communication, and the functioning and survival of organizations is based on effective relationships among individuals and groups. organizational capabilities are developed and enacted through “intensely social and communicative processes” (Jones et al., 2004). Communication helps individuals and groups coordinate activities to achieve goals, and it’s vital in socialization, decision-making, problem-solving and change-management processes.

Internal communication also provides employees with important information about their jobs, organization, environment and each other. Communication can help motivate, build trust, create shared identity and spur engagement; it provides a way for individuals to express emotions, share hopes and ambitions and celebrate and remember accomplishments. Communication is the basis for individuals and groups to make sense of their organization, what it is and what it means.

Approaches demonstrate how internal communication changed as organizations grew and evolved. Today, elements of all five approaches live on in organizations—work rules, hierarchies, policies, training programs, work teams, job descriptions, socialization rituals, human resource departments, job descriptions, customer focus and so forth. Corresponding communication practices also are present today in formal, top-down communications, bottom-up suggestion programs, horizontal communications among team members, myriad print and electronic communications and new dialogue-creating social media that are changing communication structures and practices.

Practitioners today are moving from historical roles as information producers and distributors, to advocacy and advisory roles in strategic decision making, relationship building and programs which foster trust, participation and empowerment.

### *15 Principles of Successful Internal Communications*

Effective internal communication is hard work, but research findings and case studies point to some practices and principles which seem crucial to successful internal communications for organizations, employees and members. Here are 15 of them: (Berger:2008).

1. *Timeliness and Content* : Providing timely and relevant information to individuals, through channels they use and trust, and in language they understand, remains the basis for successful and strategic internal communications.; Communication content should provide context and rationale for changes or new initiatives as they relate to the organization, but especially to the relative performance or requirements of employees in local work units. This underlines the importance of the supervisor's front-line role in communication.
2. *Channels*: Face-to-face communication is the richest medium. It should be emphasized in internal communications, especially to resolve conflicts or crises, communicate major changes and celebrate accomplishments.; Excellent listening skills reduce errors and misunderstanding, help uncover problems, save time, improve evaluations and facilitate relationship building. Development of excellent listening skills among leaders at all levels in organizations is crucial. Social media are fast and powerful dialogue-creating channels which can empower and engage employees and members. They influence and alter traditional media and their uses, but don't eliminate them. Communicators should blend new and traditional media in ways that help organizations best achieve their goals and enhance relationships with internal and external publics.
3. *Leadership Roles* : The CEO or senior leader(s) must be a visible and open champion for internal communication. Visibility is the first and most basic form of non-verbal communication for leaders.; The communication style of leaders should invite open, ongoing and transparent discussion so that people are willing to voice their opinions and suggestions.; The actions of leaders at all levels must match their words. This has everything to do with credibility and the extent to which employees will trust, commit to and follow leaders. As author Carolyn Wells said, "Actions lie louder than words."
4. *Professional Communicator Roles*: Professional communicators must see themselves as internal experts on communication who serve as facilitators and counselors to executives and managers and provide strategic support for business plans.; Communicators must also be organizational experts. They must possess knowledge of the organization's structures, challenges and objectives, as well as understand employee issues and needs and marketplace requirements and realities.
5. *Participation and Recognition*: Encouraging employee participation in decision making builds loyalty and commitment and improves the overall climate for communication. Participative decision

making also often improves the quality of decisions.; Recognizing and celebrating achievements at all levels helps build shared values and organizational identity. Similar social events, rites and rituals contribute to and reflect an organization's distinctive culture.

6. *Measurement* : Measurement is a key to successful communication in any organization. Through diverse forms and approaches, measurement helps define problems, determine the status quo, record progress, assess value and provide a factual basis for future direction and action. Improving measurement knowledge and practice is an ongoing professional requirement.
7. *Culture*: Ongoing two-way communication is the foundation for employee motivation and organizational success. Two-way (now every-way) communication provides continuous feedback, which is crucial to learning and to processing organizational change.

## 5. *CONCLUSION, IMPLICATION AND LIMITATION*

### 5.1. *CONCLUSION*

Human capital development is always related to human resources management in an organization. HCD and HRM are based on strategic management on HRM. HRM of an organization has a variety of characteristics terbatungung background, ability, motivation, competence, knowledge, mastery of science and technology.

Identificaty existing HRD will see the potential as well as challenges and opportunities HRM existing. Differences generates different ways of view, how to work, the role of motivation to grow corporate culture and develop self-efficacy and competence.

Adopt Kubler Park (1950) theory, and Rushford became the choice for the organization.

Communication in an effort to foster cooperation and assimilation can undoubtedly reduce the inevitability of the conflict, into a functional conflict.

### 5.2. *IMPLICATION*

Park and Kubler became possible to apply to fellow Asian countries. The strategic model of HRM may be microlevel in a corporate culture organization supported by a work ethic and will work hard to

support efforts to reduce dysfunctional conflict among members of the organization. Communication plays an important role related to strategic management development efforts in facing global challenges.

### 5.3. *LIMITATION*

Combine motivation and or self motivation and Combining HRD and HRM, different generations of HRM in Indonesia. Such as follow Further research is suggested by Mc Guire, Jarvalts

The potential impact of HRM on public service motivation and, hence, on public service performance that was discussed in the thesis from a theoretical perspective, offers interesting opportunities for empirical research. And finally, the effects of the global financial crisis on the public management in general and on public service HRM in particular, which were not in the focus of the current research, require further analysis.

The article acknowledges that several limitations attach to the model. *First*, assimilationist approaches have attracted criticism for their attempts to submerge differences and integrate individuals to the norms of the prevalent group. Both Awbrey (2007) and Young (1990) outline a series of problems with assimilation. They argue that assimilation means that groups who differ from the conventional culture cannot participate in defining the rules and standards used to make meaning. *Second*, it allows a dominant in-group to ignore its own distinctiveness and act as if its views are universal, neutral and accepted by all. *Third*, assimilation promotes self-alienation by engendering self-denigration where individuals differ from the neutral, accepted norm. Furthermore, it encourages that a potential consequence of assimilation is the adoption of false or dual identities or as a means of masking individual beliefs and values.

The case study demonstrated that the common problems of career management interventions in Western countries are also present in the Estonian context but specific issues related to transitional administrations, for example, deficient coordination mechanisms and insufficient management experience supplement them. Finally, it is suggested that the generally encouraging findings of this study can pave the way for future research on career management in Estonia and perhaps other transitional countries of the CEE. Through careful planning, orientation, training and follow-up, career management programmes are realistic HR policy targets in these settings. Such programmes may indeed

offer a positive contribution to modernising HRM and helping to meet the immediate and future challenges in the transition process.

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