

Abstract

The workplace is changing in significant ways, driven by the new economy, with changes in technology (e.g., artificial intelligence, algorithmic management), contingent work, demographic changes, and where work is done. At the same time, the workforce is continuing to age and grow more age-diverse. The focus of this article is the implications of this new economy and aging workforce for human resource management practices. In this paper, we begin by reviewing key concepts around lifespan development theories, successful aging at work, and age stereotyping as the bases for analysing these issues. We then describe the implications of several workplace changes that will have differential outcomes for people of different ages. We conclude with a discussion of implications for research and human resource management given these workplace changes.

Work is Changing: Implications for an Aging, Age-Diverse Workforce

Globally, many workforces are “greying” and growing more age-diverse, with important implications for individuals and organizations (Beier et al., 2022; Truxillo et al., 2015). As lifespan expectancies have increased, retirement policies have been revised to encourage working later in life. For example, in 2024, China revised its retirement policy (Ng, 2024), delaying retirement benefits for 3-5 years depending on sex and job type. In the United States, full retirement benefits will be delayed until age 69 with incentives to delay retirement until age 72 (Social Security Administration, 2025). Due in part to these changes, in the United States, the proportion of workers over age 55 is expected to reach approximately 25% by 2031 and continue growing for the foreseeable future. Parallel to this demographic shift, emerging changes in technological capabilities and fundamental shifts in the work context are unfolding. These changes include profound advancements in technology (e.g., generative AI, algorithmic management), organizational structures (e.g., increased gig and contract work), and where work is being done (e.g., remote and hybrid work environments; Fraccaroli et al., 2024), affecting our understanding of work design and aging.

While research has examined the general implications of the aforementioned workplace shifts, and other research has investigated the role of age at work, a more explicit examination of the intersection between the aging workforce and recent workplace changes is needed. For instance, understanding the effects of increased artificial intelligence (AI) usage and contract-based roles is important. Yet these effects are likely to have differential effects on workers across the lifespan. For instance, some older workers¹ may face rapid upskilling

¹ Note that there are differences across industries and cultures as to who is considered an older worker. There are also individual differences in aging. However, this literature has tended to use the general term, “older worker”, which we use as well in this paper for the sake of simplicity.

needs in response to rapid technological change, while younger workers may encounter heightened job insecurity and reduced career development opportunities in nonstandard employment contexts. Thus, understanding how age shapes the opportunities and constraints generated by these changes is crucial. Further, addressing HRM-related implications of the ongoing workplace changes as they relate to the aging workforce is important for developing inclusive policies, practices, and interventions that support employees across all stages of their careers.

To fill this gap, we identify current workplace trends spawned by the new economy, including changes in technology, contingent work, demographic trends, and where work is done (e.g., remote work), and how they will impact an age-diverse workforce (see Figure 1). Integrating research on aging and the new economy, we discuss the HRM-related implications, challenges, and opportunities for workers of all ages and develop recommendations for future research.

This paper makes at least three contributions to the literature. First, we analyse the HRM-related impact of changes in the new economy with the aging workforce as the central focus. For example, the work context is quickly evolving given socioeconomic changes (Fraccaroli et al., 2024) leading to the growth of gig work, temporary employment, and remote or work-from-anywhere policies (Baldwin, 2019; Jabagi et al., 2019). These changes may be differentially beneficial or harmful for the job attitudes, performance, and well-being of an age-diverse workforce. They can also affect successful aging at work (e.g., Zacher et al., 2018), that is, the ability to maintain motivation and performance across the work lifespan for all workers. While recent reviews have identified the implications of these emerging issues for work design (Fraccaroli et al., 2024), the implications for an age-diverse workforce have not been fully developed.

Second, recent changes in technology, such as the rapid development in AI tools (e.g., ChatGPT), the replacement or supplementation of human managers by AI technology as providers of employee feedback, and increasing demands for automation are likely to have different implications for workers of different ages (Fraccaroli et al., 2024; Pak et al., 2023). For example, while AI may create new employment opportunities, it may also lead to the elimination of some existing jobs or require upskilling of the existing workforce, thus harming job security, fairness perceptions, and psychological welfare among workers across the lifespan. Likewise, the emergence of algorithmic management (e.g., automated management and feedback; Parent-Rochelleau & Parker, 2022) necessarily upends many traditional HRM processes (e.g., performance management) and intersects with the aging workforce. Recent reviews have examined some of these issues: Pak et al. (2023) consider technology, age, and job design; and Fraccaroli and colleagues (2024) consider the new economy and job design. However, no review to date has tackled the issue of these changes in the work context and subsequent implications across the lifespan.

Third, we provide a roadmap for how future research should examine the ways in which HR practices can address workplace changes due to the new economy. For example, as most workers will experience the new economy through changes to the design of their work. Thus, work design models should be applied to study and better understand workplace aging and the new economy. In addition, organizations will need to proactively prevent age discrimination (e.g., Cadiz et al., 2022; Murphy & DeNisi, 2022, Zaniboni et al., 2019) and support employees in meeting their physical, cognitive, and emotional job demands (Pak et al., 2023). For example, issues such as creating a work environment where workers of different ages feel that they belong, have job autonomy, and have access to the resources they need to perform their jobs (e.g., organizational supports in the use of AI and other new technology tools, mentorship opportunities, and developmental feedback) are important in the

new economy. Further, understanding how existing measures capture the experiences of older and younger workers in comparable ways and creating new measures to advance research on aging will be necessary. Future research will need to support such efforts.

We begin our paper by describing theories and concepts around lifespan development, successful aging at work, and age stereotyping to ground our discussion of age and characteristics of the new economy: 1) technological changes, 2) changes in precarity, job insecurity, and contingency of work, 3) demographic changes, and 4) the move to remote work. These topics were chosen by examining the topic clusters identified in past reviews of the new economy (e.g., Fraccaroli et al., 2024), which include the impact of AI and algorithmic management (e.g., Bankins et al. 2024; Grote et al., 2024, to name a few), as well as a focus in research and practice on remote work (e.g., Leonardi et al., 2024). This will include a discussion of trends and changes in the structure and context of work and the HRM-related implications of these changes for an aging and age-diverse workforce. We conclude with a discussion of issues for future research.

Theoretical and Conceptual Background

To analyse the age-related implications of workplace changes across the lifespan, we first review lifespan development theories, which describe how people's motivations, needs, and interests change over the lifespan, which have implications for worker motivation, attitudes, well-being, and performance.

Lifespan Development Theories and Concepts

An important lens for examining age-relevant changes at work is lifespan development theories. These theories consider how individuals can successfully adapt to their aging processes to meet the needs of their environment. Organizational researchers have applied these theories to explain how late-career workers can adapt to their workplace in the

face of changes in their own capabilities and how worker motivations change, rather than decline, with age (Baltes & Baltes, 1990; Cartensen, 1999; Kanfer & Akerman, 2004).

First, *Selection, Optimization, and Compensation Theory* (SOC; Baltes & Baltes, 1990) suggests that people use three strategies to adapt to the aging process successfully. *Selection* strategies refer to purposely choosing goals that match current abilities, interests, and motivations; *optimization* refers to self-regulatory approaches to maintain motivation during performance; and *compensation* refers to adapting to age-related changes by perhaps changing the environment. For example, using a SOC strategy, an aging worker may proactively seek out roles that allow them to apply their accumulated industry knowledge (e.g., decision-making, project leadership) rather than taking on roles that do not match their current abilities (e.g., physically demanding roles).

A second lifespan development theory, *Socioemotional Selectivity Theory* (SST; Carstensen, 1991; Carstensen et al., 1999), relates to people's perception of time and its effects on motivation. Younger people will tend to see their time horizons as fairly open. In the workplace, this may mean that they may focus on tasks that allow them the opportunity to gain skills to help them build and advance in the careers that lie ahead of them. In contrast, older people will see their time horizons as more limited; thus, they may prioritize focusing more on the present, including more meaningful social interactions at work. In short, older and younger people have different *future time perspectives*. Within the workplace literature, this is referred to as occupational future time perspective (OFTP), or a person's perception of how long they plan to stay in a given employment context (e.g., Zacher & Frese, 2009). We argue that OFTP is a critical issue in understanding an older worker's willingness (or unwillingness) to adapt to certain workplace changes: In fact, a degree of unwillingness could be adaptive in the sense that there may be less interest in learning a new job skill if one is not planning to continue working much longer. OFTP could explain the small yet negative

relationship between age and training motivation (e.g., Chung et al., 2022; Colquitt et al., 2000; Ng & Feldman, 2012). This suggests the value of OFTP in understanding adaptation to significant changes in job characteristics at different career points.

Two additional concepts regarding age and motivation are relevant to the age-related workforce changes. First, *generativity motives* (see Kanfer & Ackerman, 2004) describe the increased interest, starting at middle age, to give back to others or to society. For example, a late-career worker may wish to help younger colleagues through mentoring. Importantly, when considering generativity motives in conjunction with SOC theory, these suggest that older workers are likely to purposely seek out such opportunities. Second, research suggests that there may be increased intrinsic motives and decreased extrinsic motives with age (e.g., Inceoglu et al., 2012; Kooij et al., 2011). Notably, both of these lines of research suggest that motivation does not decrease with age. Rather, motivation looks different across the work lifespan, which has important implications in the context of a changing work environment.

Changes That Come with Aging

At the same time, there are changes in the person over the work lifespan, though these vary across individuals. First, certain physical abilities may begin to decline: For example, there is a correspondence between levels of accumulated disability and age, especially beyond the age of 50 (Bruyere, 2006). Although some of these disabilities may include serious health problems, others may be less severe enabling individuals to continue working except in jobs that demand very high fluid cognitive skills (e.g., air traffic controller). These cognitive changes are also affected by a variety of environmental and genetic factors (McClearn et al., 1997) and thus they vary between individuals. Third, research suggests that Big Five personality and some of its facets continue to change across the adult lifespan (e.g., increases in conscientiousness and agreeableness; decreases in neuroticism; Roberts et al., 2006; Soto & John, 2012; Soto et al., 2011). Relatedly, the developmental psychology

literature suggests that older adults are better able to solve emotionally salient and interpersonal problems than younger people can (Blanchard-Fields, 2007; Blanchard-Fields, Chen, & Norris, 1997), partly due to increased crystallized intelligence and better emotion regulation skills among older people. Taken together, it is important to note that there are significant differences in how people age. Chronological age is simply a temporal marker of time since birth, and it does not capture differences in variation factors such as life experiences, environment, genetics, or cohort. Moreover, this within-age group variability can often exceed differences between age groups, and the speed and nature of people's aging processes varies substantially.

Successful Aging at Work

A concept that has emerged in recognition of the need for adaptation, which is implicit in lifespan development theories, is *successful aging at work*. Although several approaches to successful aging at work (e.g., Kooij et al., 2020; Zacher et al., 2018) have been described, most characterize it as the individual's ability to maintain their motivation, performance, and work ability into the late career (Beier et al., 2022). Successful aging thus requires agency on the part of the individual employee, but a key point is that it also implies a context (including HR practices) that will support it. Relatedly, maintaining one's individual health is important for successful aging at work. While organizations cannot compel employees to adopt specific health behaviors, they can foster them through supportive HRM practices. Examples include offering health promotion benefits (e.g., gym memberships), granting schedule flexibility to accommodate physical activity, and providing nutritious food options on-site.

Age Discrimination and Stereotyping

Another key concept in terms of aging and HRM practices is the potential for stereotyping and age discrimination. In particular, this is a potential challenge with a more

age-diverse workforce. Posthuma and Campion (2009) note that while most stereotypes of older workers are negative (e.g., resistant to change), some are positive (e.g., dependable). In addition, Ng and Feldman (2012) showed in their meta-analysis that most stereotypes of older workers are not true. However, they may be slightly less motivated in terms of development activity (although this could be because of a shortened OFTP.) At the same time, older workers often receive more negative hiring decisions than younger workers (Finkelstein et al., 1996), and this may be based on both conscious and unconscious stereotypes of older workers (Zaniboni et al., 2019). However, it may be that selection decisions are particularly susceptible to age stereotyping as relatively little other information is available about the older worker (Beier et al., 2022).

Below we discuss how these aging concepts intersect with the changes in the new economy and the subsequent implications for HRM practices.

The New Economy and Its Implications for HRM and the Aging Workforce

While workforces are aging in most industrialized nations, myriad contextual changes are unfolding in organizations and workplaces more broadly. The work context is undergoing, and will continue to undergo, profound changes driven by technological, demographic, legal, and environmental factors in the new economy. These changes have affected the workplace (e.g., labor market, tasks performed, Fraccaroli et al., 2024). Below, we present a summary of four of the most pressing contextual changes along with the age and HRM-related implications of each, drawing on lifespan development theories. (See Figure 1 and Summary Table 1). We treat each of these changes separately for clarity, although many of them are interconnected.

Workplace Change #1: Technological Changes

AI and Robotics. New technologies are continuing to change the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) needed at work in significant ways, trending away from physical effort toward more mental workload. For example, smart technology, AI, robotics, and algorithms (STARA; Brougham & Haar, 2018) can augment or replace human labor. Such changes require workers to be more technologically savvy, to engage with AI tools, and to continue developing over time. These changes affect a range of HR functions, including recruitment and selection (e.g., who is hired), onboarding (e.g., how they are socialized into the use of new technologies), performance management (e.g., whether such adaptability is rewarded), and training. The use of new technologies will require job redesign both for individuals and teams, and AI can also support HRM and the design of work (Oswald et al. 2020; Putka & Oswald 2016). AI and new technologies can support specific HRM functions – for example, revising job descriptions, reviewing and assessing job candidates, evaluating employee performance, predicting turnover, redesigning employee listening programs, analysing survey data and developing action plans.

On the other hand, these new technologies may also have negative consequences for workers and for employers (Pan & Froese, 2023). For example, recruiters may become overwhelmed with the large numbers of applications they may receive from AI-assisted candidates (Kessler, 2025); managers and white-collar workers (Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 2023) may be completely replaced. Further, in terms of training and development, workers will need to continuously update their skills in response to technological development to avoid skill obsolescence (Behrend et al., 2024; Cascio & Montealegre, 2016). Job applicants will need to adapt to the use of generative AI in personnel selection (Budhwar et al., 2023).

In terms of the age-related impact of such changes, new technologies are displacing certain jobs or otherwise requiring different skills than in the past (Kolade & Owoseni, 2022).

For younger workers, these technological changes may be less jarring (though new entrants applying for jobs may bear the brunt of exposure to AI selection approaches). Their higher level of OFTP and growth motives mean they may be more inherently interested in learning about how to leverage these new tools. However, for late-career workers, these changes may be less welcome. One potential avenue for addressing these changes for the ageing workforce is to encourage employees to engage in SOC strategies, thereby allowing workers to continue working to their strengths, potentially with less wholesale skill redevelopment. That said, in terms of aging, the rapid technological shift suggests that some late-career workers may need to reframe their perspective. Specifically, while growth motives (Kooij et al., 2011) and OFTP (Zacher & Frese, 2009), tend to decline with age, late-career workers will need to continue to upskill to stay up to date with organizational and industry expectations. Thus, late-career workers will need to maintain growth-oriented motivation, open OFTP later in life, and lifelong learning to age successfully at work.

Advances in technology may also present a challenge for older workers in terms of age discrimination and negative age stereotypes. Older workers are stereotyped as being less adept with technology and less able to learn new information (Posthuma & Campion, 2009), and age discrimination has numerous negative consequences, including on work ability, well-being, performance, and motivation (Brady et al., 2025). From the employer side, continued training on age discrimination of both personnel and AI functions is needed. Older adults may also face “digital exclusion”, either from others or self-imposed (Fang et al., 2025). As such, HRM policies will need to adapt to foster a growth orientation among employees and provide tools to continually upskill employees. Lifespan development theories – SOC, SST, motivational changes over the lifespan – can be used as a lens to understand reactions to technology across the lifespan and adjust technology accordingly to fit different HR functions.

Algorithmic Management. The emerging gig economy, combined with technological advances, has led to the emergence of algorithmic and AI-based management (Meijerink & Bondarouk, 2023). This often involves connecting customers with goods and services via IT platforms as well as using technology to automatically monitor employee behavior. In this structure, managers and supervisors, or at least some of their duties, have been replaced, and workers provide work for customers directly and on demand (Duggan et al. 2020). As an example in the HR areas of supervision, leadership, performance management, and compensation, a food delivery app (not a person) tells a worker where to pick up and drop off food and determines their pay. Their “performance” is generally then rated by a customer who likely knows little about performance expectations, standards, and protocols. In some cases, algorithmic management has led to profound levels of organizational innovation. For instance, these technologies can regulate the various phases of work performance (e.g., task assignment, control of work, performance appraisal, rewards, and compensation) in an impersonal manner (without a supervisor). Such approaches are spreading to other sectors (Cheng & Hackett, 2021; Duggan et al., 2020) and will have a profound impact on HRM functions and workers across the lifespan.

The effects of algorithmic management on job quality, work design, and employee well-being have been examined in psychosocial and organizational research (Keegan & Meijerink, 2025). The findings reported in many reviews are negative, highlighting reduced autonomy, opacity of procedures and evaluation criteria from workers, and high work intensity (Kellogg et al., 2020; Parent-Rochelleau & Parker, 2022). Cameron et al. (2022) note that while some workers perceived algorithmic management as providing them autonomy, it generally does not.

Algorithmic management is likely to have important implications for older and younger workers, and thus on the implementation HRM processes, particularly performance

management and employee development. For older workers specifically, no longer being relied upon as heavily for feedback may leave their *generativity motives* unfulfilled, and the narrow scope of their job will limit their ability to apply SOC strategies to adapt their work to their changing needs, engage in job crafting, or otherwise adapt their work environment to fit their abilities. In contrast, for younger and less experienced workers their growth motives may similarly be left unfulfilled if they do not have opportunities for interactive feedback, mentorship from supervisors, or internal growth opportunities (e.g., fewer managerial positions available). Adoption of algorithmic management may also differ in terms of readiness for adoption, for example, because some older workers do tend to have lower levels of training motivation (Ng & Feldman, 2012). Thus, particularly those near retirement may be less interested in using algorithmic management tools, or being managed by them, an important issue for HRM practitioners to consider.

Workplace Change #2: Contingent Work and Its Outcomes

Contingency of Work: Job Insecurity and Precarity. “Gig” work and the general reliance on more contract-based and short-term roles have also made work roles far more precarious and contingent than in the past (Schroeder et al., 2021). This is a global trend, even in countries with higher levels of legal labor protection. These changes have modified the nature of employment contracts and made jobs more flexible, both for the employer and the worker. However, it has also made many jobs more precarious, resulting in increased job insecurity in a larger number of low-wage jobs, especially for workers in roles requiring less training or education (Osterman 2010; Spreitzer et al. 2017). The trend to more temporary, contract, and gig work has also fundamentally shifted psychological contracts to be defined as more transactional, with lower levels of commitment (Cropanzano et al., 2023). These changes have been driven and exacerbated by the macroeconomic dynamics of globalization

and free markets (Parker et al., 2017a) and have important HRM and age-related implications.

The demand for increased contingent work is largely driven by pressures to reduce production costs, which has led to reduced investments in personnel policies, diminished work quality, and increased workloads. However, these roles may hamper long-term organizational outcomes. For instance, relying extensively on “gig” and contract roles will result in difficulties in workforce and succession planning, as it will be more difficult to build a deep pool of institutional knowledge. This also leads to negative outcomes for employees, such as increased stress (Benach et al., 2014). Despite its negative outcomes, gig work may sometimes be seen favorably, particularly when people need jobs that are temporary, short-term, or when it is by choice (e.g., O’Shea et al., 2023; Parent-Rochelleau & Parker, 2022). For instance, an older worker who needs the flexibility to care for a spouse or needs employment after a job loss might be pleased with finding a “gig” job; this flexibility may be seen as a positive aspect of the reward system in the organization.

However, the long-term effects of gig work on older workers may be wearying and compounded by the reduced social protection often found in these roles. Further, while relational job design (Grant, 2007) is viewed as important, particularly for those older workers who have a strong social connection at work, “gig” and contract roles are unlikely to foster deep social connections, much less a team culture, as they are often seen as temporary stop-gaps.

Drawing on lifespan development theories, these trends paint a grim outlook for maintaining performance and motivation (i.e., successful aging at work.) For example, OFTP is seriously hampered if jobs are seen as strictly short-term. That is, the positive OFTP one may be able to envision in a traditional employment setting is likely absent in short-term and contract-based arrangements. Further, the sharing of institutional knowledge requires the

development of relationships at work. However, the shift to more contingent work may lead to scaled down onboarding processes aimed at reducing costs as much as possible, along with minimal investment in growth and career development opportunities, a major potential challenge for younger workers in terms of long-term career outlook, and also for older workers who may be onboarded later in their careers (Bauer et al., 2025b). Moreover, such arrangements do not foster deep commitment between employee and employer. For instance, Garcia and colleagues (2021) found that organizational support drove feelings of excessive obligation and lowered intentions to engage in bridge employment; in contrast, those with more relational psychological contracts sought out role expansion and had greater intentions to engage in bridge employment when experiencing organizational support. Such findings highlight how fostering transactional versus relational psychological contracts is likely to change how older workers interact with organizations later in their careers.

Narrow Job Scope. With the strong shift toward more “gig” work, work roles are becoming narrower in scope (Schroeder et al., 2021). The relative simplicity of these roles means that new workers can get up to speed more quickly, and oftentimes the selection process is more lax. However, there are HRM-related challenges stemming from this shift, particularly around skill development and motivation. For instance, a ride-share gig worker drives a vehicle; a field worker harvests produce. In both cases, there are minimal job skills gained, thus no opportunity for continuous learning to adapt to the new economy, and virtually no ability to change one’s work tasks aside from reducing workload by working less frequently and earning less income. Similarly, this job role is necessarily defined by a lack of task variety, which is considered a key motivator when designing jobs (Zaniboni et al., 2013).

Across the lifespan, having job roles that are narrow in scope is particularly problematic. Younger workers who are early in their career generally have higher growth motives and have traditionally been able to build their skills over time while working for an

organization. However, these narrow-scope jobs are unlikely to provide such important training and talent development opportunities. For late-career workers, these jobs also may not be ideal. One approach to successful aging at work is for workers engage in SOC behaviors and for employers to support such efforts. However, to do so successfully, workers need autonomy and the availability of work tasks and skills. With a very narrow job role, there is likely a limited opportunity for selection or compensation-related behaviors available to workers. Similarly, engaging in job crafting can support successful aging at work. Yet, without the range of job duties and some degree of latitude (Baltes & Baltes, 1990), workers are unlikely to be able to engage in such behaviors. For example, Zacher and Frese (2011) found that older workers in low complexity jobs with low use of SOC strategies had a lower focus on opportunities at work compared to older workers engaging in high levels of SOC strategies.

In short, these conditions likely serve to erode the position of most younger and older workers, but for different underlying reasons. One exception to the negative potential of these jobs is that they may be ideal for those in a life stage where they could use additional income, and work when they want to (i.e., high schedule flexibility), but are not particularly interested in skill development or growth.

Workplace Change #3: Demographic Changes

Longer Lives and Rising Retirement Ages. Many economic and social policies have been implemented to directly or indirectly address the aging workforce. Perhaps the most direct policy shift has been an increase in retirement ages across the industrialized world, meaning that workers need to work later in life to obtain specific benefits. For example, in the United States, full benefits are not accrued until age 67, with incentives to delay retirement until age 70 (Social Security Administration, 2024). In China, retirement ages were changed in 2024 such that full retirement is now 63 years old for men and 58 for women, up from 60

and 55, respectively (Ng, 2024). These changes are in direct response to people living longer and the increased strain placed on social safety net systems associated with an aging population (Kuitto & Helmdag, 2021). Importantly, these changes also mean that organizations need to adapt their HRM policies (Boehm et al., 2021) to account for having employees continue working well into their 60's and beyond.

Working later in life requires successful aging at work, that is, the maintenance of motivation, performance, and well-being and the employee's ability to continue working (e.g., Kooij et al., 2020) as well as maintaining their *work ability*, or the ability or perceived ability to meet their job's requirements (Brady et al., 2020; Cadiz et al., 2019; McGonagle et al., 2015). Work ability does tend to decline with age (Brady et al., 2020). However, the effect is relatively small, indicating that addressing work ability from strictly an age point of view is insufficient. Indeed, Ilmarinen et al. (1991) found differences in age trajectories of work ability by job function, such that those in more physically demanding roles experience declines in work ability earlier than those in cognitively demanding ones. Other researchers argued for the importance of considering emotional and social aspects of work ability (McCarthy et al., 2024), which may be less affected by age. Job resources also have a positive effect on work ability, whereas job demands tend to have a negative effect on work ability.

From an HRM perspective, this suggests organizations should develop policies targeted at reducing certain demands, particularly those with direct age-related capacity changes (e.g., reduce physical demands) as workers age. Such changes may in fact be attractive to younger workers as well. Moreover, leveraging job crafting and SOC strategies (e.g., in part via increased autonomy), as well as ensuring aging workers receive job resources relevant to meeting their demands, will be critical to workers' being able to continue working later in life.

Older and More Age-Diverse Workplaces. A consequence of workers needing to continue working later in life is that the workforce is becoming older and more age-diverse. For instance, workforce participation for those aged 65-74 is expected to reach 30.4% by 2033 and 10.1% for those age 75 and older (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2024). The subsequent increase in age diversity, especially juxtaposed with more age-homogeneous work groups, will result in the more explicit need for age-inclusive HRM and employee relations practices.

One issue is whether increased age diversity always leads to positive organizational outcomes. While increased diversity could lead to improved decision-making and sustained knowledge of organizational history and practices, it might also lead to conflict, for example, if age diversity is associated with age faultlines in teams and corresponding declines in team performance (e.g., Valls et al., 2021). What is important is how age diversity is managed. For instance, research has found that if HR practices are fair to people of all ages, it can result in a positive organizational climate and improved organizational performance (e.g., Boehm et al., 2014). Similarly, age diversity is likely to lead to better climate and performance if top managers do not hold negative age stereotypes and when HR policies are diversity friendly (Kunze et al., 2013). Thus, HR policies and top management play a key role in making age diversity beneficial for organizational health.

In addition, increase in team age diversity has significant implications for HRM and organizational health. One concern for increased age diversity is the potential for increased age discrimination. Although age discrimination is unique in that it is perhaps one of the most socially acceptable “isms” (Finkelstein & Truxillo, 2013), it still has many negative consequences. For example, Brady and colleagues (2025) found that age discrimination has negative consequences for employee well-being, motivation, and performance through its effects on work ability. Researchers have also studied the antecedents of age bias, which may

serve as potential avenues to stem age discrimination. For example, Henry et al. (2015) found that intergenerational contact quality reduced age bias, with opportunities for generativity and development serving as key antecedents to the high-quality intergenerational contact. Overall, this implies that organizations will need to take proactive steps to reduce age discrimination and biases, such as ensuring their recruitment and selection processes welcome applicants across the age spectrum; training workers and supervisors on age bias; and explicitly including age discrimination in employee relations policies. Relatedly, onboarding processes – which often focus on younger workers – may need to be adapted for older cohorts as well (Bauer et al., 2025b).

On the positive side, age diversity provides an opportunity to capture and transfer the knowledge of late-career employees prior to their retirement, including strategies for knowledge transfer across age groups. This knowledge transfer process may be easier to achieve in age-diverse work groups. For instance, institutionalized knowledge transfer may be facilitated by leveraging the generally stronger generativity motives of older workers and generally stronger growth motives of younger workers. Further, a more age-diverse work group is likely to be better equipped for leveraging new approaches to solving organizational challenges while drawing on the experience of veteran employees to guide decision-making. Thus, HRM policies need to be adopted to both reduce age discrimination and ensure that the transfer of knowledge actually occurs. Moreover, research has shown that age-supportive HR policies for workers of all ages can support a positive age diversity climate, with effects on turnover and performance (Boehm et al., 2014).

Workplace Change #4: The Move to Remote Work and Where Work Is Done

Technological developments not only affect job tasks and the management of such tasks, but also how and where work is performed. For instance, there is an increasing tendency towards the spatial and temporal deconstruction of work. Work may no longer be

done in a fixed location with a set schedule (e.g., telework; virtual teams; Jooss et al., 2021). Extraordinary events such as the COVID-19 pandemic have accelerated these changes (Kramer & Kramer, 2020; Malhotra, 2021). Although research on the effects of these changes is still ongoing, some trends have emerged, and we can draw upon existing lifespan development theories to better understand the potential effects of these shifts. Moreover, initial evidence has started to accumulate suggesting that remote work may have differential effects on older versus younger workers, much of it positive, as Scheibe and colleagues (2024) found older workers more adept at boundary management when teleworking.

On the one hand, this shift provides employees with greater autonomy in designing their work and allows them a more agentic role. Lifespan development theories suggest this should have an overall positive effect on workers across the lifespan. However, this shift also comes with possible risks. For example, Becker and colleagues (2022) found that the potential positive effects of remote were conditioned on the individuals' preferences for workplace segmentation. Similarly, Perry and colleagues (2023) found family-related interruptions during remote work serve as a hindrance stressor. Moreover, relationship-building and interpersonal connections are more difficult to develop in remote environments. There would be similar challenges regarding knowledge transfer, team development, and workforce development. Further, there are psychological risks, such as techno-stress, the blurring of boundaries between work and personal life, social and professional isolation, and perceived threats to professional advancement (Charalampous et al. 2019; Trzebiatowski et al., 2023). These issues could be important for early-career workers who need greater role clarity and a sense of belonging when they are onboarded as they enter an organization (Bauer et al., 2025a). On the other hand, they may also be a major barrier to maintaining the motivation for older workers, who may be more focused on interpersonal relationships (e.g., SST) and doing meaningful work. Specifically, while older workers tend to have greater

generativity motives which can lead to the development of other employees, passing knowledge along to others requires an interpersonal connection. Similarly, in the context of an increasingly diverse workforce in terms of age, sex, and ethnicity, relationship building may prove more difficult if there is minimal in-person contact.

Guidance for Future Research

Taken together, many of these shifts in the new economy necessitate the further study of aging at work. This will not only enable the development of more effective HRM policies and practices, but also a better understanding of the phenomenon of workplace aging. In this section, we identify a number of gaps in the literature on age and work in the new economy, and we propose a research agenda to address these gaps (see Table 2).

Job Design and Job Crafting

Workplace disruptions are likely to affect older and younger employees via the design of their work, and several work design models are relevant to this phenomenon. The Job Characteristics Model (JCM; Hackman & Oldham, 1976) identifies specific characteristics of work and how they relate to motivation and performance. The JCM highlights how three *psychological states* (meaningfulness, responsibility, and knowledge of results) explain the link between job characteristics and their outcomes. Later, Morgeson and colleagues (Morgeson et al., 2006; Humphrey et al., 2007) expanded the number of job characteristics and showed meta-analytically the importance of these characteristics to the three psychological states and behavior, attitudes, and well-being. With regard to age, Morgeson et al.'s approach has been used to analyse the interplay of job characteristics and age (Truxillo et al., 2012) suggesting, based on lifespan development theory, that some job characteristics are more important than others to older workers. For example, studies by Zaniboni et al. (2013; 2014) supported this analysis, finding, for instance, that task variety may be more

important for younger workers (with a greater need to learn job skills) than older workers. These studies show the potential of examining job design issues for older and younger workers, but more work is needed to examine the differential outcomes of older and younger people in jobs. Such research would be valuable for job characteristics emerging in the new economy such as reduced autonomy, complexity, and social interaction.

An especially important aspect of job design that may be relevant to age differences in the new economy is *relational job design* (Grant, 2007; Grant, 2008; Parker et al., 2017a), that is, whether the job has prosocial aspects and connects employees with how their work benefits others or the larger society. Relational job design suggests that the benefit of one's job on other people is a key motivating factor. Given the importance of intrinsic motivation and generativity motives for older workers discussed earlier, relational job design intersects with some key aspects of aging. Further, given the increased focus on interpersonal relationships later in life (e.g., Carstensen, 1991), research should examine whether this issue may be especially acute for people in their late careers (e.g., Fazi et al., 2019). The interplay of relational job design and age is a topic ripe for more research given the reduced relational aspects of work (e.g., algorithmic management) in the new economy.

The Job Demand-Resources model (JD-R; Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) conceptualizes *job demands* as aspects of the job requiring sustained effort, thereby resulting in psychological or physiological costs; *job resources* are aspects of the job that are helpful in accomplishing work goals, fostering personal growth, or mitigating the negative effects of job demands. Whereas job demands lead to strain and negative well-being outcomes, job resources serve as both important motivators and aspects of the job that help buffer against the negative effects of job demands. JD-R approach captures both the motivating and stressful aspects of the new economy (e.g., gig work, algorithmic management, remote work) and how age-related personal resources (e.g., job skills) or demands (e.g., physical capacity)

may affect employees in confronting these jobs. Age would be an especially important issue to consider in future research because it is associated with both resource gains and losses (job experience, job knowledge) and vulnerabilities affecting work ability (e.g., Brady et al., 2020; physical declines). For example, older individuals are likely to have more work experience, greater industry knowledge, and higher levels of conscientiousness (Roberts et al., 2006). On the other hand, age is negatively related to work ability (the ability to meet current job requirements; Brady et al., 2020) and related to increased chronic health conditions. Further, the heterogeneity of these age-related factors across individuals likely obscures the effects of age on work outcomes. In fact, these workplace changes in the new economy may act to reduce employee resources affecting motivation, well-being, and performance (Parent-Rocheleau & Parker, 2022). Research examining different, specific dimensions of work ability (McCarthy et al., 2024) across job types could further provide solutions for HR. Thus, identifying HR policies and interventions that are differentially helpful to people across age groups and their relevance for fit with new economy jobs will be important.

Job crafting refers to an individual actively reshaping their job characteristics to better align with their own preferences, motives, and skills (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Compared to traditional approaches to job design, which focus on top-down changes to the job to motivate employees, job crafting takes a bottom-up approach to job design, where the employee may take an active role in the implementation of the job characteristics. Because aging is associated with changes to one's capacities – both positive and negative – proactively shaping one's role may help people continue working successfully later in life. At the same time, older workers (who are likely highly experienced in their roles) should be better able to know how to craft their jobs effectively. While different models of job crafting have been developed (see Zhang & Parker, 2019), the underlying approach has been shown to yield positive results in terms of job attitudes, engagement, and performance (Rudolph et al.,

2017). Job crafting interventions have also been developed to assist employees with understanding how they might go about crafting their jobs (e.g., Demerouti et al., 2021; Kooij et al., 2017), and research also suggests that crafting interventions may have different effects on older and younger workers (Kooij et al., 2017). Considering the trajectory of work being more knowledge-based and less reliant on repetitive physical tasks (Harris, 2001), along with changes in knowledge work due to developments in AI, job crafting is primed to play an important role in supporting an aging workforce. In fact, AI may actually assist employees in crafting their jobs to fit their specific needs as they age. We urge the continued examination of job crafting interventions to support people working later in life.

Similarly, as teams are increasingly age-diverse, identifying and capitalizing on team members' varying individual capacities would likely benefit both individuals and teams. This may require that older workers proactively undertake job crafting to fit their interpersonal needs, either in terms of making actual changes to their jobs or, if that is not possible, engaging in cognitive crafting (e.g., Bindl et al., 2019). Research is needed on HR practices to assist organizations in best utilizing different team members' capabilities.

The Constancy of Change in Work and Its Context

Change and uncertainty will pervade the new economy as it unfolds. This may manifest as sudden shocks (e.g., the elimination of jobs, AI) as described by Event System Theory (EST; Morgeson et al. 2015). EST posits that larger world events (e.g., an economic crisis) that are novel, disruptive, and critical can change organizational behaviors and multiple organizational patterns across levels. For example, an extreme weather event could change work patterns with knock-on effects for the organization and its members. Similarly, the COVID-19 pandemic changed work practices, sometimes with lasting effects (e.g., the desire by some workers for remote or hybrid work). Thus, an important research question is how threats such as economic downturns, job elimination, pandemics, natural disasters, and

other major global events impact the well-being of workers of different ages. More specifically, research needs to address how to support workers of different ages in adapting to such threats. One such support might be redesigning the work environment (e.g., remote work).

In short, workers will require a high degree of adaptability to both predicted (complete elimination of some jobs) and unpredictable shocks (economic, policy, and disaster-related) expected in the coming decades. This is an important point, as this magnitude of work adaptation has not been required of workers since the Industrial Revolution. Regarding age and work, this means that not only late-career workers, but especially those entering the workforce now, will require lifelong learning to continue to adapt to these changes. Put simply, significant upskilling will be necessary for successful aging at work. Indeed, research is needed on interventions that support the maintenance of a growth-oriented mindset and increasing OFTP as potential mechanisms for motivating workers to adapt.

We also see a role for technology and AI in addressing many age-related challenges in the workplace. History tells us that technical changes from the top down that seem logical from a technical point of view but without consideration of human needs (e.g., changes in the coal industry; Trist & Bamforth, 1951) do not always go well. These lessons still apply in the context of today's changing workplace (e.g., Guest et al., 2022), including the integration of new technologies at work. Therefore, research needs to integrate these technical, personal, and social (i.e., age-related) issues to understand their implications for successful aging at work that is, employees' well-being, work ability, and performance. For instance, Lyndgaard et al. (2024) use the literature on adult learning and lifespan development to analyze and describe the ways in which technological changes will require lifelong learning and how such technology may be used to support lifelong learning. Similarly, in their systematic review,

Bankins et al. (2024) note how AI can be used to support careers and adult learning by matching student needs to specific training and recommending career paths. Other studies (e.g., Bidwell et al., 2023) suggest that the integration of AI and other technology into work is accepted by workers if they have input into the process and see the technology as offloading boring or repetitive tasks. In short, research should examine how the new economy and the new technology that come with it can be added and introduced in ways that support the needs of workers at different career or life stages.

Age and Intersectionality

As we have already noted, older and younger worker groups are not monolithic: They do not all need the same accommodations, nor do they want the same things from their work. In fact, there is significant variability within age groups (e.g., personality, with differential effects on older worker's wellbeing; Yaldiz et al., 2020). One source of this variability is their multiple identities and roles (e.g., career, parenthood, caregiver for elderly parents), a phenomenon that is becoming increasingly commonplace in the modern workplace. While the literature is beginning to examine such intersectionality (e.g., Hall et al., 2019), this has not been examined from the viewpoint of work design. This diversity could include issues such as age and ethnicity, marital status, childcare and eldercare responsibilities, and education. Further, there is diversity across countries and cultures that needs to be explicitly examined for how age intersects with HR practices. As the field continues to accumulate studies and large, demographically representative datasets, the impacts of newer models of work (e.g., gig employment, remote and hybrid work, algorithmic management) for different subgroups should become more apparent. Moreover, such research will inform what drives successful aging at work with a more nuanced view than what has currently been studied and may provide insight into specific supports needed at the intersection of age and other demographic factors.

Constructs/Measurement Issues to Understand Age and New Job Designs

Much of our focus in this paper has been on identifying the new forms of work and how work can be adjusted to worker needs to support successful aging at work. However, the measurement of age and its related constructs has also been an important topic of discussion (Fasbender et al., 2023). Chronological age continues to be a useful measure for this purpose to the extent that it broadly captures changes in individual differences such as work experience, cognitive and physical skills, and personality. The fact that chronological age is a stand-in for these multiple variables also makes it problematic: It is really just a metric of time since birth, and as noted earlier, people age at different rates and in different ways (e.g., physical abilities, health, cognition; Olivetti et al., 1995; Stark et al., 2010). Some researchers have recommended measuring subjective age (e.g., how old a person says they feel or look) in lieu of chronological age. However, subjective age measures have been criticized as being largely redundant with existing psychological measures such as self-efficacy and core self-evaluations (e.g., Zacher & Rudolph, 2019) and chronological age, limiting their research value. Thus, there is a need for more effective measures of age – ones based specifically in theories of age and work. For instance, Cadiz and colleagues (2022) recently proposed a measure of morale aging at work (MAWS); based in theories of lifespan development, the measure appeared to go beyond existing age measures to predict successful aging outcomes (e.g., satisfaction, performance, motivation to work).

Many discussions of age and new forms of work have focused on the late career worker's ability to, and interest in, adapting to workplace changes brought on by the new economy (e.g., Kooij et al., 2018; Rudolph et al., 2018). This highlights the importance of the concept of OFTP for understanding an older worker's motivation to workplace changes presented by the new economy. Based on concepts from lifespan development theory, OFTP has been shown to predict a number of outcomes relevant to successful aging (Rudolph et al.,

2018) and seems particularly relevant to understanding a person's motivation to adapt to new forms of work. This suggests the value of OFTP in understanding adaptation to significant changes in job characteristics at different career points, and it also illustrates the potential of research on interventions to support a longer OFTP (see Kooij et al., 2018; Rudolph et al., 2018) to help with adaptation to the work in the new economy.

While not an age measure *per se*, work ability is often cited as an index of successful aging at work (e.g., Beier et al., 2022). Recent social sciences research has viewed work ability as a job design phenomenon, namely, as the interplay of the person with job demands and resources (Brady et al., 2025; McCarthy et al., 2024; McGonagle et al., 2015). Meta-analytic work has also demonstrated that work ability predicts a range of successful aging outcomes, including well-being, performance, and retirement (Brady et al., 2020). Recent work ability research (McCarthy et al., 2024) has further conceptualized and measured work ability as a multidimensional construct – physical, cognitive, interpersonal, and emotional – for understanding whether a person can meet specific types of job demands across substantially different types of work. We think that more research is needed on work ability and its dimensions, how it changes from early to late career, and its trajectory in different job types. It may also provide a useful lens to understand and predict whether a person can meet the changing aspects of their work and what specific supports to the person or redesign to the job to make the person most effective. It is also consistent with the concept of successful aging at work (e.g., Zacher et al., 2018), which includes a person's adaptation to the work itself and their own aging processes.

One challenge in studying aging in organizations is understanding what organizations can do to support older and late-career workers, and at a more basic level, how employees experience support from managers. Wilckens, Deller, and colleagues (e.g., Wilckens et al., 2021) have developed an assessment of employees' experiences, the Later Life Workplace

Index (LLWI), which assesses issues from organizational climate to retirement transitions.

The use of such a standardized measure across organizational settings can help move the field forward and identify which HR practices may best benefit older workers.

Finally, we note that our existing measures used in the OB/HR literature may not have the same meaning for people of different ages. For example, Vignoli et al. (2023) found that the structure of a job crafting measure varied by age group (e.g., that reducing demands is not part of the job crafting structure of older managerial workers). In short, steps to address challenges in the changing nature of work should consider that there may be differences in how the same job characteristics affect older and younger people (e.g., Truxillo et al., 2012; Zaniboni et al., 2013), but that the meaning of measures used to assess job characteristics and worker motivation may differ across the lifespan.

Interventions to Support Older Workers in the New Economy

One issue that has hampered the literature on the aging workforce is the lack of theory-based interventions to support workers as they age. Truxillo et al. (2015) noted the dearth of such studies and that most studies were relatively atheoretical. However, the introduction of lifespan development theories and more nuanced job design approaches (e.g., Bakker et al., 2023; Morgeson et al., 2006) into the HRM literature provides some hope in this regard. For instance, Müller et al. (2016) found that a SOC intervention helping nurses to select tasks that fit their current abilities increased nurse well-being. Kooij et al. (2017) found that a job crafting intervention improved perceptions of fit among older office workers (albeit with some negative outcomes for younger workers). Although they use different theoretical bases, what these two studies have in common is the demonstration that using a bottom-up approach and allowing older and late-career workers the discretion to redesign their work is a useful approach to job design in the aging context.

Within the context of the new economy, these studies show promise for giving workers themselves the tools (e.g., autonomy, training on how to craft or select for their needs) to adapt to these changes. Parker and Grote (2022) note the importance of work design interventions to enhance the positive and attenuate the negative impact of automation in the workplace, including considering the job design implications when introducing new technology, human-centered design, macro-level policies to support such changes, and utilizing employees and other stakeholders in changes. In short, interventions that allow employees input into new technology, also taking into account differences (e.g., age) among employees, and allowing employees some degree of control, seem a useful path for future research. The integration of SOC theory and resource-based theories of job design (e.g., JD-R) could be especially useful, particularly if they provide older and late-career workers with guidance on how to design jobs to fit their needs. Along with this, interventions should provide employees with training to encourage continuous learning (Beier et al., 2025). A deeper understanding of the specific ways that age stereotypes lead to discrimination (e.g., conscious and unconscious stereotypes; see Zaniboni et al., 2019) may lead to the development of interventions to overcome discriminatory decisions. Finally, models have been developed to explain how organizational practices at the individual and organizational levels can support older workers (e.g., Finsel et al., 2013). Such models can help guide research in the development and evaluations of interventions to support older and late-career workers.

While it is important for research to understand who may benefit from different workplace interventions (e.g., Kooij et al., 2017), job characteristics (e.g., Zaniboni et al., 2014) and HR practices (e.g., Kooij et al., 2014; Tordera et al., 2020), it is not necessarily appropriate for HR policies to favor any one group. To address this concern, organizations can offer more self-paced and optional training and support models. Having the resources

available would ensure that employees across the lifespan can obtain the support needed to maintain work ability while ensuring fairness for all employees. Additionally, given the importance of intergenerational contact to improved age relationships (Henry et al., 2015), simply having people of different ages work side by side may improve relations between people of different ages. Moreover, HR policies that support workers of *all* ages have been shown improve the age diversity climate and improve outcomes such as turnover and performance (Boehm et al., 2014; Kunze et al., 2013).

Conclusion

The world of work is already changing rapidly and radically, with shifts in technology, society, labor force, economy, and organizations, all with implications for the HR practices. A key issue is to acknowledge that such changes affect workers of all ages globally and in different ways across their life and career stages. In this paper, we have sought to bring to bear theories and concepts around lifespan development and successful aging as a lens for examining how these changes will affect organizations, work, and workers in this new economy. We developed agendas identifying potential implications for HRM policies and practices and future research questions. To align with this new world of work in a timely manner, with the speed at which these shifts are occurring, research will need to rapidly address them to enable successful aging and well-being across the work lifespan.

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Table 1. Age and HRM-Related Implications from Shifts in the New Economy

TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES	
Workplace Change	Age and HRM-Related Implications
AI and Robotics	• Older workers will need to maintain growth-oriented motivation, open OFTP later in life, and lifelong learning to age successfully at work. • Organizations need to develop tools and pathways to help upskill employees and redesign work, including using job crafting approaches. • Lifespan development theories – SOC, SST, motivational changes over the lifespan – can be used to adjust technology to the person across the lifespan. • Organizations should be aware of age-based stereotypes when introducing new technologies.
Algorithmic Management	• Replacement of manager/supervisor guidance with AI technology with implications for performance management. • Potential differences in adoption readiness based on age (e.g., motivation to work). • Lack of social relationships at work and thus affect generativity motives and relational job design. • Algorithmic management may limit use of SOC behaviors and job crafting, and how can these adaptive behaviors be supported.
CONTINGENT WORK AND ITS OUTCOMES	
Workplace Change	Age and HRM-Related Implications
Contingency of Work: Job Insecurity and Precarity	• Increased precarity and contingency in work. • How to support psychological contracts that are more transactional (and with lower commitment) given limited onboarding. • Inability to build institutionalized knowledge. • Short-term approaches may limit OFTP.
Narrow Job Scope	• Narrower jobs cause mismatch with successful aging at work and OFTP. • Fewer opportunities for skills development for workers of all ages. • Limited job crafting possibilities.
DEMOGRAPHIC CHANGES	
Workplace Change	Age and HRM-Related Implications
Longer Lives & Rising Retirement Ages	• Need to revise policies regarding retirement ages and use of the varied skills of workers of different ages. • Focus on ways to support work ability (e.g., Brady et al., 2020) across the lifespan in different aspects of work (e.g., physical, cognitive, social, emotional.) • Increased need to support SOC strategies to help workers

	adapt to their age-related changes.
Older and more age-diverse workplaces	• Increased possibility of age diversity issues regarding both older and younger workers (e.g., differences in onboarding and socialization; Bauer et al., 2025b). • Age-diverse teams – need to develop systems for knowledge transfer from retiring employees to new employees. • Possibility of age-based faultlines in teams (e.g., Valls et al., 2021) • Increased intergenerational contact. • How to ensure a positive age diversity climate. • Challenges of maintaining an inclusive environment, including recruitment and selection practices, for employees in roles atypical of their age.
THE MOVE TO REMOTE WORK AND WHERE WORK IS DONE	
Workplace Change	Age and HRM-Related Implications
Where Work Is Done	• Acknowledge age differences in boundary management and remote work. • May have negative consequences for teams, age-diverse friendships, relationship-building, and knowledge transfer across age groups.

Table 2. Future Directions & Example Research Questions

Future Research Issue	Example research questions and issues
Job Design and Job Crafting	• Identify processes by which different job characteristics impact the outcomes of older and younger workers (e.g., Zaniboni et al., 2013; 2014). • Examine in what ways hybrid/remote work affects job attitudes, performance, and well-being of workers of different ages. • Identify ways in which organizations can provide meaningful resources (e.g., training, performance feedback, supervisor support) to support workers of different ages. • In what ways do gig work and algorithmic (non-human) management and relational work design (e.g., Grant, 2007) issues differentially affect older and younger workers and how can work be designed to support them? • In what ways can organizations support all workers given age differences in job crafting processes (Kooij et al., 2017)? • How can AI be harnessed to assist in job crafting to help workers of different ages?
The Constancy of Change in Work and Its Context	• How can reward systems instill motivation for lifelong learning into workers across the work lifespan? • How to encourage (e.g., via reward systems) the development of OFTP to better support late-career workers. • Examine ways that AI or robotics can support learning and successful aging at work and increase and improve working lives across the lifespan.
Age and Intersectionality	• What is the differential impact of AI, big data, and flexible work policies on the intersection of age and other personal characteristics (e.g., personality, demographics) on worker well-being and performance? • To what extent are supports for successful aging at work similar or different across intersections of age, country, culture, and other demographic factors?
Constructs/Measurement Issues to Understand Age and New Job Designs	• Develop and examine meaningful alternatives to chronological age (e.g., perceptual age measures, OFTP) to better understand the aging process and the interplay with new work configurations. • Examine how work ability (e.g., Brady et al., 2020; 2025) and its multiple dimensions (e.g., McCarthy et al., 2024) may explain underlying job demands and resources of new work configurations, across job types and ages.

	• Use standardized measures (e.g., Wilckens et al., 2021) across studies to examine what organizational practices may support older workers. • Examine measurement equivalence of measures across age groups and develop measures that are suitable for comparisons across the lifespan.
Interventions to Support Older and Late-Career Workers in Adapting to the New Economy	• Develop age-related interventions that are theory-based (e.g., lifespan development, JD-R, job crafting) and include process measures to better understand and develop intervention processes (e.g., Müller et al., 2016). • Examine age differences in the underlying processes involved in workplace interventions (e.g., Kooij et al., 2017). • Develop organizational policies and HR practices (e.g., training and development, performance management) that support continuous learning (e.g., Beier et al., 2025) to facilitate adaptation to the new economy. • Use processes involved in age discriminatory decisions (e.g., Zaniboni et al., 2019) to develop interventions to combat age discrimination. • Develop processes based on specific needs and input from workers of different ages to provide input to new technology and redesign (cf. Grote et al., 2024). • Examine processes involved in intergenerational contact and age diversity climate (e.g., Boehm et al., 2014; Henry et al., 2015, Kunze et al., 2013) to build interventions to support healthy age-diverse relationships and knowledge transfer.

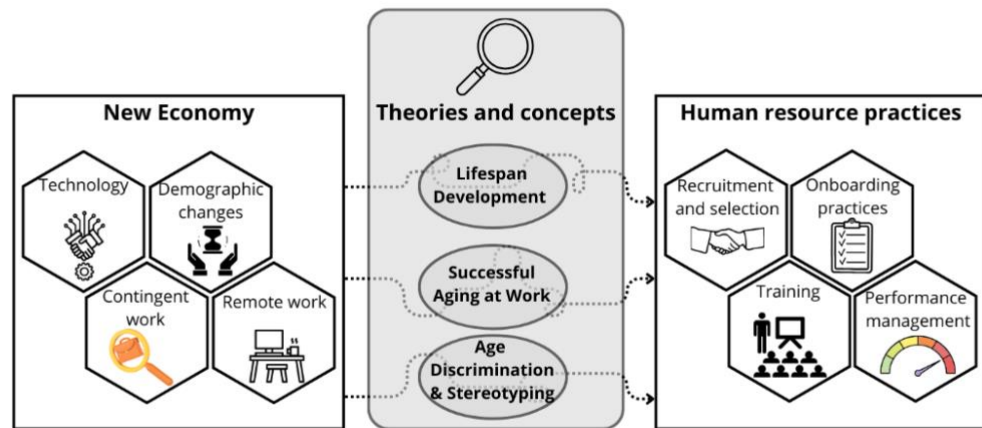


Figure 1. Implications of shifts in the new economy in light of aging concepts. (Icons sourced from Canva.)