Abstract

It has been argued that, given the more varied and less stable employment and the increasingly diversified workforce characteristic of the globalised, technology-led economy of the 21st century, there is need of a new theory of industrial relations (Kochan, 2000). This paper seeks to bring together discussion of new theories from a number of disciplines in order to explore the integrated nature of change associated with globalisation communication technologies and the need for more globally networked relationships. The paper presents a new model of industrial relations for a global, knowledge economy as the first step towards developed a new globally sustainable and inclusive theory of industrial relations.

Words: relationship industrial relations model; networked economy; community industrial relations
Mutual Gains - Community and Unions in a Networked Economy

‘Towards a globally sustainable and inclusive theory of industrial relations for a
knowledge economy’

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Abstract

It has been argued that, given the more varied and less stable employment and the increasingly diversified workforce characteristic of the globalised, technology-led economy of the 21st century, there is need of a new theory of industrial relations (Kochan, 2000). This paper seeks to bring together discussion of new theories from a number of
disciplines in order to explore the integrated nature of change associated with
globalisation communication technologies and the need for more globally networked
relationships. In so doing the paper tests the relevance of an interactor theory of
community industrial relations developed by Jones (2002d) and concludes that a further
layer has to be added to this theory to ensure its relevance to the global networked
economy.

Words: relationship industrial relations model; networked economy; community
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Introduction – challenges to existing theories

That the contemporary globalised ‘Information Age’ is challenging a broad spectrum of traditional theories is becoming increasingly evident. Allee (1997) argues that the world is currently undergoing a fundamental challenge to assumptions formulated during the ‘Age of Enlightenment’ and developed during the ‘Industrial Era’. The challenge starts with the need to reassess the underlying scientific base of knowledge from Newtonian to quantum physics with it’s emphasis on interconnections (web of relationships) and probabilities, rather than hard and solid material particles (Capra 1996). New theories are needed to explain time viewed as polychronic rather than monochronic. Matter can no longer be regarded as separated into Cartesian elements, but rather systems thinking is required to ensure that phenomenon are understood within the context of a larger whole (Capra 1996). The effect of the mix is the need to develop new, more collaborative relationships between people. This is demonstrated in business by the need for a new theory of organisational behaviour that encourages insightful managers who rely less on control and who foster employee participation in decision making.

Hawken, Lovins and Lovins (2000) state that the world is on the verge of a new industrial revolution that promises to transform our fundamental notions of commerce and its role in shaping our future. They argue that prosperity will be determined by natural capital rather than industrial prowess “as more people and businesses place greater strain on living systems, limits to prosperity are coming to be seen” (Hawken, Lovins and Lovins (2000, p.2). This conclusion leads them to propose a new four part definition of capital...
that recognises the critical interdependency between the production and use of human-made capital and the maintenance and supply of natural capital:

- human capital, in the form of labour and intelligence, culture and organization
- financial capital, consisting of cash, investments, monetary instruments
- manufactured capital, including infrastructure, machines, tools and factories
- natural capital, made of resources, living systems and ecosystems (Hawken, Lovins and Lovins 2000, p.4).

This requires a new economic theory based on an ideology that reverses the assumption that labour is a scarce, overworked resource, and natural capital is abundant and unexploited. The new ideology must recognise the need to organise around the biological realities of nature, rather than the “lifeless abstractions of neoclassical economics and accountancy” (Hawken, Lovins and Lovins 2000, p.9). Thus the new theory should be based on the assumption that “people have become the abundant resource, while nature is becoming disturbingly scarce” (Hawken, Lovins and Lovins 2000, p.8).

Ronfeldt (1996) claims that the confluence of globalisation and the worldwideweb is leading to the need for a new theory of a networked economy. Global networks are developing with organisational structures based on web-like ties between groups rather than traditional kinship ties (family), hierarchies (army, the church and the bureaucratic state), or competitive markets (merchants and traders). This leads Marceau (2000, p.227) to claim that in the new knowledge economy “it is networks not entities that matter”.

These networks consist of diverse groups of actors, often with many leaders, who share a

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1 Natural capital includes all the familiar resources used by mankind: water, minerals, oil, trees, fish, soil, air etc. plus living systems (grasslands, savannas, wetlands, estuaries, oceans, coral reefs, riparian corridors, tundras and
set of ideas and interests in which development focuses on multiple linkages that encourage overlapping membership, joint activities, common reading matter, and shared ideals and opponents (Gerlach 2001). Kelly, K. (1998) claims that these networks are transforming our economy, “we are about to witness an explosion of entities built on relationships and technology that will rival the early days of life on earth in their variety” (Kelly, K 1998, p.6). He states that the world of intangibles (media, software and services) will replace the world of the hard (atoms, objects, steel and oil). In so saying he states that social organisation will change into “an infinite variety of new shapes and sizes of social organization” (Kelly, K. 1998, p.6). Underpinning the new social organization will be more participative relationships, “the networked economy is founded on technology, but can only be built on relationships. It starts with chips and ends with trust” (Kelly, K. 1998, p.123). Accordingly, there is need of a new theory of social relationships that is built on networks of actors interacting in a chain, hub or all-channel patterned structure (Evan 1972; Nohria & Eccles 1992; Ronfeldt & Aquilla 2001; Wasserman & Faust 1994; Wellman & Berkowitz 1997). In this view, power and influence depends less on personal attributes, and more on interpersonal relations, with individuals valued not for their ‘human capital’ but for their ‘social capital’, and the unit of analysis not the individual but the network in which the individual is embedded (Ronfeldt & Acquilla 2001).

These interpersonal relationships will rely more on knowledge transfer as communication technologies improve. Globally shared knowledge is no longer linear, nor does it have a finite reality, rather it has become infinite and unbounded. Various writers (Leonard-
Barton 1995; Nonaka 1998; Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995) argue for a broader and more inclusive definition of knowledge as technology makes data gathering more accessible, and information becomes confused with knowledge. Knowledge, it is acknowledged, is not a single entity. It can be explicit (open) or tacit (within the heads of employees). It has different dimensions – employee knowledge and skills, physical and technical systems, managerial systems, and values and norms. It can be general or situation specific. Zack differentiates six types of knowledge – declarative, procedural, causal, conditional, relational and contributional (Zack 1999). Allee (1999) relates these types of knowledge to domains that range in degree and type of skills required, from simple data (know what), to more skill-based application that involves more abstract reasoning (know why). Finally, knowledge can be individual or part of a collective, with different cultures varying in the way they view knowledge. For example Allee (1997) states that Western cultures have traditionally focused on individual rather than collective knowledge development. In other words knowledge requires humans who are able to interpret, reflection upon, and share data and information and turn it into knowledge.

Viewed in all its dimensions, it becomes clear that knowledge needs to be carefully managed not simply as a technical concept but, rather, as a cultural entity. Nonaka states that “creating new knowledge….depends on tapping the tacit and often highly subjective insights, intuitions, and hunches, of individual employees and making these insights available for testing and use by the company as a whole” (Nonaka 1998, p.24). Zack (1999, p.125) states that organisations need to better manage their “intellectual resources and capabilities” (Zack 1999, p.125). Management needs to recognise the importance of
developing a culture and practices that support knowledge sharing (Long and Fahey 2000). New theories of knowledge development and sharing in a globalised technologically communicated world are needed. Davenport presents an integrated model of an ‘information ecology’ that has four key attributes – the integration of diverse types of information, recognition of evolutionary change, emphasis on observation and description, and focus on people and information behaviour (Davenport 1997, p.29). The model recognises the importance of interaction between business, physical, and technological, elements in the organisational environment (strategy, staff, culture, politics, architecture and process) plus the two-way interaction between the internal organisational and the external environment.

Senge’s (1990) seminal work on learning organisations presents a model in which people continually expand their knowledge and abilities. He described how group knowledge is built through the five disciplines or practices – personal mastery, systems thinking, team learning, building shared vision and surfacing mental models and states that this in accord with the need for a more collective approach to knowledge development. Agyris (1990) developed this further by describing the importance of single and double loop to create identifiable outcomes in a collective manner. In this way learning organisations are described as being able to continually transform themselves through various life stages by recognising learning links (Pedler, Burgoyne & Boydell 1991), and thus to scan the wider environment and anticipate change (Morgan 1997). Rowley (2001) uses this model as the foundation for her ‘Learning with Knowledge Cycle’ model in which she explicitly links knowledge management and learning. Knowledge-creating companies, she claims,
“constantly encourage the process whereby personal knowledge is made available to others (articulation) for them to use to extend their own tacit knowledge base (internalisation) (Rowley 2001, p.231).

In this context the role of traditional knowledge providers, universities and schools, also requires re-examination (Jones 2002a). A recent Senate Report into the future of Australian universities quoted one submission as stating:

Universities are all about knowledge, and the key to the future lies in considering their capacity to produce knowledge, to process it is a sophisticated way, to understand and use it, and to diffuse knowledge and exploit it. Universities are one of the oldest and most enduring parts of the knowledge economy (Senate Committee Report 2001, p.13).

New approaches to learning are required to support such alliances. Marceau defines a learning economy as:

flexible and adaptable, reliant on high levels of knowledge, trust and networking, concerned to invest (nation, industry firm) so as to generate, spread and absorb new knowledge and transform it quickly into new products and processes. It is an economy where organisations collaborate at least as much as they compete (Marceau 2000, p.219).

In summary, there is a plethora of discussion across a number of disciplines calling for new, more integrated, theories to explain the complex and interdependent changes
occurring as the global technologically communicated economy develops. A common element in all of these discussions is the need to recognise more complex and integrated relationships between people within organisations, between organisations, between organisations and educational institutions, and between various community groups that make up the broader social fabric.

Underlying these theories is the need for a new form of knowledge management in which managers [and academic educators] are recognised as stewards of knowledge rather than controllers of workers [and students] (Jones 2002c; Jones & Richardson 2002). Wenger states “knowledge managers who think that their role is to manage knowledge had better think twice. Knowledge is not an object that can be managed from outside” (Wenger 2000, p.18). Knowledge workers, defined not simply as technical experts but rather as any “person dealing in data and ideas” (Cordata 1998:xiii), need to be encouraged to willingly develop and share their knowledge. Kelly claims knowledge workers have to be encouraged and trained to ask not ‘How do I do the job right?” - but - “What is the right job to do?” (Kelly, K. 1998, p.137). Jones (2001) states that a teacher-centered educational system is inappropriate for developing managers capable of adapting to this new role. She argues (2002c) that a new theory of industrial relations is needed that recognises employee rights to improved conditions of employment and employee responsibilities to contribute to organisational decision-making in order for trust leading to knowledge sharing to be developed.
A new theory of industrial relations

At the centre of all these new theories is a fundamental requirement of more participative and collective relationship. This is interesting given that for some years industrial relations theorists have been considering a new theory of industrial relations that takes more cognisance of the role of the individual worker rather than the collective as represented by unions. Furthermore it is argued that social relations based on competitive, individualistic relationships underpin the fabric of many Western economies (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner (2001). The move to a more collectivist, collaborative approach associated with increased knowledge development and sharing thus requires a cultural change. Bartoli and Hermel (2001, p.16), state that what is required is a fundamental “socio-organizational and strategic change” to bring about a cultural change from the individual employee to groups of employees working together to develop “collective capacities of listening, and a shared motivation” (Bartoli and Hermel 2001, p.33). Collaborative alliances between workers and between managers and workers based on motivation and trust, are needed (Amabile et al 2001). Again, this is not a new concept in industrial relations. There has been discussion for many years about the importance of encouraging a less conflictual form of industrial relations, termed ‘mutual gains’ in the USA (Cohen-Rosenthal & Burton 1993) and ‘partnerships’ in the UK (Bacon and Storey 2000). That this is not simply an excuse by employers to remove the importance of unions is reflected in arguments that unions must also change their approach. Hyman (2001) states:

even if primary attention is devoted to the labour market, unions cannot altogether neglect the broader social and political context of market relations…..unions as
vehicles of social integration sustain a rationale for their existence as autonomous institutions only to the extent that their identities and actions reflect the fact that their members, as subordinate employees, have distinct economic interests which can clash with those of other sections of society….those unions which embrace an ideology of class opposition must nevertheless …reach at least a tacit accommodation within the existing social order; and must also reflect the fact that their members normally expect their short-term economic interests to be adequately represented (Hyman 2001, p.4).

However, the extent to which such rhetoric has translated to a reality has been debated (Bacon & Storey 2000; Jones, 2000).

Furthermore, it is argued that this collaboration may extend beyond the traditional three parties in the industrial relationship. Broader alliances through ‘communities of practice’ are being hailed by employers as providing opportunities for parties to share different approaches to problems and to search for solutions that go beyond the limited vision of either (Gray &Wood 1991). Jones (2002d) argues that the community may potentially play a much larger role in the industrial relationship as the changes wrought by the information age continue. This new relationship must recognise the importance of the community. Once again, this is not a new concept. In their volume of case studies on community unionism Brecher and Costello [eds.] (1990) claimed that alliances between unions and community groups have the potential to “represents a new majority which is today excluded from political and economic decision-making but which if mobilized
would represent an enormous social force” (Brecher and Costello [eds.], 1990, p.10). This conclusion was supported by Tufts (1996, p.10) in his study of community unionism, which he identified as both a product of, and reaction to, the failure of established models of unionisation to organise workers to “resist the increasing demands being placed by capital on their lives and communities”. Indeed Jones (2002d) proposed a new model of community industrial relations as shown in Figure 1. The model recognised the impact of community groups on industrial relations that had previously been discussed by Piore (1995) Dabscheck (1994; 1995) and Bellemare (2000), and included new approached to mobilization discussed by Bailey (2000) and Kelly J. (1998). It also incorporated a two-way, mutually beneficial interaction between the traditional industrial parties and diverse community groups, within the economic, political, legal and social/culture in which they exist.

**FIGURE 1**

The model recognised that there were major challenges for all parties as the structural boundaries between them became less relevant, and concluded that parties could no longer come together for intense campaigns and then retreat to their original independence.

Finally, the importance of the global community as it affects industrial relations needs to be recognised if industrial relations theory is to explain integrated and chaotic networks of people, organisations, and the natural environment (Giles 2000; Haworth & Hughes 2000; Wailes 2000). Kochan (2000) called for a new theory of industrial relations, or social contract, that recognises interaction between the industrial parties (particularly
unions) and the broader community. This theory, he claimed, must support existing and new links as “sustained coalitions that both last beyond any single political campaign and transitions to on-going sources of power and support inside employment relationships” (Kochan, 2000, p.12). Others have argued the need for a new theory of industrial relations to provide protection for labour on a global basis as social protection is reduced, unionism and collective bargaining decline, and the balance of power shifts in favour of employers (Lansbury 2000; Brown 2000). Accordingly, the theory needs to be less focussed on the systems and institutions as characterised the Dunlop (1958) theory, and more inclusive of actions, along the lines of the conflict-critical approach developed by Hymann (1975; 1989), with the addition of relationships that are broader than the traditional three party focus. This theory must accommodate not only local community-industrial party links but also global networks. This requires exploration of some of the social and sustainability dimensions of globalisation as it affects, and is affected by, the industrial relationship.

Social dimension of globalisation and communication technology

Large corporations that have for many years been expanding into the international market have now an added layer of complexity as they globalise. This is demonstrated in mergers and acquisitions, increasingly complex networks within and between globally placed companies, and the increasingly complicated financial markets. In response governments are becoming cognisant of the importance of linking regulatory and other bodies such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF), the World Bank, and the International Labour Organisation (ILO). The interrelationship between economic, social
and cultural ethics is being recognised by governments as they seek to have companies adopt a ‘triple-bottom-line’ approach. For example international financial support is being tied to improved social relations within countries. The expanding role of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) is further demonstration of the move towards global government action. On the other hand, globally functioning Non-Government Agencies (NGO’s) are developing as effective lobbying agencies.

In response the need for new, more collaborative, theories for a sustainable economy, is demonstrated by the United Nations Sustainable Development Agenda 21 which states:

“The integration of environment and development concerns and greater attention to them will lead to the fulfilment of basic needs, improved living standards for all, better protected and managed ecosystems, and a safer, more prosperous, future” (UN 1999 Preamble, p.1).

The agenda recognises that in order to achieve this outcome, increased levels of collaboration are required within and between organisations, “the broadest public participation and the active involvement of the non-government organisations (NGOs) and other groups should also be encouraged (UN 1999, Preamble, p.1). Furthermore it claims that this collaboration can be underpinned by traditional tripartite action:

the established principles of tripartism provide a basis for strengthening collaboration between workers and their representatives, Governments and employers” (UN 1999 Chapter 29, p.1).
That such collaboration is indeed becoming a reality is shown, for example, in the degree of public involvement in demonstrations against the World Trade Organisation (WTO). Mander (2000) states that the demonstrations at the WTO Seattle showed that the public is becoming aware that new communication technologies are not bringing enhanced democracy and empowerment, but rather a global infrastructure that is hegemonic, centralised, corporatised and homogenised. Schwartz (2000) claims that this experience focuses attention on the need for three things – transparency, a real engagement with NGOs in addition to government and business, and increased ethical behaviour by business.

Further, there is evidence that some international union confederations are recognising the need for greater collaborative engagement in the global economy. The International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) advocates new forms of global action by trade unions to counter the adverse effects of globalisation. The ‘free market’ ideology that underpins Globalisation, it argues, provides “a convenient excuse and explanation for anti-social policies and actions, which undermine progress and break down community” (ICFTU 2001, p.9). Global Forces have pressured governments to deregulate and move away from a nation-centred system and this has, in many cases, led to social injustice and economic inequity. It also presents threats to collective bargaining as capital becomes more mobile, new business organisations and relationships are introduced, and the place and form of employment changes. This view is supported by the International Trade Union Advisory Council (TUAC) which claims that unions must unite to ensure that the “‘digital’ divide does not further contribute to the ‘social divide’” (TUAC, 2000, p.1).
However it is interesting in the context of this paper that the plan of action for unions developed by the ICFTU advocates a fairly traditional focus on joint union activity rather than developing links with community groups, and on lobbying government bodies rather than on joining with Non-Government Bodies (NGOs). Thus the plan proposes:

- developing closer links between unions internationally
- developing education campaigns for union leaders
- seeking to secure national government commitments to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and ILO Conventions dealing with social justice and Freedom of Association
- encouraging international financial institutions (such as the International Monetary Fund [IMF] and the World Bank) to examine the social effects of their policies; and lobbying the WTO to establish a working group or forum on labour standards and trade agreements
- taking action through national trade union bodies to establish improved labour standards in multinational enterprises through framework agreements (ICFTU 2001).

AFL-CIO action in the USA in recent years has conformed to this plan. In 2000, the AFL-CIO embarked upon a Campaign for Global Fairness. This campaign aimed for global growth and development to be “equitable and work for everyone…/[with] …rules that incorporate workers’ rights and human rights and environmental concerns…/[and] …reform /of] the international financial institutions to support progressive growth” (Sweeney 2000, p.4).
Despite this fairly traditional union approach, there is some evidence that the union movement has recognised the need to place industrial relations in a broader context. For example, following the September 11 events in the USA, the AFL-CIO 2001 Convention passed a new resolution on the ‘Rights of Working Families in our Communities’ (AFL-CIO Resolution 4, 2001). This resolution includes a commitment to:

“standing up for and winning excellence in public education; affordable housing; respect and fair treatment for people regardless of age, gender, national origin or sexual orientation.; and legal status for undocumented workers…. We must, in short, articulate a vision of what we want America to be, and we must build a power to make that vision a reality” (AFL CIO Resolution 4, 2001, p.1).

This outcome is to be achieved by developing stronger alliances through ‘Union Cities’ (AFL CIO Resolution 11, 1997) and New Alliance programs aimed at:

“creating and nurturing alliances in our communities, fostering lifelong unionism, engaging in local economic development, putting unions’ helping hands to work where they are most needed, leading and fighting for immigrant workers; rights and providing an effective voice for workers where they live and work” (AFL CIO Resolution 4, 2001, p.2).

More recently global union federations have embarked upon a UN Global Compact based on dialogue around core labour standards of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) as well as other universal standards relating to human rights and the environment. To date, fourteen framework agreements have been signed with major companies (ICFTU
Both the ICFTU (2002b) and the European trade unions (2002) prepared detailed submissions to the Johannesburg World Summit for Sustainable Development. These submission call for the integration of social, environmental, and economic measures, “not as separate pillars, but as inseparable aspects of a single world” (ICFTU 2002b, p.5). They argue that what distinguishes the trade union position most clearly from other groups is the focus on the Social Dimension and particularly on quality employment. In its submission the ICFTU appealed for new theoretical models that are capable of accommodating real-life impacts of social issues. These models, it claimed, should include new social indicators for sustainability such as accident rates, workplace health, exploitation as reflected in wages and job security, freedom of association, political freedom, access to basic needs, equality, and vulnerability of specific groups (women, youth and ethnic minorities). They should also include ways to measure the achievement of these goals that include levels of education and training and worker participation. Examples of joint union-community action aimed at achieving these goals include:

- unions and academe developing train the trainer programs on health and safety and public education campaigns on chemical waste (Czech Republic and Romania)
- unions and consumer groups working developing campaigns around consumption goods, water saving (Sweden and Zaragoza)
- unions and the arts community promoting sustainable development (World Harmony Network)
- unions and family ‘eco-meetings’ aimed to conserve water and energy (Japan)
- unions and local authorities on eco-tourism (Spain)
unions and individual tenure holders and community groups on eco-system and forest management (Barbados)

Similarly, the European trade union movement argues that environmental issues can no longer be regarded as an external cause outside of a union’s core domain. Its submission to the Johannesburg World Summit for Sustainable Development argues for trade union participation in broad ranging social debates on chemicals, agriculture, infrastructure, transport, traffic regulation, climatic change, energy saving, renewable resources, waste and water management (ETUC 2002).

Thus international confederations of unions are demanding greater participation in discussions on, and decisions concerning, global sustainability. In so doing, these confederations emphasise the importance of strong national trade union organisations as the building blocks of international action. In encouraging local action the ICFTU claims that the most successful countries will be those that balance market pressures of flexibility and dynamism with social pressures of security and dignity. The Confederation claims that an important part of making progress at the regional and international levels is “the full and effective involvement of trade unions in their own countries” (ICFTU 2001, p.34). This action at national levels should then encourage international solidarity between trade unions through international bodies, with international affairs being a regular part of trade union education.
In summary the traditional parties to the industrial relationship, employers, government and employees, are acknowledging the need to be involved in global activities with varying degrees of commitment to advancing the social dimension. The response from the international union confederations has been to appeal to the union movement to move closer to the social model identified by Hyman (2001). Unions have been exhorted to engage in more joint inter-union activity, both locally and internationally, and to collaboratively engage with community groups at the local, national, and international level. Central to the change is the need to recognise the two-way interaction between unions and community groups and the external environment. In this climate a new model of industrial relations that goes beyond the traditional employment relationship, supported by a new theory of industrial relations, is needed.

Globally networked relationship model of industrial relations

A new model of a globally networked relationship model of industrial relations is presented in Figure 2. Let us explore this model, and how it may assist the development of a new theory of industrial relations.

**FIGURE 2**

The model first recognises the interaction of the parties to the industrial relationship at three levels – local, national and international. At the local level the government, employers, employees, and unions interact in a more participative manner rather than the traditional conflictual approach which saw unions as agitators outside the Organisation. In this model, employers, employees and unions collaborative in a participative manner on identified issues, while still recognising their separate structures and roles. The model
also recognises the role of employees as individuals rather than simply as members of a collective through unions. The model also, however, recognises the role of community groups that may not be part of the legally identified employment relationship, but who nonetheless influence the employment relationship. These groups include family, ‘customers and users’, educational institutions, the church, the ‘Arts’ community, shareholders, non-government organisations. Inclusion of these groups consideration of diversity in industrial relations theory, an area given insufficient attention in traditional industrial relations theory (Colgan & Ledwith 2002; Hansen 2002). Consideration needs to be given by all parties as to how they will develop more flexible structures to accommodate the growth and decline of particular networks.

Secondly, at the national level, the model recognises the importance of a two-way relationship between the political, legal, cultural, economic, and environmental factors and the parties. This enables the new industrial theory to be less linear and more cognisant of the chaotic and changing nature of these factors.

Third, at the international level, the model recognises the complex interactions between international companies, international non-government organisations, international unions, international communities, international tripartite government and semi-government bodies. Furthermore, the model identifies the complex interactions between parties at the international, national and local level.
Conclusion

This paper sought to consequences of change associated with globalisation, communication technologies and the need for more globally networked relationships, on the theory of industrial relations. It was argued that a new theory of industrial relations is needed that takes account of the plethora of changes that are occurring, each of which require new more collaborative relationships between people and matter as the ‘Information Age’ develops. In so saying, it was argued that organisations require a new management-employee relationship in which managers are less controllers and more stewards of knowledge. Parties to the employment relationship need to network more closely with community groups who are affected by, and in turn can affect, industrial relations. Finally, global changes need to be taken into account. A new model of industrial relations was presented. This model first recognises three levels at which industrial relations occurs, the local, national and global, although it also recognises the complex interrelationship between the three levels. Secondly, it recognises more integrated, collaborative relationships between the traditional industrial parties (including employees as individuals) and between these parties and community groups. This model is presented for further discussion as we seek to provide some order to the plethora of change required in industrial relations designed for a sustainable globally networked economy.
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Figure 1

*Interactor Inclusive Model of Community Industrial Relations*

- **Principal Actors**
  - Church
  - Women & Family
  - Ethnic
  - Arts
  - 'User' groups
  - Other - various
  - Academe

- **Dimensions**
  - POLITICAL
  - LEGAL
  - SOCIAL
  - CULTURAL
  - ECONOMIC
Globally networked relationship model of industrial relations.

Figure 2