Evaluating the complementarity of knowledge and psychosocial risk management to improve employee wellbeing and performance through improved work organisation and management

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In memory of my father, Anthony Henry Bankole Fadipe

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Abstract

The ever-changing economic and social environments, and technological advancements have resulted in significant changes to the world of work. These changes have led to growing recognition that to be sustainable, organisations must promote a positive psychosocial work environment (PWE). A number of approaches have been developed to improve business sustainability and maximise organisational performance, two among these include Knowledge Management (KM) and Psychosocial Risk Management (PRM). Various Psychosocial Risk Management (PRM) initiatives have been developed to enable organisations to control psychosocial risks (associated with aspects of work organisation, design and management that have the potential to cause various negative outcomes to employees and organisations) at source where possible or minimise their negative impact. On the other hand, the Knowledge Management (KM) concept was introduced for organisational competitiveness and economic growth, and aims to achieve these objectives through also addressing aspects of work organisation, design and management.

This doctoral research therefore aimed to investigate how KM can complement or promote PRM in managing the PWE. It did this by identifying key dimensions of the main KM frameworks and analysing their focus on people and work organisation issues within these frameworks. It then explored the extent of complementarity between these key dimensions of KM frameworks and the ten core dimensions of the psychosocial work environment as identified in the scientific literature. Finally, it investigated the role KM can play in managing the PWE in practice within the context of an organisation, identifying key KM drivers, barriers, and priorities for action.

Therefore, Study 1 reviewed 109 KM frameworks, and using thematic analysis further analysed 28 of these frameworks identifying key themes of focus on people and work organisation issues. Study 2

analysed the extent of complementarity between the previously identified KM themes and psychosocial work environment dimensions using framework analysis. Finally, Study 3 used a case-study approach (involving documentary analysis of company policies and interviews with 40 managers) to investigate how KM can be used to promote psychosocial risk management in practice. Based on the complementarity found between KM themes and psychosocial work environment dimensions, a case is made in this thesis about the importance of Knowledge Risk Management (KRM) in organisations. For this to happen, the organisation must prioritise knowledge infusion into RM. Despite favourable arguments in using KM to promote psychosocial risk management (PRM), it was evident that the KRM concept is underutilised for the management of psychosocial factors.

In support of using KRM to promote the effective management of the psychosocial work environment, findings showed that leadership must clarify employees' contribution in setting objectives (employee engagement/empowerment). This must be fostered by a culture of trust and delegation in decision-making from management to employees. Organisational learning promoted through leadership, collaborations, training, network of peers, communities of practice, trust and individual leadership capabilities can encourage good workplace climate, work retaining employee interest and in general a positive PWE. It was found that motivation and reward for employees to share and use knowledge through social networks and work systems averted work-related psychosocial risks. In addition, clear communication can ensure that new information resulting from changes in work is disseminated across organisational culture and functions to prevent people's exposure to various types of risks.

The studies highlighted that sustained knowledge-based risk prevention initiatives could improve employee well-being and performance by alleviating negative outcomes and promoting positive

ones, beyond people's devotion or loyalty to work or the organisation. Notwithstanding, good work systems were found to promote increased positive behaviours which, in turn, influenced working conditions. Leadership's influence had an important part to play in all aspects of work organisation and management. Findings from the studies are integrated and further discussed in the final chapter of the thesis. The limitations of this research are critically analysed with recommendations for future studies. In addition, recommendations for best practice are presented based on the case study analysed.

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Chapter 1 Knowledge management and the psychosocial work environment

1.1 Introduction

Organisations have experienced changes in the way they operate (Debowski, 2006). Various studies attribute these changes to many factors, including the shift to a knowledge economy and the increased streamlining of work activities due to technological innovations resulting in an evolution of new working practices (McDaid, 2008). The shift in focus from products to services has made work more intense, non-standard and interchangeable (Houtman et al., 2016). These changes have encouraged greater recognition of the importance of the knowledge held within organisations (Debowski, 2006). As the value of employees and organisational data has become more crucial to the organisation's outcomes and competitiveness (Akhavan et al., 2009a; Paulin & Suneson, 2015), the concept of Knowledge Management (KM) has emerged over time.

Although KM was predominantly adopted by the industrial community at its inception (Jasphara, 2011), a significant number of organisations now embark on various KM programmes in pursuit of improving their organisation's competency and performance as the role of governments and policy makers is shifting towards the greater development of this knowledge base and the mobilisation of knowledge to add value to goods and services (Jain, 2011). Therefore, the development of a comprehensive KM framework that will guide organisations before actual implementation of a KM initiative is highly relevant to safeguard the success of KM undertakings within organisations.

According to Jashapara (2011, p. 14) KM is "the effective learning processes associated with exploration, exploitation and sharing of human knowledge that use appropriate technology and cultural environments to enhance an organisation's intellectual capital and performance". This statement portrays KM as the strategies and processes of knowledge-

related activities that deal with creating, identifying, and capturing, organising, sharing, using and leveraging knowledge for value creation for the organisation (Civi, 2000; Debowski, 2006; Manasco, 1996; Wiig, 1997). It is the act of applying available knowledge to create new knowledge and produce an externalisation of knowledge (Holsapple & Joshi, 2002). This is because knowledge needs to be applied in organisational routines and processes (Gottschalk, 2007).

In addition, the knowledge-based view of the firm indicates that the source of competitive advantage lies in the application of knowledge (Alavi & Leidner, 2001). These sentiments are shared by Gottschalk (2007) who emphasised the importance of applying knowledge in organisational processes and routines to meet expected ends. While some scholars have argued that KM and learning are complementary, others believe 'learning' is the goal of KM (Bennet & Bennet, 2003; King, 2009; Turner & Minonne, 2010). De Houwer, Barnes-Holmes and Moors (2013) and Huber (1991) explain learning as a change in behaviour resulting from experience. Whichever side of the divide is chosen, organisations are expected to utilise knowledge to learn from past mistakes or errors and avoid future ones.

To achieve this, people are an important knowledge resource to organisations through their intellectual capital and performance input (Akhavan et al., 2009a; Paulin & Suneson, 2015; Singh & Kant, 2008; Snowden, 2000; Witherspoon et al., 2013). Performance is affected by various factors in the work environment, which in turn have transformed significantly due to changes in nature of work over the past decades (Roozeboom et al., 2008). The impact of the work environment on performance and well-being can be understood through the ten dimensions (see

Table 1.1) of the psychosocial work environment (PWE) that affect people's work and performance depending on how psychosocial factors are managed in the organisation (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017). Consistently, various aspects of work and work environment are known to have positive

or negative effects on individuals' performance and well-being (Amabile et al., 1996; Leka & Houdmont, 2010). For instance, employee performance has been shown to be enhanced by high degree of control or autonomy over their job, viewing work as meaningful, and getting support from supervisors (Shalley et. al., 2000; Sverke, 2009; WHO, 2010) amongst other factors.

This chapter looks at changes in the work environment and work systems, and how it affects people and organisations. It also explains how psychosocial risk is being managed while introducing the role of KM in Risk Management (RM). The chapter provides some justification for the consideration of integrating KM and Psychosocial Risk Management (PRM) to promote and sustain a positive PWE. To investigate this, this thesis reviewed and identified the main themes within KM frameworks in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4 respectively with a view to investigating how the existence of knowledge-related themes in the organisation influence people and work systems. Also, Chapter 5 investigates the complementarity between KM drivers (antecedents and attributes) and psychosocial factors at work to determine how KM and PRM could further promote a positive PWE. Chapter 6 then explores managers' understanding and usage of KM best practices within the work environment while identifying areas for improvement for both KM and PRM in managing the PWE.

1.2 The changing nature of work and work environment

Brinkley et al. (2009) attributed the changes in the world economy over the last few decades to three closely related factors. The authors advocated that the growth of knowledge intensive businesses and the transformation of business sectors have brought about the prevalence of knowledge intensive occupations; hence the knowledge economy. Brinkley and colleagues, and Schabracq and Cooper (2000) also indicated that the restructuring of investment priorities to knowledge-based intangible assets such as software, human and organisational capital, away from traditional physical investments has led to changes observed in workplaces today.

They claim that the third factor is due to a rise in qualified workforce compared to the 1970s.

In addition, globalisation, creation of a free market system, changes in work design, developments in information and communication technology, and demographic changes have influenced the development of the workforce and the modern workplace (EU-OSHA, 2007; ILO, 2016; Kompier, 2006). These significant changes which are linked to the organisation and management of work, have been manifested in the workplace, and have caused the emergence of new risks and challenges in occupational health and safety (EU-OSHA, 2007). Work has shifted from stable and predictable long-term careers in organisation or industry, to a series of career paths in different organisations (Debowski, 2006). The job security that once existed has transformed into the recognition that work is a temporal relationship between employer and employee (van Buren, 2003). According to ILO (2016), precarious work accounts for 46 percent (1.5 billion people) of total employment globally. The prevalence of this form of work indicates that there is a large gap in the availability of decent work. Furthermore, these types of 'vulnerable jobs' are predominantly found in emerging and developing economies with over 70 percent (three-quarters) of the working population being affected (ILO, 2016). Such informal employment is characterised by low productivity and pay**.**

Organisations have responded to these challenges, which include for instance the pace of technological advancements which have led to outsourcing, downsizing, sub-contracting and globalisation, by modifying their management practices and core business processes (Leka & Jain, 2010; Schabracq & Cooper, 2000). These changes are evident in many of the structural features of modern organisations. Large scale socio-economic changes have also resulted in new patterns of work organisation at different levels such as teleworking, which have affected many organisations considerably (Sparks et. al., 2001). These changes in employment patterns have been associated with an increase in the number

of people working in the service sector, flexibility in terms of workers' number and functions or skills, increasing number of older workers, and self-regulated work and teamwork among other work patterns (Cox, Griffiths & Rial-Gonzalez, 2000).

Furthermore, there is increased expectation from employers for major improvements in the quality of work delivered by workers because of the investments made in a better educated workforce and improved work processes by employers (Anggia, 2013). This has affected individual employees who are experiencing increasingly rapid changes in their work context and content (Leka et al., 2008). Working life has been affected by the general acceleration of the pace of life, contributing to increase in workload, constant time pressure, multi-tasking and the need to learn new things (Rosa, 2013).

Due to these emerging changes in the nature of work and the work environment, employees now draw heavily on their individual knowledge to work on problems or situations, including the on-going acquisition of new information to reshape their existing knowledge, thus regularly combining and processing information to generate new output (Jasphara, 2011). Undoubtedly, there is a whole range of knowledge capabilities that workers may apply in their complex work environment. Thus, human capital is now the foundation of many organisations, and yet it is often poorly recognised and managed (Debowski, 2006).

With this increased reliance on workers' intellectual contributions and the observable intensification of work in the twenty-first century organisation, and therefore the threat of new work-related hazards (Burgard, Kalousova & Seefeldt, 2012; Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017; Leka & Sinclair, 2014), the need for KM has escalated.

Essentially, an understanding of the organisational context and expectations helps employees to frame their work roles and contributions and enables constant adaptation and response to new demands and trends

at work. Work is no longer only about applying a basic set of competencies and refining these to higher levels of expertise over time. Instead, employees are asked to constantly scrutinise their work and identify and respond to new needs and demands in more effective ways. This could affect workers in various ways, depending on individual experiences of working conditions and the work environment.

While the PWE is central to workers' health, safety and well-being as well as employee motivation and performance (Sverke, 2009), if not managed well it can cause harm to individual health, as well as other adverse organisational outcomes such as reduced productivity (Leka, Jain, Zwetsloot & Cox, 2010; WHO, 2010; WHO, 2008).

1.3 Psychosocial work environment: impact on workers' health, safety, well-being and performance

The psychosocial work environment includes aspects of work organisation, design and management, and have been divided into ten dimensions which cover factors relating to culture and function, job content, workload and work pace, work schedule, control, environment and equipment, interpersonal relationships at work, role in organisation, career development, and home-work interface (Cox, 1993; WHO, 2008). Psychosocial factors do not immediately carry a negative or positive connotation. However, when reference is made to psychosocial hazards then it is implied that these aspects of work organisation, design and management have the potential to cause harm to individual health and safety as well as other adverse organisational outcomes such as sickness absence, reduced productivity or human error (e.g., WHO, 2008). Psychosocial risk, in turn, has been defined as the potential of psychosocial hazards to cause harm (BSI, 2011). Whether an organisation will have a positive or negative psychosocial work environment will depend on how effectively it manages risk associated with its various dimensions, as shown in

Table 1.1 below (Leka, Jain and Lerouge, 2017).

Table 1.1: Psychosocial work environment

Dimensions	**Negative psychosocial factors (psychosocial hazards)**	**Positive psychosocial factors**
Organisational culture & function	Poor psychosocial safety climate, Poor communication, low levels of support for problem solving and personal development, lack of definition of, or agreement on, organisational objectives	Good psychosocial safety climate, clear organisational objectives, appropriate support for problem solving and personal development, good communication processes
Job content	Lack of variety or short work cycles, fragmented or meaningless work, under use of skills, high uncertainty, continuous exposure to people through work	Meaningful work, appropriate use of skills, work retaining employee interest and engagement, appropriate support
Workload & work pace	Work overload or under load, machine pacing, high levels of time pressure, continually subject to deadlines	Appropriate level of workload, appropriate work pace, sensible and achievable deadlines
Work schedule	Shift working (especially irregular), night shifts, inflexible work schedules, unpredictable hours, long or unsociable hours	Sensible shifts and reasonable working hours to maintain work-life balance, flexible working practices
Control	Low participation in decision making, lack of control over	Participation in decision making, control at work

	workload, pacing, shift working	
Environment & equipment	Inadequate equipment availability, suitability or maintenance; poor environmental conditions such as lack of space, poor lighting, excessive noise	Good physical working conditions according to good practice guidance
Interpersonal relationships at work	Social or physical isolation, poor relationships with superiors, interpersonal conflict, lack of social support, harassment, violence	Good relationships at work, teamwork, social support, appropriate policies and procedures to deal with conflicts
Role in organisation	Role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility for people	Clear roles and responsibilities, appropriate support to meet objectives
Career development	Career stagnation and uncertainty, under promotion or over promotion, poor pay, job insecurity, low social value to work	Appropriate career prospects & development matching skills & performance, effort reward balance, valuable/meaningful work, job security
Home-work interface	Conflicting demands of work and home, low support at home, dual career problems	Work-life balance, supportive organisational policies and practices to achieve 'life balance'

Source: Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017)

The environment (physical, social, political or economic) people find themselves in shapes the way they work and live (Leka & Iavicoli, 2017). Obvious global changes in the world of work have increased focus on the psychological and social aspects of the work environment. However, there has been notable research that focused on risk factors and stress-related diseases in the workplace (EU-OSHA, 2014) rather than the measurement

and reinforcement of positive aspects of work (Bakker & Derks, 2010; Leka & Lavicoli, 2017).

Retrospectively, the types of issues employers must consider in terms of psychosocial factors (such as workload, role clarity, or relationships at work) are generally associated with work design and management issues that are essential to business survival and success (Leka, 2016). Considering that organisations deal with risk and risk management regularly in strategy, finance and operational issues among others, perhaps the negative disposition to psychosocial-related matters is borne out of a 'traditional view of risk' (Leka, 2016 p. 91).

Therefore, managing the psychosocial work environment, considering that aspects of work organisation, design and management do not instantly convey a negative or positive connotation, can be expressed as a dual approach to address changes in working conditions and organisations. Subsequent discussions will take a holistic look at the effect of a positive PWE on people and organisations and the implications of a negative PWE for people, organisations and performance.

1.3.1 A positive overview of the psychosocial work environment

The International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) in its standard (ISO 31000) on "risk management guidelines and commentary on the use of this standard by risk professionals" (ISO, 2018, p.8), defines risk as the "effect of uncertainty on objectivities". Evidently, this definition does not connote a positive or negative outcome to risk, but rather affirms it as a "dynamic process that can act as a catalyst with the potential to alleviate negative outcomes and promote positive ones" (Leka, 2016 p. 91). This aligns with ILO's (2015) objective for a safe and healthy working environment defined by a system of responsibilities and duties towards the prevention of risks in the work environment.

Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017) advocate an integrated approach which gives attention to both positive and negative aspects of work and well-being. It is not enough to help people who experience negative feelings at work, such as stress, but it is equally important to give advice to people without stress, to help them both to attain a richer and more fulfilling existence (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Accordingly, Turner, Barling and Zacharatos (2002, p. 715) stated that, “it is time to extend our research focus and explore more fully the positive sides, to gain full understanding of the meaning and effects of working”.

Work organisation and psychosocial factors have been the focus of several years of research and theoretical development and have been shown to be related to numerous outcomes, including well-being at work (Jain, Dediu, Zwetsloot & Leka, 2017). For example, theoretical models like the Job Demands Control (JD-C) model (Karasek, 1979) and the Job Demands Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner and Schaufeli, 2001), have showcased evidence on the relationship between several psychosocial factors and well-being at work. While most of this research has focused on negative facets, e.g. health concerns, mental ill health, and burnout (e.g. Alarcon, 2011; Bonde, 2008; Eller et al., 2009; Kivimäki et al., 2006), most recently studies have focused on positive facets such as work engagement and job satisfaction (e.g. Hakanen, Schaufeli & Ahola, 2008; Taris & Schreurs, 2009).

Various models support Leka, Jain and Lerouge’s (2017) comprehensive outlook to PWE. For instance, the job demand-control model by Karasek (1979) explains that the synergy of interaction an individual experience on the job regarding workload and job autonomy could help achieve reduced exposure to hazards at work. In this case, the influence of high job autonomy could mitigate the negative effect of workload on strain. Therefore, in line with Leka, Jain and Lerouge’s (2017) dual outlook on PWE factors, the JD-C model suggests that high workload may not be detrimental to the health of employees if aligned with effective

job control mechanisms such as high autonomy and decision latitude on the job.

The JD-R model focuses on physical, social, or organisational aspects of work relating to risk factors such as shift work, job insecurity, high workload, time pressure (job demands); and the physical, psychological, social, or organisational aspects of work that are functional in attaining work goals, reducing job demands and the associated physiological and psychological costs, whilst stimulating personal growth, and learning and development (Demerouti et al., 2001, p.501). The key elements of JD-R and the factors they cover shows the understanding that jobs have specific risks which causes work-related stress. Thus, the JD-R in agreement with Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017) recognises that these factors are not harmful in themselves when there are protective factors and a positive approach to managing work-related factors and the work environment is adopted by organisations.

Therefore, it is no surprise that organisations now focus on how to create work environments that allow people to make positive contributions to other people's lives, by connecting with people who already benefit from their work (Bakker & Derks, 2010). Setting up the work environment in a manner that motivates individuals to do good increases behaviours like task commitment, persistence, effort, and helping others which are beneficial to employees and the organisation at large (Grant, 2007). This affirms Larson and Luthan's (2006) position that it is fundamental for a relationship to exist between organisations and employees to determine the best way on how work should be carried out. This aligns with key factors in dimensions of the PWE such as 'organisational culture and function' and 'interpersonal relations at work'.

In view of this, Parker and Ohly (2008) indicated that employees influence their work environment as much as working conditions do. In their opinion, employees can change the design of their jobs by selecting tasks, through negotiations for different job contents and assigning meaning to

their tasks or jobs. Parker and Ohly, and Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001) discussed this in terms of physical and cognitive changes in a job regarding form, scope or number, and an individual's perception of their job or task. This has been associated with an increase in person-job fit (Bakker & Derks, 2010). Again, this is implicitly and explicitly expressed in all the ten dimensions of the PWE in

Table 1.1.

1.3.2 Implications of a negative psychosocial work environment

Despite a positive outlook to work and its environment, there are evidence-based outcomes on the impact of the exposure of workers to the harmful effect of psychosocial hazards which are known to have a negative effect on workers' mental, social and physical health as well as organisational health (motivation, commitment, productivity) (Eurofound, 2015; ILO, 2016; WHO, 2010). However, the emergence of new work design such as temporary or precarious employment, as earlier discussed in this chapter, can lead to the exposure of workers to poor working conditions due to the lack of statutory regulations and procedures to protect them in their workplaces (Leka & Sinclair, 2014). This is evident in the increase of precarious employment arrangements and conditions, long working hours, intensity of work, and waning regulatory protection, even with advanced economies that are the front-runners in tackling psychosocial risks (ILO, 2016).

Research has shown that poor working conditions have resulted in an increase in mental health issues and illnesses (Burgard et al., 2012). Studies have found that various work-related risks can be linked to poor self-reported health, depression, and anxiety. Also, studies (e.g. Eurofound, 2015; Nahrgang et al., 2011; van den Berg et al., 2009) show that work-related stress and psychosocial hazards are associated with workplace accidents, sub-optimal performance (reduced productivity, low productivity),

job dissatisfaction, incidents of work-related tension, and feelings of futility and lower levels of self-confidence, absenteeism and intention to quit work (ILO, 2016; WHO, 2010). This forms the basis of the perceptions and experience of psychosocial factors (ILO, 1986, 2016) and emphasises the attention that should be given to these factors within work organisations.

While good quality jobs and working conditions can give people a feeling of achievement, enhanced performance and learning which increases their feeling of self-efficacy and self-esteem, a precarious job or other unpleasant experiences could result to feelings of helplessness and anxiety (Leka & Sinclair, 2014; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009a). Other work-related issues such as role conflict and role ambiguity (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) have been found to lead to high blood pressure, high pulse rates, and symptoms of depression, cardio-vascular ill health and coronary disease (WHO, 2010). Studies have determined that there are links between individual mental and physical health concerns and the well-being of an organisation (Biron, Burke & Cooper, 2014). A range of psychosocial conditions of employment are found to be essential to workers' health because stress-related disorders are caused by imbalances between high levels of effort put into work, compared to low rewards associated to work or work environmental factors (Siegrist, 1996). Clearly, when PWE factors are managed poorly this may result in risks to workers' health, safety and well-being and organisational performance (Blaich, 2015).

With the possible effects of a negative PWE on people and organisations and performance (Eurofound, 2015; EU-OSHA, 2014), psychosocial risk management experts have identified the key steps to consider in the risk prevention and management process. This is discussed in detail in the next section.

1.3.3 Psychosocial risk management framework

Psychosocial risk management (PRM) reflects good practice in terms of organisational management, learning and development, and the

promotion of working life and good work (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008). PRM enables employers and employees to move forward in promoting and managing the psychosocial work environment, thereby providing solutions to organisational problems. Due to the interaction between PRM and the structuring and execution of work, the key drivers are the managers and employees who are responsible for work to be done. To get the best results from the process however, it is important that managers and employees assume ownership of the PRM initiative (Leka et al., 2008)

In ideal risk management frameworks, the knowledge held by individuals based on their area of expertise and experience is recognised as a vital aspect of risk management in the workplace (Debowski, 2006; Fudalinski, 2015; Leka & Cox, 2008; Sorenson, 2003). The implementation of good management practices and organisational development activities is the result of the sense of ownership portrayed by participants involved in the change process.

The best known PRM framework to date is PRIMA-EF (Psychosocial Risk Management – European Framework, Leka & Cox, 2008) which proposes that training and knowledge dissemination could prevent issues that may arise based on interpersonal relationships between colleagues and supervisors, time management, communication, handling conflicts, coping with violence, harassment and bullying. The framework also provides for rehabilitation for employees who are already exposed to psychological or physical hazards. The framework demonstrates the link between risk management, productivity, and expected organisational outcomes (Roozeboom et al., 2008) as depicted in Figure 1.1.

Risk assessment, which is the first stage in the risk management process not only identifies challenges, but equally considers the positive aspects within the work environment that should be promoted and improved (Leka et. al., 2008). By analysing possibly hazardous situations and assessing the risk that they might pose to the health of individuals and their organisations, it provides sufficient and appropriate evidence to initiate

discussions of psychosocial hazards at work and gives an informed basis for avoiding problems through a risk reduction action plan. As part of the risk assessment process, the audit phase enables the evaluation, analysis and critical appraisal of existing measures in place to deal with psychosocial hazards regarding management practices and employee support.

The ‘action plan’ is then developed when the nature of hazard and their causes are adequately understood through information derived at the risk assessment phase with a view to translate into practical plan. This is based on the intention to minimise risk (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008). The subsequent implementation of an action plan for risk reduction is a change process that must be planned and managed effectively. The authors identified that implementing measures and interventions is the vital step in risk reduction. Without adequate measures and interventions realised, no risk reduction will be achieved (Leka et. al., 2008).

One key phase of risk management processes that is often overlooked is the evaluation phase (Akhavan & Pezeshkan, 2014; Shrafat, 2018). The determination of how well or in what respect an action plan has worked is essential in finding out the level of impact of both the process and outcomes of an implemented action plan (Leka, Cox & Zwetsloot, 2008). The results of the evaluation should allow the strengths and weaknesses of both the action plan and its implementation process to be assessed. Knowledge sharing should be the basis for the usage of the evaluation process with the intent to continually improve on future risk management processes. Consequently, identified learning points should be adopted in the (re)design of work organisation and workplaces as part of the normal organisational development process (Leka et al., 2008), so that the initiatives targeted at promoting workers’ health can achieve the effects envisaged by all stakeholders.

However, a key consideration in this thesis that has not been addressed in the literature, is the interconnectedness between the process and outcomes of PRM (such as PRIMA-EF presented in Figure 1.1) and

those of KM. The next section reviews the potential of managing people and organisational knowledge to promote 'quality of work', 'productivity and quality' and other socially-related work processes. This research therefore aims to determine how KM and PRM can promote a positive PWE thereby enabling organisations to attain improved people and organisational performance. This will promote the availability of research on the role of KM in promoting PRM and wider risk management processes and initiatives to people and organisational performance and learning (Tummala & Schoenberr, 2011).

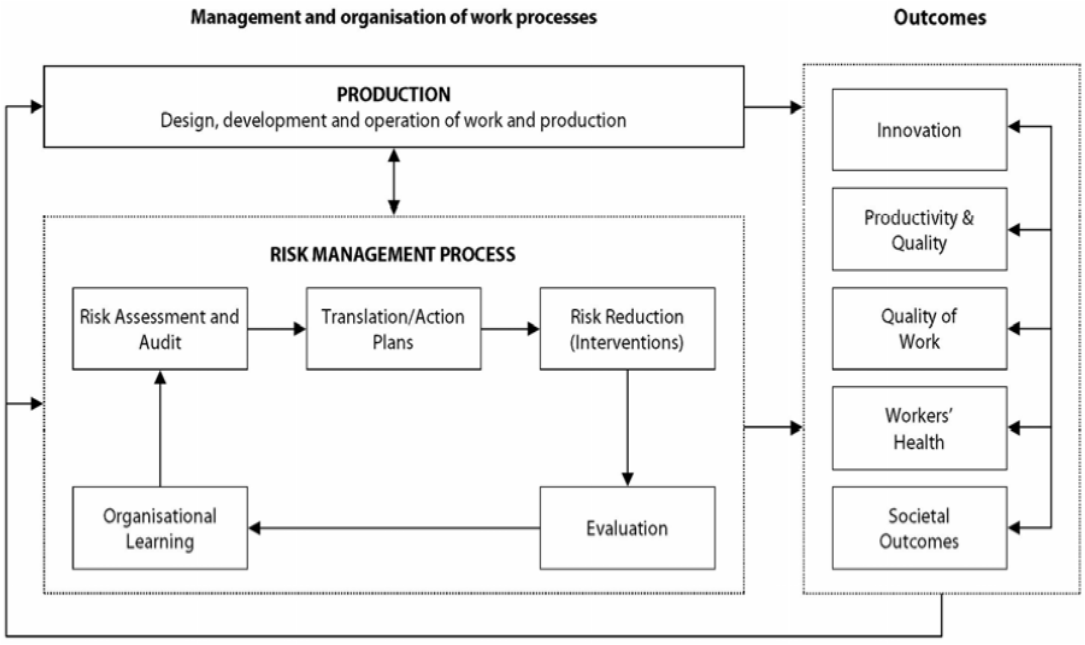


Figure 1.1: The PRIMA-EF model for the management of psychosocial risks – enterprise level (Leka et al., 2008)

1.4 Role of knowledge management in risk management

This section reviews the use of KM as a strategic resource alongside PRM in reducing risks in organisations (Karadsheh et al., 2008). Using KM to improve the application of risk management (RM) is a recent and significant research area which has not been explored extensively despite its importance (Alhawari et al., 2012). To achieve desired success in

managing risk, Rodriguez and Edwards (2008) indicated that effective RM process modelling cannot be achieved without a well-established KM process.

Research conducted by Sallmann (2007) and Shaw (2005) shows that existing RM processes did not take advantage of KM even though KM as a discipline can add positively to RM implementation. Sallmann and Shaw's views align with Neef's (2005) who advocated that the key to proactive RM lies in an organisation's ability to mobilise the knowledge and expertise of its employees regarding RM, by providing organisational decision makers with accurate and timely information about potential harmful incidents.

Currently, the ISO 31000, guidelines (ISO, 2018) place great emphasis on the nature of managing risk because of the advent of new knowledge and analysis which have fostered the review of RM processes, actions and controls. The relatedness of drivers of KM and RM makes the argument for knowledge risk management (KRM) more tenable. Research in RM points towards drivers like risk identification, assessment, evaluation, control and monitoring (Law et al., 2006; Tummala & Schoenherr, 2011) which could be described as risk process drivers, while policies, organisation, management practices and procedures (Alhawari et al., 2012; Law et al., 2006) can be presented as structural drivers of RM. Noticeably, these RM drivers are closely related to those found in KM in study 1 (Chapter 4) of this thesis.

Therefore, one could surmise that the application of KM processes and drivers in promoting RM processes has the potential of mitigating the probability of risk occurrence, thereby raising the probability of successful RM execution (Fuller et al., 2008). For this to happen, it is important that the organisation prioritises knowledge infusion into RM. This will require the creation, capturing and sharing of knowledge related to potential risks to key stakeholders. Based on this awareness of the important role of KM in managing risks, Massingham (2010) noted that there has been increased

attention in the application of KM in managerial issues as a way of demonstrating the field's value. Massingham noted that knowledge risk management (KRM) is an emerging field which suggests proffering solutions to the problems connected with conventional RM methods or even complementing them as being prescribed in this thesis.

Consequently, a well-defined, designed and integrated KM and RM framework is essential to improve decisions that will impact positively on curbing and preventing the risk factors (Rodriguez & Edwards 2008) which employees might be exposed to in the work environment. If organisations are serious about mitigating the effects of risks, KM in turn must sit right at the heart of their risk management strategy (Scott et al., 2002).

1.5 A KM-inspired approach to promote a positive PWE

Based on the above submissions, this research will evaluate elements of KM to explore their potential in promoting a positive psychosocial work environment. Since KM, RM, and PRM relate to managing aspects of work organisation, design and management and its processes and practice (as identified in this chapter), one would imagine that their presence and implementation in work organisations will respectively bring significant benefits to work performance due to better management of the work environment and work itself.

Accordingly, this thesis will establish the vital role KM and PRM could play in influencing a positive PWE. Linking both concepts to people and organisational performance and learning will make a strong business case for organisational leadership to adopt KM and PRM while finding a means to integrate both concepts into work systems and environment. To this end, this thesis will identify the essential drivers of KM with the aim of determining the extent of complementarity between KM and PRM and also address possible gaps within a knowledge risk management (KRM) approach. The following section explains the process in achieving this research objective.

1.6 Potential influence of culture on KM and PRM adoption

The importance of KM or PRM is not in doubt as various studies have expressed their successful use in organisational learning and performance (Inkinen, 2016; North & Kumta, 2018) and people wellbeing (Bergh, 2015) respectively. However, these successes have mainly been recorded in organisations in the western world and limited parts of Asia. The rare use of the KM approach in African countries has been more of a “bandwagon” or “me too” approach (Muganda-Ochara, 2008; Swanson & Ramiller, 2004), while literature review shows no evidence of PRM initiatives in African organisations.

Culture plays a significant role in how businesses are organised and managed. Differences in cultural value systems have been found to be a factor in the unsuccessful adoption of western management models in Africa despite the imposition of western management styles. Throughout the world, business practices are extensions of culture, and this is particularly true in the African society (Amoako-Agyei, 2009). The sub-Saharan (African) culture emanates from extended family structures that are economic units that care for themselves (Fadiman, 1994). Therefore, African countries are generally collectivist compared to their western counterpart that are individualistic (Hofstede, 1991; Iguisi, 1994).

The collectivist nature consists of in-groups and out-groups (affiliations) which fosters favouritism over performance in the organisation. This indicates that personal interests may prevail over organisational interest as the driving force of an initiative depending on the allegiance of the employee. Whether or not this has a great impact on performance cannot be determined due to lack of data for comparison. On one hand, it is not farfetched to assume that members of each sub-group could facilitate trust and good relationships that promotes knowledge sharing and wellbeing

within the group. On the other hand, findings by Muganda-Ochara et al (2008) identified the impact of competitive streak and wider issues around risk and litigation as factors that make collaboration and idea sharing difficult particularly among these sub-groups. This is quite an interesting finding considering that the African culture typically prides itself as harmonious and a promoter of social cohesion (Booysen, 1999; Shonhiwa, 2008). This could indicate that although the African culture advocates a collectivist approach to work organisation and management, inadvertently, the sub-groups existing within organisational communities could adopt an individualistic approach as a unit.

Furthermore, the characterisation of African societies as highly tolerant of social inequality, masculinity, and low levels of uncertainty avoidance makes the direct transfer of western management models untenable (Duze, 2012) and increases risks in the workplace. This was demonstrated in the findings of Amoako-Agyei, (2009) and Duze (2012) who found that Africans tend to respect people because of 'who they are', while western countries respect people because of 'what they have done'. This could explain the findings by Muganda-Ochara et al (2008) that 'ego' was also a contributing factor particularly among older and more experienced employees. They observed that people tend not to use 'knowledge' that cannot be claimed as their own or given by younger and less experienced colleagues. This could be due to 'high power distance' which is a privilege to older people and those in authoritative positions and expected to be accepted by those with lower status in the society based on cultural norms. This could foster an unhealthy work environment due to knowledge hoarding and nepotism.

Regarding cultural norms in Africa, employees who are holders of knowledge do not 'see' the benefits of sharing knowledge where such time can be channelled towards more 'productive activities'. This was associated to the lack of knowledge sharing culture in South African organisations as a case study. In addition, the average employee regards knowledge as power,

hence, the unwillingness to share. In other cases, people simply do not know what to share. This would require practitioners of KM to formally define the aspects of knowledge to be shared to make it a pervasive concept in the organisation.

Another challenge is the shortage of economic resources. The study conducted by Muganda-Ochara et al. (2008) revealed that employees tend not to share knowledge where they presume that sharing knowledge will culminate to parting with their limited resource in order for the knowledge recipient to use the knowledge. This would also suggest that such resources are left redundant from time to time when the knowledge holder does not need them.

In spite of the noticeable differences in African and western cultures, which does not entirely support the use of western management models in African organisations, some KM success factors that are relevant in western models can also be key factors in a prospective African management model. For instance, employees consider similar factors in reward systems. Although there were differences in the prioritisation of its attributable success factors by employees from African countries compared to those from Europe. On the contrary, the African culture takes a different approach regarding performance reviews which form the basis for reward. Again, the collectivist versus individualistic dimensions determine how the reviewer engages with the employee being reviewed in an African styled management approach compared to the western approach.

The dilemma is that Africa does not really have any alternative role models conceived in the African cultural context for the African manager that must uphold his culture while he aspires to deliver the goals and objectives of the organization effectively and efficiently on African soil. Therefore, to globalise successfully into the African marketplace, Western business must understand the African cultural value system (Shonhiwa, 2008).

1.7 Aim and outline of this thesis

This research has three main aims. First, it seeks to identify key themes of the main KM frameworks and investigate the focus on people and organisational issues within these frameworks. Secondly, it seeks to explore the extent of complementarity between key themes of KM frameworks and the ten dimensions of the psychosocial work environment. Thirdly, the research will investigate how KM influences the management of PWE in practice within the context of an organisation, identifying key KM themes and drivers, and priorities for action.

Generally, this thesis will investigate how KM could assist to identify people-roles and work processes that are important to work organisation and management. KM could play a vital part in the transformation of risk assessment into actionable plans by the enterprise. Ultimately, through KM, the enterprise could learn from the outcomes of knowledge application and use this as a tool to advance knowledge use to achieve set organisational objectives, which should include the management of psychosocial risks.

Although the main dimensions of the KM approach will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter, it is important to underline its core claim. The KM approach addresses effective learning processes of human knowledge that use technology and cultural environment to enhance intellectual capital and performance (Jashapara, 2011). Along the same lines, Debowski (2006) explains KM as the process involved in the learning of intellectual assets, which are vital for an organisation's long-term performance. Therefore, if a KM framework is a tool that can be used to achieve human knowledge development and management, then the components of this KM framework should be evaluated in terms of its opportunities to improve people's well-being and performance at work.

In summary, the KM approach has attracted much attention among various experts ranging from business process strategists, information

management executives, and more particularly human resource managers. However, its coverage of the people dimensions and people's exposure to risks relating to work processes and design in the work environment is still limited. It is hoped that this research will contribute to the further development of the KM approach in relation managing people and promoting the PWE.

Apart from this introductory chapter, this thesis is structured along six additional chapters. The content of each of these chapters is briefly summarised as follows:

- Chapter 2 presents a literature review on KM and the main theoretical submissions guiding the subsequent studies. The chapter introduces KM in greater detail and discusses its use in the organisation from the opinion of various authors. It goes on to review 28 KM frameworks that were crucial in developing the KM themes in Chapter 4
- Chapter 3 explains the research design and methodological approach used in this thesis.
- Chapter 4 presents the results of the first study. Results are based on a qualitative design and thematic analysis. This study investigates KM frameworks from a multi-level perspective to identify and extract key themes to establish comprehensive KM themes.
- Chapter 5 presents the results of the second study, based on a qualitative design and framework analysis. The study explores the complementarity between the KM themes identified in the previous study, and the management of psychosocial factors proposed by Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017). Comprehensive KM themes incorporating PWE dimensions and factors are presented to serve as the basis for future KRM initiatives.
- Chapter 6 presents the results of the third study. Results are based on a qualitative design and documentary and semi-structured interview analysis at the organisational level (case-study approach).

This study explores the extent of understanding that managers have regarding the use of knowledge within their working environment. It then examines whether knowledge-related factors that already exist in organisations could be used in mitigating the risks associated with the organisation of work and management of the PWE. Finally, it identifies, possible gaps in the use of organising and managing knowledge, and in using knowledge in managing risk, while making suggestions for improvement.

- Chapter 7 provides recommendations for promoting KM and PRM to foster a positive PWE. These recommendations are derived by bringing together results from the three studies in formulating a valid proposal for KM and PRM to address the PWE factors. General conclusions are drawn and directions for future research are identified.

The next chapter of this thesis will explain the concept of knowledge management in more detail and review the key KM frameworks which include aspects related to the management of people. It will also discuss the interaction between KM and the management of the PWE.

Chapter 2 Review of knowledge management frameworks

2.1 Introduction

As discussed earlier, the concept of knowledge management (KM) is crucial to organisational outcomes, competitiveness and economic growth (Jasinskas et al., 2015; Witherspoon et al., 2013). KM has been described as the process of identifying, capturing, organising and disseminating knowledge that are critical for the organisation's long-term performance (Debowski, 2006). The capacity to link the many systems and processes in an electronic system has opened different possibilities for businesses. Many companies have embraced an evolution of new processes, and working practices (McDaid, 2008) to conduct work activities.

KM has also been supported by greater skills employees now bring to their work roles as professionals and managers with graduate level skills in critical thinking, communication and technology (Jashapara, 2011; Nonaka & Toyama, 2015). Organisations are therefore keen to embrace better and more efficient ways of managing their intellectual assets so that the expertise of people can be shared with others and recorded for future reference as required (ISO, 2017; Kim & Hancer, 2010; Shrafat, 2018). The increasing recognition of the commercial value of employee expertise has stimulated organisations of all sizes and complexity to adopt many of the principles and concepts of KM (Fahey, 2000).

Based on the important role of KM initiatives within organisations as explained above, the aim of this chapter is to review existing KM frameworks to identify their key themes (antecedents and attributes).

2.2 Knowledge management at the centre of organisational operations

The creation of effective organisational knowledge relies on many things. First, the sources of knowledge that can be accessed needs to be known, available and useful (Jasphara, 2011). Therefore, systems must be

regularly updated to reflect the changing organisational context and experiences. Therefore, knowledge systems should be carefully managed and organised (Karami et al., 2015), so they contribute effectively to organisational knowledge creation and use. More importantly, expert knowledge sources are key strategic forces which should be recognised by others and accessible to them. Increasingly, organisations are recognising the importance of capitalising on, and cultivating those who can guide and enhance the strategic priorities of the organisation (Conley & Zheng, 2009; Sharawy, 2017). Hence, strategic knowledge – expertise and understanding that support the strategic direction of the organisation – is increasingly valued as an organisational asset. Consequently, a significant number of organisations have invested in various KM programmes in their efforts to enhance organisational performance (Linch-Chi Vo, 2014).

For many organisations, the individual's knowledge assets are little known outside a small circle of associates (Jashapara, 2011). Thus, a challenge for many organisations is the development of mechanisms to identify and capture knowledge which are potentially valuable for others. An important priority for many organisations is to determine which elements of knowledge are of high strategic value, and which are less crucial to people and organisational performance. This requires careful consideration and deliberation, using several perspectives to identify those areas of knowledge that will benefit the workplace, if shared. As Debowski (2006) indicated, for many people, an important work capability is to know who knows something, rather than knowing it themselves. Building an awareness of the sources of expertise in the organisation is increasingly important as the growth rate of knowledge increases. As represented in Figure 2.1, KM should play a central role in all organisational undertakings.

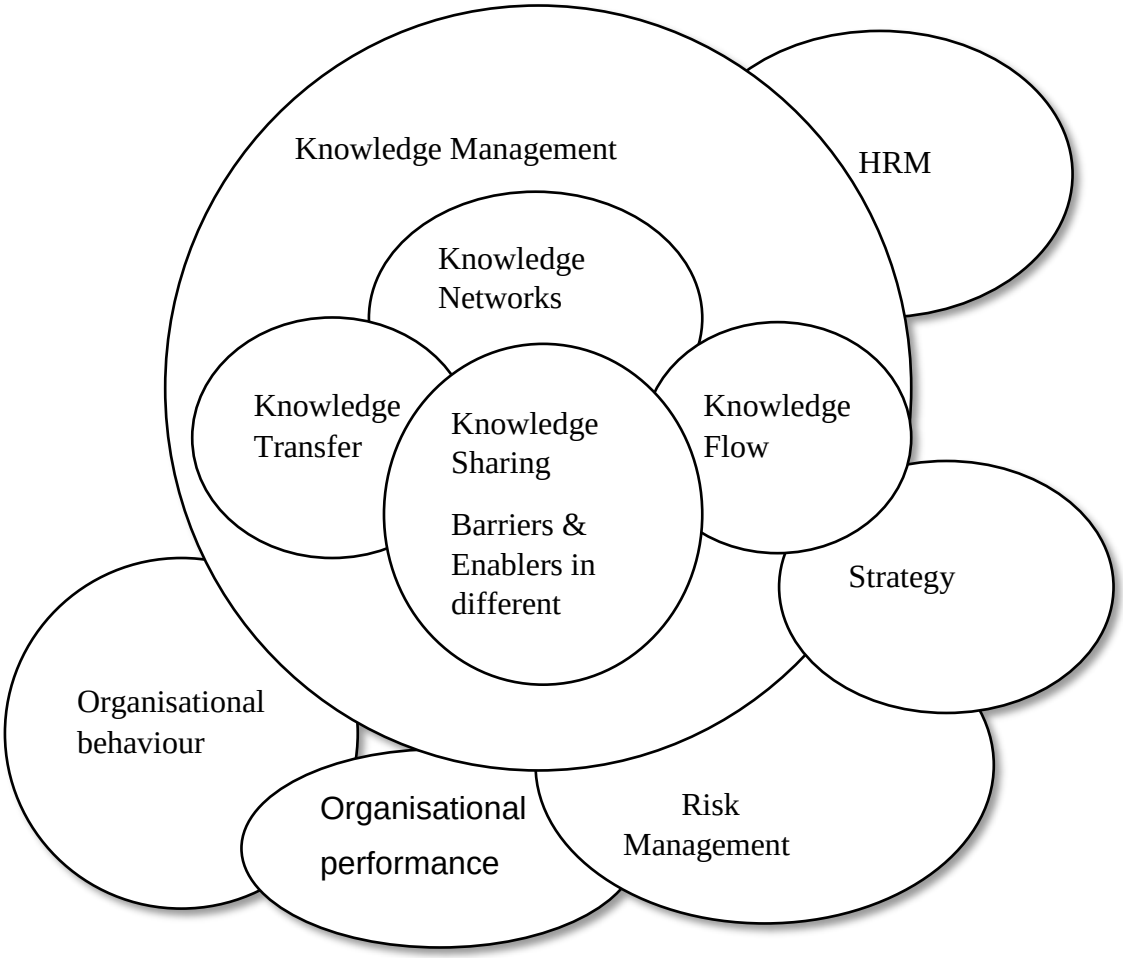


Figure 2.1: Knowledge Management at the centre of organisational operations

2.2.1 Sources of organisational knowledge

Figure 2.2 depicts the key elements that fosters organisational knowledge. These knowledge sources are possessed and exhibited by knowledge workers to necessitate the efficient dispatch of tasks on one hand, while organisational knowledge combines various information databases and systems which are harnessed by the organisation over a period, on the other. These are the main knowledge sources identified within literature; hence, the need to establish this as shown in Figure 2.2.

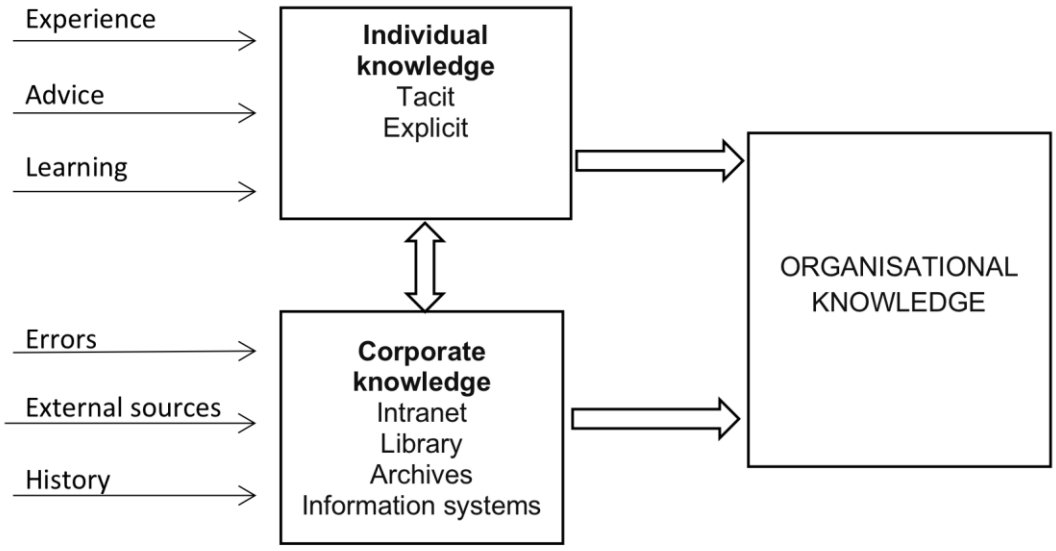


Figure 2.2: Sources of organisational knowledge (Debowski, 2006)

2.3 Key taxonomies of KM

This section will discuss the KM tools and techniques to deliver KM goals (Al-Azri et al. 2010; Jafari et al., 2010; Kumar et al., 2013) (Table 2.1). It will also address the key themes of KM based on the purposes and intensions of different authors in today's dynamic business world.

Table 2.1: KM tools and goals

Classification	**Types of KM tools**	**KM Goals**
Non IT based tools	Books, Brainstorming, Peer assist, Storytelling, Knowledge Café, Visualisation, Communities of practice, KM/Profiling, Case-based reasoning, Collaborative physical workspace	Generate new & unusual ideas
		knowledge gathering
		Problem solving
		Exploring experiences & knowledge repository of peers
		Share and transfer/promote knowledge

		Providing motivation, Inspiration & valuable insights,
IT based tools	Data warehouses, Document libraries, Datamining, Knowledge portals, Data modelling, Knowledge dashboards, Best practice repository, Skandia navigator, Data search engine, Learning & idea capture, Taxonomy/knowledge mapping, Expertise locator, Learning reviews.	Develop knowledge assets
		Information storage, management & referral
		Continuous learning
		Evaluation of learning outcomes
		Specific observations to improve future performance

Table 2.1 shows some KM tools and the intended objectives of organisations for using them. The intended goals of KM such as the generation of new ideas enabled through brainstorming (a social process), knowledge gathering and sharing facilitated through both IT and non-IT tools and continuous learning and performance improvement mainly attained through information storage and retrieval systems. These KM goals can be explained in terms of similarity to PRM processes and outcomes like innovation, productivity and quality of work. The pursuance of comparable outcomes by both concepts further supports the discussion on the inclusion of KM in risk management initiatives.

Therefore, to achieve the intended success in knowledge creation and management, an organisation should identify relevant and useful knowledge elements in KM frameworks based on the KM goal being sought to be achieved. This requires engaging people in identifying knowledge and using technology as an enabler in the knowledge acquisition and decision-making process (Boumarafi & Jabnoun, 2008; Mills & Smith, 2011) even though this could be a challenging undertaking (Love et al., 2012).

Furthermore, attempting to simplify the understanding of KM frameworks provides an insight into the considerations of research

regarding key dimensions of KM frameworks. Rubenstein-Montano et al. (2001b) proposed three dimensions to KM initiatives. The authors identified that KM frameworks could provide guidance for the discipline of managing knowledge", that is, prescriptive frameworks; or they can be used to identify attributes of KM that are important in influencing the success of KM initiatives, that is "descriptive frameworks". A third dimension was hybrid frameworks which combines the two previous types of frameworks.

While Rubenstein-Montano suggested a wide categorisation of KM, Wong and Aspinwall (2004) identified 'Structure' as the first dimension with 'organisation and technology' as sub-dimensions. The authors also identified 'knowledge type' or 'knowledge resources' with sub-dimensions consisting of 'infrastructure' and 'knowledge assets'. 'KM processes or activities' dimensions and 'KM influences and factors' dimensions with systems and environmental influences as respective sub-dimension were indicated by Wong and colleague.

Yet, Helm et al., (2007) proposed 'plan', 'execute', and 'evaluate' as a key diemsnions with 'organisation and technology' as sub-dimensions. A second dimension was the 'human resource' with sub-dimensions as personnel management/leadership, and motivation and human resource development. The 'KM activities' and 'culture' dimension with sub-dimensions as 'organisational level and actors' were also proposed as key attributes of KM respectively.

On the other hand, Heisig (2009) classified KM frameworks into three separate elements of 'organisation' with sub-dimensions as 'processes and structures', 'technology' with sub-dimensions 'infrastructure and applications' and 'human-oriented' dimension with culture, people and leadership as sub-dimensions. Another dimension was 'management processes' with KM activities and processes as sub-dimensions.

More recently however, Bai, et al. (2015) suggested four dimensions to KM frameworks that includes innovation objectives, which captures the

strategic control of KM practices within an organisation; knowledge resources which involve the construct of the 'community's database of knowledge'; KM activities that deals with processing knowledge resources in a bid to operationalise a KM framework. The fourth dimension proposed by Bai and colleagues refers to the critical factors of KM activities affecting the conduct of effective KM in the 'community' and individually influencing all other three components in the framework.

Despite the differences in the categorisation of KM dimensions and sub-dimensions described above, it is evident that people and technological attributes are crucial to constructing KM frameworks due to their presence across KM typologies identified from different studies as previously stated. However, knowledge itself is not directly accessible; rather it is accessed only through individuals that hold that knowledge (Grant, 1996a; Nonaka et al., 2000). Thus, managing knowledge without proper emphasis on the human aspects can be potentially misleading and could obscure the mechanisms by which knowledge-holders participate in the creation, integration and application of knowledge. The most elusive part of knowledge that is needed for this purpose is tacit knowledge which is, in effect, bound to individuals. Therefore, in knowledge-intensive organisations, people (knowledge-holders) play a crucial role in making organisations competitive (Smith, 2001).

Kayes (2004) submits that human beings affect the ability of teams to exploit knowledge held by their members; therefore affecting team performance. The fact that valuable knowledge (tacit knowledge) is not separable from the individual that holds it, implies that rather than perceiving knowledge as the primary resource of the knowledge-based firm, it is perhaps more relevant to consider knowledge-holders as the primary knowledge resource. Furthermore, the knowledge worker interfaces with other identified KM factors by exhibiting both tacit and explicit knowledge capabilities in expressing their cognitive ability to handle management processes or the physical and mental aptitude to operate in advanced

technology-driven environments. This facilitates the successful execution of organisational strategic plans that leads to improved business performance.

Undoubtedly, technology has a significant role and influence on workplace communication. People use a range of communication tools to disseminate knowledge in teams, across organisational divisions, and in relating with clients, suppliers and other external bodies. Most forms of communication (knowledge sharing) relies on electronic media. For instance, virtual communication operates through a range of technological channels, including email, tele-conferencing, video conferencing and other forms of electronic interaction. Careful management of communication platforms is important, as sacrificing social interaction for knowledge retrieved from work systems, that is, tacit versus explicit knowledge, can lead to social and functional challenges. In fact, there is a higher likelihood of poor communication and misinterpretation when the transmission channel is solely electronic. Thus, the need to consider the impact of technology in KM.

2.4 Evaluating key knowledge management themes

Organisations need to use KM to improve its efficiency and provide effective ways to use its intellectual assets to be able to compete successfully (Paulin and Suneson, 2015; Singh and Kant, 2007, 2008; Snowden, 2000). In order to attain the highest level of efficiency in today's dynamic business world, organisations must adopt the right KM techniques and tools to deliver KM goals (Kumar et al., 2013; Al-Azri et al. 2010; Jafari et al., 2010; Weber, 2007). To achieve the intended success in knowledge creation and management, an organisation should be able to identify relevant and useful knowledge in the KM process which requires the involvement of workers in recognising critical knowledge and using technology as an enabler in the knowledge acquisition and decision-making process (Mills & Smith, 2011; Boumarafi & Jabnoun, 2008; Argote et al. 2000), despite the fact that it is a challenging undertaking that affects the organisation as a whole (Love et al., 2012).

(Torres et al., 2018; Kozjek & Ovsenik, 2017; Ranjan & Bhatnagar, 2008) all expressed factors which they believed must be given special and continuous attention for the continued success of an organisation. As Huang & Lai, (2012) indicated that the successful implementation of KM is dependent on several critical factors encompassing a wide range of perspectives. Although achieving these factors might be complicated, they are found to play a key role in taking advantage of hidden benefits and lacking them could be a major organisational barrier for achieving organisational goals (Moghli, 2007). Knowledge management have been described as an important aspect of business which focuses on how projects are being managed, and the performance and innovation capacity of an organisation. Al-Khouri, (2014) also stated that knowledge sharing is influenced by factors such as leadership, Human Resource Management (HRM), culture, technology, strategy, structure, process, performance, training and education, measurement, and incentives.

Rahim, (2014) indicated that changes that occur in the organisation are highly associated with its leaders. Changes in organisation is said to be a dynamic occurrence which takes place as a result of organisations becoming increasingly competitive and globalised in nature. Therefore, organisations need leaders who can influence employees' reaction to change during the organisation's change procedure. Organisational leadership have been described as a practice which explores the ideas and plays an important role when discussing integrity, decision-making and ability to change in organisations (Singh, 2008; Argote et al., 2000). Argote and colleagues further stated that effective leadership should involve openness, trust and cooperation. Singh (2008) further emphasised that integrity and trust are two qualities which a leader must have within the team to guarantee the team's success. Other literatures argue that people tend to be generally inspired and motivated by leaders they can trust and respect, whereas an unequal distribution of knowledge among the members of any team brings about distrust in a team (Park & Lee, 2014).

Literature also revealed that effective leadership oversees culture which is another important part of the Knowledge Management process (Noor et al. 2015; Bremer et al. 2013). An effective leader is expected to be able to provide trust and promote a knowledge sharing culture for the organisation (Artail, 2006; Riege, 2005). In order to achieve this, the leader have decision-making powers to influence the knowledge process in a way that positively impacts on organisational performance Kumar et al. (2013). Wong, (2005) further clarifies that effective and empowered leadership refers to the capability of the leader to express behaviours which encourages the active participation of others within the organisation in the decision-making process and employee engagement in KM efforts. In addition, effective communication and attention required to convert information to knowledge as a vital part of the knowledge process has been described as part of a leader's decision-making ability (Kumar et al., 2013; Alipour et al. 2011) based on the obvious realisation that all organisations have different cultures and structures that influences their knowledge processes.

Having referred to links between leadership and culture earlier on, Jung et al. (2007) and Cristina, (2009) suggested that KM is highly influenced by organisational culture as the latter shapes the behaviours of both leaders and employees within the organisation which could lead to fundamental advancements or changes in the operations of an organisation. For instance, Al-Adaileh et al. (2011) and Megdadi et al., (2012) indicated that a culture of teamwork and openness promoted through employee involvement and reward systems positively influenced knowledge dissemination among workers' in the organisation, while teamwork, individual characteristics and environmental factors were claimed to affect knowledge sharing in a collectivist culture (Del Gludice et. al. 2014; Al-Khouri, 2014). While Pastor, (2011) sees culture as a factor that unites the organisation and reduces conflicts, Donate and Guadamillas, (2010) suggested that the understanding that culture brings about as a result of connections and collaborations between employees which enables them to

understand each other better, forms a vital part of the culture that promotes knowledge management and sharing (Valmohammadi, 2010).

Yet again, top management's ability to understand the vision and mission of the business, which enables management to develop strategic initiatives to manage knowledge in the organisation (Beckett et. al. 2000) and management's strategic position in the organisation are said to impact on the effectiveness of knowledge sharing (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008), as management provides the organisation with the strategic or functional initiatives that can be conducted within the organisation. In addition, AlShamsi & Ajal, (2018) advocated that management motivation and support through participation should improve organisational performance and the knowledge management process, which brings into focus the role of a learning culture in supporting knowledge sharing practice (Al-Khouri, 2014; Rai, 2011).

Furthermore, the success of managing knowledge is dependent on an organisation's ability to align business strategy to its knowledge requirements (Anghel et. al., 2013; Kushwaha and Rao, 2015; Nevo et al. 2008; and Wakefield, 2005). Organisational vision and mission have been identified as the important factors required to execute strategic initiatives. This was affirmed by Beckett et al. (2000) who indicated that the understanding of organisational vision and mission helps management to develop strategic initiatives to manage knowledge within the organisation. In addition, Bedford and Harrison, (2015) claimed that since leadership is saddled with the formulation of strategies, while equally emphasising the business vision, and communicating it to the whole organisation, this underscores the combined role of leadership and strategy in developing and promoting visions that support Knowledge Management. According to Delios and Henisz, (2003), organisations that are knowledge-focused develop the ability to effectively manage risk taking through an effective knowledge sharing process, further enabled by the formulation of policies which support KM (Coleman et. al., 2016), and ethical planning to help

develop an organisation's ethical behaviour. The ability to gather and manage knowledge through experiential learning has been identified as one way to mitigate risk (Coleman et al., 2016).

Regarding organisational structure, Amaral and Uzzi, (2007) advocated that it outlines the flow of instruction and information within the organisation, thereby impacting on the KM process. Further clarifications by Chen et al., (2010) suggested that the level of complexity or otherwise in organisational structure is a function of the firm size, formalisation, centralisation, and integration, which have all been recognised as factors that influences the way knowledge is being managed in the organisation. Emphasising on the possible downside of large organisational structures, Zheleva and Viklund, (2014) indicated that large organisational structures have more employees and a longer communication network, thereby giving chances to the possibilities of more misunderstandings. Rules and regulations which formalises processes are the outcome of complex structures (Gonzalez & Martins, 2014), based on the role they play as a guide to employees' behaviour and to help establish a structure that have clearly defined and specialised roles for employees in the organisation. This slightly deviates from the views of Willem and Buelens, (2009) who ascribed organisational structure as a process that centralises authority by centralising resources, technologies and planning which provides direction and responsibility for organisation's strategic planning and decision-making for improved KM that enhances knowledge flow. However, this centralised approach will be mainly suitable for organisations where either democratic leadership is not feasible or participatory decision-making cannot be achieved. A counter argument by Mahmoudsalehi et al., (2012) found that a de-centralised structure better facilitates knowledge sharing. Similarly, integrated and network structures were more favourable to KM as they promote greater interaction among employees while enhancing knowledge flow (Gonzalez & Martins, 2014).

Jung et al. (2007) identified organisational processes as a platform that allows knowledge creation and also enables an excellent delivery of knowledge. In agreement with Jung's submission, Hao et al., (2015) stressed that knowledge managing activities like meetings, discussions, presentations and sharing training experiences are meant to promote knowledge sharing processes. Socialisation have been identified as an enabler of organisational knowledge processing which feeds into group and individual knowledge (Raina & Chauchan, 2016). As a recurring factor, Lai and Lee, (2007) advocated that leaders or managers have a duty of promoting positive moods and emotions in workers by engaging them in the processes of social exchange. Furthermore, the conversion of tacit to explicit knowledge was found to support knowledge sharing through documents and records to facilitate easier management and sharing of knowledge (Nonaka & Toyama, 2015), whereas internalisation which is a process that allows individuals to transfer knowledge between each other through collaborative knowledge-building approach is able to create new knowledge through an expansion of existing knowledge which results to increase in personal learning (Cress & Kimmerle, 2008).

Organisations which emphasis on HRM and ICT have been found to have better KM processes. Andreeva and Sergeeva, (2016) were able to establish this in their evaluation of the connection between information, communication and technological practices. This position is further affirmed through Tseng et al., (2010) was able to establish that organisations that stress the need for HRM and ICT related practices are better able to improve performance. To this end, knowledge sharing have been practiced in knowledge-intensive organisations through initiatives like personnel demands, training and development programmes and workers knowledge which are put into consideration in the design of KM strategies and HRM practice within the organisation (Majeed, 2009). Hameed et al (2016) re-affirms that giving HRM the attention it deserves would result in the organisation's ability to engage in knowledge creation and sharing. The choice of recruitment and selection processes were found to address the

availability of resources and information within the organisation. Manjula et al., (2016) was able to establish that these two functions of HRM, recruitment and selection, are factors which determines the development of worker's knowledge, skills and abilities to improve the quality of work life.

Therefore, AlShamsi and Ajal, (2018) suggested that recruiters should design their employee hiring strategies based how knowledge is managed and shared in the organisation because new recruits are expected to be able to conform with the organisation's KM process. The HRM team is saddled with employee training which have knowledge sharing and management as its main components (Freyens & Martin, 2007). They also describe how training uses technological tools, such as multimedia-based training and other techniques, which help the knowledge sharing process. Moreover, Al Saifi et al. (2016) found that cross-training between departments can enhance knowledge acquisition and dissemination in the organisation. In addition, Hau et al. (2013) and Patil and Kant (2012) elucidated that rewards have a major part to play in motivating and encouraging employees to do their jobs and perform efficiently.

It could be assumed that the system of contributing knowledge in the organisation and enhancing knowledge sharing behaviours is contingent on rewards. In essence, it would not be out of place to express the notion that rewards encourage employees to enhance their collective performance, such as creating a sense of cooperation, ownership and commitment. Though Andreeva and Sergeeva (2016) found that rewards have a positive impact on knowledge sharing, while motivating employees and making them feel appreciated and valued, however, tangible rewards will not always be effective, as employees seek encouragement to contribute to knowledge sharing in the organisation (Hau et al., 2013; Patil and Kant, 2012).

The use of technology infrastructure as a channel to communicate knowledge involves having an understanding of level of acceptance and the ability of potential users of such technology (Kowitlawakul et al. 2015). This demands for an understanding of the relationship between the knowledge

sharing process and the organisation, and the reliability of the technology to support KM initiatives. The support technology offers today provides people with an opportunity to learn what they did not know. According to Rodrigues et al. (2016) this was quite different from the past, where people were not aware of what they did not know, thereby taking decision based on limited information. However, using the latest technology is known to be advantageous to organisations in gaining competitive edge towards attaining appropriate KM strategies resulting from acquisition of intensive knowledge and facilitation of knowledge sharing processes among people (Malhotra, 2005). Davis et al. (1989) warns that it is important to bear in mind the technology user's perception and ease of using such technology for the intended purpose. The ease and ready acceptance of the technology will support knowledge sharing initiatives.

Irrespective of using appropriate KM tools, factors and processes, a show of positive attitude towards the organisation is required from employees. This attitude is expressed through an attitude of value, responsibility and regard for the viewpoint of the organisation (Robinson et al. 2004). To promote a positive attitude, Claxton (2014) identified key factors such as job description, work environment, human resource management and relationships between supervisors and colleagues as fundamental factors to employees' positive attitude. For instance, a work environment that encourages growth opportunities relating to career development, training, employees relationship with top management, mutual respect among colleagues were found to promote employee engagement which fostered knowledge sharing (Joshi & Sodhi, 2011; Mueller, 2015; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010). As Artail, (2006), Riege, (2005) and Singh, (2008) emphasised the vital role of trust in organisational leadership. Ford and Staples, (2010) also identified that trust or the lack of it may affect employee engagement. In addition, access to personal resources like self-efficacy, self-esteem and optimism had positive impact on self-regards or self-worth (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Xanthopoulou et

al. 2007). These authors found that people with such resources are readily willing to engage

2.5 Using KM to manage the PWE

With KM being a multi-disciplinary through its attributes and purposes it is associated with promoting good working conditions, while psychosocial risks are organisational stressors caused by poor work design and its organisation and management in social and environmental contexts (Cox & Griffiths, 1995), the relevance of KM in promoting a positive PWE is quite evident. However, Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017) have taken further steps by presenting the PWE from a dual perspective (positive and negative factors). The PWE dimensions articulates positive factors that are required for people and organisational performance. The positive factors presents a positive outlook to PWE factors which are not risk factors in themselves, but subject to how work systems and environment have been set up.

Also, as indicated in this chapter as well as in Chapters 1, people and organisational factors play essential roles in KM and the creation of a positive PWE. The willingness of individuals to share valuable knowledge (tacit) (Karami et al., 2015 and Zaki & Soliman, 2017) and the capability of the organisation to store knowledge (explicit) provides the right platform to develop a sustainable PWE. The availability and accessibility of relevant knowledge to people through colleagues, work systems and the work environment could prevent work-related hazards (WHO, 2010). Understanding that employees face risk exposures resulting from how work and work environment is organised and managed, and the role of a KM approach in making knowledge available when and where it is required for risk prevention and avoidance in an organisation, emphasises the importance of KM in managing the PWE.

Consequently, understanding that KM themes and attributes are associated with improving work conditions, and that psychosocial factors are part of work systems and the working environment supports the

argument that KM could complement PRM in promoting the PWE. This research will determine the complementarity between KM and PRM and also investigate whether the existing knowledge themes in KM frameworks can be used in promoting and managing a positive PWE in organisations. It will also explore managers' use of knowledge within the work environment. This will provide the opportunity to make recommendations on how knowledge could further improve the PWE to foster people and organisational performance.

2.6 Assumptions of African style of management.

Research on African management approach is limited and not as current as western management approaches. Most management theories are based on research by western scholars (Mangaliso, 2001). Therefore, there is a tendency for these management approaches to view African management from a judgmental opinion of the developed world paradigm (Jackson, 2002). These management approaches also assume that there is a need for Africa to progress towards the 'advanced' world approach. According to Jackson, most western management approaches see people from an instrumental perspective rather from the humanistic view of people who have values. Therefore, it is important to mention the cross-cultural style of management in Africa because of its potential of influencing how KM and PRM is adopted and initiated within the continent, but more particularly Nigeria.

The caution against a 'blind' application of western-styled management approaches is necessitated due to the pejorative nature in describing African management styles (Blunt & Jones, 1992; Jaeger & Kanungo, 1990) as presented in the literature. Moreover, there is the underlying risk that developed economies might impose their way of organisational change and people management on developing economies, like Nigeria. Moreover, the increasing exposure of African managers to the inter-ethnic cross-cultural differences and diversity due to the advent of Multi-National Corporations (MNCs) (Mulat, 1998) have ensured the dilution

of the African management approach. Also, within the African continent itself there are variations among regions and countries.

Hence, this section will shed more light on the African style of management relating to people and organisations in the African context. This will be achieved by presenting the value of people in organisations through different perspectives. Doing so will have major consequences on the straight-forward use of mainly western-focused management approaches like KM and PRM. In order to adopt these initiatives, it is important to review the African management approach instead of assuming that management concepts that have been used in other cultures can easily be replicated in an African organisation.

Interestingly, the management systems recognised in 'African' literature (Carlsson, 1998) are mostly indicative of the post-colonial style of management which imposes control due to a general lack of trust in people. According to Dia (1996), this management style prevents extensive initiative from workers and encourages a constricted set of skills through financial reward. As a result, there is a focus on the supply side rather than the demand side of capacity building, which includes human beings. This means that capacity utilisation in African management is lacking due to poor training in workplaces (Dia, 1996). Kiggundu (1989) indicated that this have resulted in lack of objective direction and associated risk avoidance in African management style.

In terms of organisational structure, Kiggundu (1989) characterises top management as being authoritarian, controlling and paternalistic in their decision making approach to governance. This was also indicated by Blunt and Jones's (1997) that leadership in African management style is hierarchical, authoritarian and highly centralised. They also affirmed that there are emphasis on rules and procedures and control mechanisms at the expense of performance. Furthermore, resisting change due to a conservative culture (Hofstede, 1991) and the importance of affiliation networks are all synonymous of African management (Jackson, 2002).

In reference to organisational character, Montgomery (1987) pointed out the inefficiencies of organisations in Africa including the lack of job descriptions and job evaluation, lack of clear objectives, lack of incentives, lack of systems and poor infrastructure are some of the issues bedevilling management culture in Africa. Some of these problems are related to the context-dependent nature of organisations in developing countries as opposed to the context-independent behaviour in developed countries. This allow people to take decisions based on relationship rather than applying explicit and standardised rules. Also, the underdevelopment of the economy causes internal problems in organisations including poor motivation, risk aversion and unwillingness, close supervision of and little delegation to subordinates (Kiggundu, 1989).

From the African manager's perspective, commitment is indicated by outcomes rather than the means through which the task is achieved. The underlying factor is the tendency for organisational objectives to metamorphose into manager's personal agenda (Kiggundu, 1989; Montgomery, 1987). There is the pressure to conform to promises and social expectation. This culminates in practices like negotiations and giving gifts which are expected in African organisations. For indigenous family businesses, family influence equally play a huge role in the direction of commitment by managers (Amoako-Agyei, 2009; de Sardan, 1999).

The African management system also defer to rank. Its gives respect to higher authorities (Duze, 2012) who must earn the respect of such followers, while ruling by consent. Despite the belief that people will assume their place on the social scale or hierarchy, those lower on the scale do not only defer to authority of those above, but also to their show of humility towards subordinates. Although there is deference to the leader, the leader on their part must exemplify the value of the community through the support of other people rather than being an autocrat. This empowers people who equally have a duty to uphold the communal values.

Today, industrialisation has become a channel through which western approaches to management is being imported into Africa through multinational organisations (Kerr et al 1960; Hickson and Pugh, 1995). This has been further encouraged by the western-styled management training that managers now undertake. The hybridisation of management systems is an important consideration in Africa (Jackson, 2002). The continued cultural interactions and influences in Africa resulting from the growth of MNCs have led to discussions of cross-vergence (Priem et al 2000). Therefore, the development of hybrid systems in various forms to manage cross-cultural dynamics and the unique demands of the instrumental versus humanistic approach to people management in organisations makes it highly unlikely for the African system of management to be standardised but rather adaptive to be effective.

2.7 Summary of key considerations in KM

The outcomes of the literature review and discussions in Chapter 1 and Chapter 2 revealed three things. Firstly, that the management of knowledge in connection to the psychosocial work environment (PWE) is an important undertaking by the respective stakeholders of these concepts. Both the construction of the PWE dimensions and various KM frameworks recognise the connection between psychosocial factors and knowledge themes and outcomes relating to work organisation and management to improve employee wellbeing and performance. The second outcome from the review showed that in spite of the seemingly different uses of the PWE factors and the KM dimensions, the two concepts are convergent, and could have the potential to be compatible in various ways within the workplace context. Finally, the review also suggests that despite the existence of both ideas to tackle different issues within the organisation, there is still room for improvement regarding how organisations might use these concepts be seeing them as complementing each other.

This review highlights that KM covers a multi-disciplinary field of study (Heisig, 2009). While there is consensus on the integral role of

knowledge application to most business activities, there are distinct perspectives with different extrapolations of KM. The business perspective describes KM as the strategies and processes designed to identify, capture, structure, and share an organisation's intellectual assets to enhance its performance and competitiveness (Girard & Girard, 2015). It is based on two critical activities: (1) capture and documentation of tacit and explicit knowledge, and (2) its dissemination within the organisation.

The intellectual or knowledge asset perspective believes KM develops systems and processes to acquire and share intellectual assets. This view suggests that KM increases the generation of useful, actionable, and meaningful information, and seeks to increase both individual and organisational learning. Through this process, the value of an organisation's intellectual base across diverse functions and disparate locations can be maximised. In the words of Stankosky (2008, pg. 9), "KM consists of leveraging intellectual assets to enhance organisational performance". The aim of intellectual asset is to give the company a competitive advantage (Zwain et. al. 2012). This involves accumulating intellectual capital that will create unique core competencies and lead to superior results (Rigby, 2009).

Another viewpoint refers to knowledge science as knowledge insights, understandings, and practical know-how that people possess which is the fundamental resource that allows us to function intelligently. This position also submits that considerable knowledge is transformed over time through explicit/codified materials (books, technology, practices & traditions) within organisations of all kinds and in society in general. Outcomes of these transformations result in cumulated expertise and, when appropriately used, increased effectiveness. Wilg (1993) reinforced this position by identifying knowledge as a principal factor that makes personal, organisational, and societal intelligent behaviour possible.

However, the process-technology perspective have been described as the concept under which information (tacit knowledge) is turned into actionable knowledge and made available effortlessly in a usable form to

the people who can apply it (Patel & Harty, 1998). With this perspective, some perceive KM as the tools, techniques, strategies and capability to create, enhance, retain, analyse, organise, improve, and share both business expertise and intellectual capital across the organisation (Groff & Jones, 2003, Lank, 1997). Although Abell and Oxbrow's (2001) description of knowledge correlates with the previous definitions associated with the process-technology perspective, they also indicated that knowledge is being utilised for the benefit of the organisation and its customers.

Inadvertently, given the importance of knowledge in virtually all areas of daily and commercial life, it can be argued that two knowledge-related aspects are vital for viability and success at any level (Wiig, 1997, 2002). These are knowledge assets that must be applied, nurtured, preserved and used to the largest extent possible by both individuals and organisations; and knowledge-related processes to create, build, compile, organise, transform, transfer, pool, apply, and safeguard knowledge.

Deductions from the above highlights the areas of emphasis for KM based on four key functions of facilitating knowledge-related activities, setting up knowledge infrastructures, sourcing for knowledge assets and value realisation from knowledge sharing. Although these functions emanate from an organisation's objectives to knowledge maximisation, they are all inter-related and may not be highly effective if treated as an outcome in themselves, rather than as a process or phase which feeds into one another. Therefore, it is expedient to evaluate KM frameworks to determine KM themes and how they interact to promote working conditions.

To investigate the above, the next chapter will extensively discuss the research objectives and design. It will also state the sources of data and explain the analytical approach to each of the 3 studies in this thesis.

Chapter 3 Research design and methodology

3.1 Introduction

According to Blaikie (2004), all research topics begin with the objective of the research, which determines the design and method to be adopted in being able to provide potential answers (Williams, 2003). In this chapter, the research objectives that emerged from the literature review in chapters 1 and 2 will be outlined. It will then explore the chosen methodology of a qualitative case study research and the philosophical position that underpins this, in the form of the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm. Moreover, the rationale for using both primary and secondary data in the research study will be discussed as well as the process taken to ensure ethical standards. The overall purpose of this is to enable the reader to better understand the author's perspective and to shed light on the chosen methodology, methods and practices that were used in relation to social scientific research, as it specifically pertains to the management of knowledge and psychosocial risks in the workplace.

3.2 Research objectives

The current research is divided into three studies as summarised in Table 3.1 below. These studies are designed and executed based on the research objectives stated in Chapter 1 , which are also captured in the table below. The first study investigates the themes that are embedded in KM (Chapter 4). The second study analyses the complementarity between the KM themes identified in the first study (Chapter 4) and PWE dimensions (Chapter 5). At the organisational level, the third study explores how KM and the PWE are addressed in organisational practices and associated drivers, barriers to action as well as needs and success factors. The study aims to further affirm the extent of complementarity established in the second study (Chapter 5) by establishing the relationship between PWE and KM in terms of processes and uses. It will also explore the two concepts with the objective of identifying how they can be combined to improve

organisational practices by identifying drivers and barriers to effective implementation towards promoting people and organisational performance, and organisational learning.

Table 3.1: Overview of studies

Study	**Aim**	**Method**	**Analysis strategy**
Study 1	To explore the people-related themes that influences knowledge management processes and adoption	Qualitative	Thematic analysis
Study 2	To identify common themes between knowledge management frameworks and psychosocial work environment factors	Qualitative	Framework analysis
Study 3	To explore how KM and the PWE are addressed in organisational practices and associated drivers, barriers to action as well as needs and success factors	Qualitative	Case-study research: Documentary evidence and interviews – using thematic analysis

The three studies are linked not only due to the concepts or frameworks they cover, but also the complementarity between their design and results. Each of the studies uses the findings from the previous study as an input to elaborate and substantiate their results. Therefore, the design, implementation and results of the first study are inputs for the enrichment of the second study, while the findings from these studies help to complement the design, and results of the third study (Chapter 6) and recommendations (Chapter 7). This approach was preferred considering the seeming differences in focus between the concepts investigated, and the lack of existing research into the complementarity between knowledge management frameworks and the psychosocial work environment.

Having established the research method and analysis strategies in Table 3.1, the next section will provide the theoretical underpinnings that informed the research approach and the procedures adopted in investigating the research question.

3.3 Research design

3.3.1 Research Paradigms

A paradigm can be described as a set of belief systems that guide the decisions of the researcher and the process by which the study is carried out (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This deals with the researcher's worldview regarding what their reality is (ontology), how they know something exists (epistemology) and how that reality is accessed (methodology). For social scientists, people are viewed as entities and they explore the world through the context of people's subjective reality as well as the meaning they attach to it (Holloway & Galvin, 2017).

3.3.1.1 Ontology, Epistemology and Pragmatism

To further elaborate on the paradigms mentioned in relation to academic writing, ontology is associated with the position or belief about our world or reality. Therefore, an ontological position will attempt to answer a question relating to the nature of the social reality that needs to be investigated (Hay, 2002). Within this context, there are two extreme opinions. The first view sees the world as existing in an objective state, free from the influence of social actors, and people, as actors within that world can try to understand its form. This is the objectivist approach. The second opinion portrays that the world is constructed by people as we act within it and therefore created subjectively in people's minds. This is referred to as a subjectivist or constructivist approach. Using Hatch and Cunliffe's (2006) example of a workplace report to explain these perspectives: does the report capture the truth of what is going on in the workplace, or what the author *thinks* is going on? When evaluating the beliefs around ontology and the substance of reality, it is of utter-most importance to consider how such

reality will be measured, and what makes up the knowledge of that reality. In this regard, epistemology would be useful.

According to Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008), epistemology considers positions on how enquiries are made into the nature of the world and what knowledge is, alongside its sources and limits. Furthermore, Blaikie (1993) describes epistemology as the theory of the grounds for knowledge. This description addresses issues around the assumptions on the ways in which it is possible for a researcher to gain knowledge of reality, how what is in existence may be known, and the criteria which must be satisfied to be described as knowledge.

Consequently, there is a clear link between an individual's ontological position and their epistemological position. Based on the submissions of Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008), an objective epistemological interpretation assumes that a world exist that is external and theory neutral. On the other hand, a subjective epistemological outlook believes that it is not possible to access the external world beyond local observations and interpretations. These views were well presented by Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2007) who submitted that measurements taken independently from the author, that are collected from objects, are less subjected to bias, but are rather more objective. According to Saunders and colleagues however, when it comes to social research, data must be presented in a statistical form to hold any authority, thereby suggesting an objective epistemology approach. This line of argument has been countered by Blaikie (1993) and Easterby-Smith et al. (2008), alongside many researchers who challenged that as a result of the involvement of a researcher in the design of the research, it is virtually impossible to achieve absolute objectivity due to the influences of the researchers' values in the research process.

To complete this cycle, one needs to mention the relationship between ontology, epistemology and methodology. Grix (2002) explains the link between the paradigms by stating that:

"A researcher's methodological approach, underpinned by and reflecting specific ontological and epistemological assumptions, represents a choice of approach and research methods adopted in a given study. Methodology is concerned with the logic of scientific inquiry; with investigating the potentialities and limitations of particular techniques or procedures. The term pertains to the science and study of methods and the assumptions about the ways in which knowledge is produced." (p.179).

Based on the aforementioned, this research study therefore employs the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm, which seeks to understand and identify the 'what', 'why' and 'how' of a subject. It believes "that reality is not objectively determined, but is socially constructed" (Husserl, 1965 cited in Kelliher, 2005, p. 123) and so it views the world in the context of "action, intervention and constructive knowledge" (Goldkuhl, 2012, p. 135). This, as previously mentioned, tends to lend itself to the use of qualitative data in that emphasis is placed on observing individuals within their social context as the best way to pursue knowledge (Holloway & Galvin, 2017; Kelliher, 2005). This enables the researcher to fully understand how individuals perceive their own activities and their involvement, thereby providing the researcher with contextual depth as well as an opportunity to make inferences, despite its limitations.

The central purpose of the interprevists approach to this research is to understand the subjective world of managers' experiences (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). This approach provides an opportunity to 'get into the heads' of the interviewees (managers), and to understand and interpret what these managers think or make of their work environment regarding how knowledge and potential risks are being managed. This research makes a great effort to understand the viewpoint of the managers interviewed, rather than any pre-conceived view of the interviewer. Doing so entailed conducting lengthy interviews (averaging 60 minutes per respondent). This afforded the interviewer an opportunity to understand and clarity or re-clarify each individual's view of their work environment as it relates to work

organisation and management. Emphasis was placed on understanding each manager and their interpretation of their work environment, since the key principle of the interpretivist paradigm is that reality is socially constructed (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). In this constructivist approach, research is grounded in the data generated by the research act.

This research makes meaning of the data collected through the thinking and cognitive processing of data informed by the researcher's interactions with interview participants (subjectivist epistemology approach). This means that the research has constructed knowledge socially based on the researcher regarding the personal experiences of real life within the natural settings investigated (Punch, 2005). To achieve this, the research adopted interactive processes which included questions, dialogues, and recording research data and transcription. This assumes a relativist ontological approach which believes that this case-study could have multiple realities, and that these realities can be explored to make meaning of them or re-constructed through human interactions between the researcher and the research participants (Chalmers et al., 2005). Irrespective of this, this research has adopted a set of interview questions and research methods that will thoroughly investigate and validate or nullify its research questions.

Furthermore, Study 1 draws from a pragmatist approach which enabled the researcher to sidestep "the contentious issues of truth and reality due to the philosophy that there are singular and multiple realities that are open to empirical enquiry and equally orients itself towards solving practical problems in the real world" (Cresswell & Clark, 2007, p. 20 – 28). In this sense, taking a pragmatic approach gave the researcher the freedom from the mental and practical constraints imposed by the "forced choice dichotomy between a positivist and constructivist approach" (Cresswell & Clark, 2007, p. 27). As Dewey (1925) argued, both positivism and subjectivisim are derived from the same paradigm family, as they search for the 'truth' whether it is objective truth or truth from multiple realities (p. 47).

Afterall, both objective and subjective research intend to produce knowledge that best represents relaity (Rorty, 1999).

Therefore, rather than focusing on the objectivity or subjectivity of data collected through literature review, the researcher focused on acquiring data from reknowned journals. This met the objective of being able to collect data from reliable academic sources for analysis.

3.3.2 Using a qualitative approach

The three studies have employed qualitative methods. Quantitative methods have been the predominant method in research studies across a range of academic subjects such as psychology, economics and even business Studies. However, it has been identified by scholars such as Tsang (2013) and Yin (2009; 2014) that there is a need to embrace not only mixed method research but more importantly, qualitative methods as well. This is because the purpose of research is to provide researchers with tools that not only allow them to collect, analyse and synthesise data, but to also draw conclusions (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002; Walliman, 2011). For instance, quantitative methods have the advantage of being “relatively inexpensive and easy to administer, particularly when working with large sample sizes” (Leko, 2014, p. 276); whereas qualitative designs “allow for systematic, in-depth, holistic examinations of a phenomenon in natural settings with participants’ voices at the forefront of the study” (Leko, 2014, p. 276). When conducting any research, it is therefore imperative that the significance of the study is identified, the right method(s) are chosen and that ethical standards are effectively maintained.

Qualitative methods focus on the subjective aspects of social reality by exploring the meanings that are placed on experiences, behaviour and feelings of people (Yin, 2014). This methodological approach can be classified as coming from an ‘insider’s’ perspective, subsequently lending itself to the interpretivist paradigm which is based on interpreting the lived experiences of human beings (Holloway & Galvin, 2017). The commonly

used methods of data collection in qualitative research are: in-depth interviews, participant observation, focus group discussions, case studies and many others. Comparatively, quantitative methodology endorses results that come from the production of quantifiable data that can be used to test the significance of a “knowledge claim” (Creswell, 2003, p. 153). The latter has been classified as more scientific than the former and is usually underpinned by the positivist paradigm. Pure scientists or ‘natural’ scientists as they are known, follow the paradigm or worldview of positivist thinkers believing that interactions between the enquirer and the phenomenon and/or participant occurs only through the natural senses. They argue that data interpretation should therefore be done in a rational and logical way (Guba & Lincoln, 1994), thereby subscribing to terms such as ‘validity’, ‘objectivity’ and ‘generalisability’. Hence, studies that are conducted under this premise, are often more quantitative or experimental in nature (Creswell & Clark, 2007) like questionnaires, surveys, longitudinal studies and so forth.

Although, quantitative and qualitative methodologies are frequently divided up in terms of numbers and words, this does not adequately encapsulate the complex discussions that exist between the two methodological approaches. As Jain (2011) points out, one of the key separating factors between the two is the way in which they seek to explore the truth and acquire understanding. According to Holloway and Galvin (2017) qualitative researchers take an inductive approach to discovering the world and this occurs by moving from the “specific to the general, from the data to theory or analytical description. They do not impose ideas or follow up assumptions but give account of reality as seen by the participants” (p. 4). Quantitative research on the other hand, ensues deductively; it is narrower in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses and so, it involves movement from a general proposition to singular instances.

Ongoing debates are therefore centred on the fact that both methodologies are distinct entities in and of themselves. The difficulty is that researchers from all academic fields are made to feel that pure scientific knowledge as pertaining to quantitative methodologies is the best tool for studying the world (both social and natural) and its problems, as well as achieving the 'right' form of 'truth' (Hollis, 1994). This is evident through the prominence of philosophical assumptions by thinkers such as Popper, Kuhn, Feyerabend, Weber, and Schutz throughout both the social and scientific world (Benton & Craib, 2001). Notwithstanding this, scholars in the field of business management for example (Greener, 2008; Jans & Dittrich, 2008), have increasingly become aware of the need to embrace qualitative means of research.

Information ascertained from quantitative methods has proven to over simplify issues pertaining to businesses, staff and the organisational makeup that are more complex and multidimensional than originally imagined (Dul & Hak, 2008). Essentially, the dynamics of human activities along with their attributes cannot be (and should not be) accurately captured in a stringently measured way; arguably qualitative methods are more appropriately suited in understanding the dynamics that occur in business settings both nationally and/or internationally, particularly when the case study approach is followed (Greener, 2008; Jans & Dittrich, 2008). Simply put, they "can tell the stories behind the numbers, capture unintended impacts and ripple effects, and illuminate dimensions of desired outcomes that are difficult to quantify" (Patton, 2002, p. 152).

While these two competing methodologies remain highly debatable and a range of contributions continually emerge that help to add depth to the scope of the issue (for example, see Blaxter et al., 2001) that according to Jain (2011, p. 117) "have questioned the distinctive features of the two traditions"; what remains is that many scholars have chosen the methodological approach that best suits their research purpose and data.

Thus, experimenting with different tools and choosing to investigate their world in different ways (Juez, 2009; Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002).

3.3.3 Acquiring data through the multi-method approach

While it has been noted by Schwandt (1998) that the primary focus of interpretivist research is to understand knowledge, the problem is that they are known to mask the importance of the methodological process by which that knowledge is acquired. Research methods are about the techniques used in doing research such as the tools used to collect and analyse the data and though it has been stated that:

> "…not only are methods an unremarkable aspect of interpretive work, but a focus on methods (techniques for gathering and analysing data) often masks a full understanding of the relationship between method and inquiry purpose. The aim of attending carefully to the details, complexity, and situated meanings of the everyday life world can be achieved through a variety of methods. Although we may feel professionally compelled to use a special language for these procedures (e.g., participant observation, informant interviewing, archival research) at base, all interpretive inquirers watch, listen, ask, record, and examine. How those activities might best be defined and employed depends on the inquirer's purpose for doing the inquiry." (Schwandt, 1998, p. 222).

The fact remains that the type of method a researcher chooses determines the validity and reliability of both the study and the conclusions that emerge from that knowledge (Walliman, 2011).

This research employs three qualitatively driven methods regarding the case study. It places emphasis on the fact that by using a multi-method approach, it can acquire more holistic data that provide an insight into the complexity of the lived experiences of human beings particularly pertaining

to workplace setting and how that relates to employee productivity and performance. These qualitative methods consist of the use of primary data in the form of semi-structured interviews and secondary data derived from documentary evidence. The findings derived from both methods were analysed using thematic analysis for both the documents and the interviews. The reasoning behind this is that such approaches are useful in the exploration and identification of key themes or factors within a conceptual or interpretive setting. Moreover, in this research, the thematic analysis also served the purpose of finding complementarity between themes identified between KM frameworks and the PWE. This supported the argument for the representation of PWE factors in KM initiatives towards improving organisational practices that are essential to people and organisational performance and organisational learning.

3.3.4 Methodology

As earlier mentioned in the research paradigm section of this chapter, the methodological approach adopted in this research attempts to answer questions relating to the nature of the social reality that needs to be investigated (Hay, 2002). In terms of scope, this research is investigating from a constructivist/subjectivist epistemological perspective. This will be examined through a logical scientific enquiry which investigates the potentialities and limitations of the documentary analysis and case-study research techniques, using the thematic, framework and documentary analytical tools as captured in Table 3.1 above. The author supposes that these methodologies should be able to illustrate the subjective nature of the data being used.

3.3.4.1 Documentary Analysis

Documents are part of everyday life, used in all sorts of social processes (Jain et al., 2014). Their role is of particular interest in organisational research, given that they are deeply embedded in organisational life (Atkinson & Coffey, 2004). To fully understand the role

that policy documents and procedures play in the organisation, it is crucial to consider what their contents represent on one hand (Scott, 1990), and what their actual interpretation or connotations are within the organisation (Rapley, 2007). In organisational discourse, the use of documentary data is invaluable in the examination of the way businesses use language campaigns, through written policies and procedures, to construct a version of reality which disguise contradictions and influence power relations intra-organisationally, while improving competitive advantage from one organisation to another.

The fact that they are usually easily accessible makes them a cost-effective way of data gathering except for cases where there could be difficulties in getting access to documents based on non-disclosure by organisational management, which in retrospect adds some form of credibility to such documents protected by respective organisations as opposed to documentary data sources that are freely accessible. In spite of this possible shortcoming, documentary data can facilitate longitudinal research based on their historic nature over time (Yin, 2014).

Neuman and Celano (2001) explained that documentary evidence is applicable to all case-studies. As Yin (2014) explained, documents offer a stable source of data which can be reviewed repeatedly and are found to be non-obstructive. Documents are also able to identify the specificity of evidence which enables them to provide the exact details of an event, and in this case, the facts about organisational policies and procedures. Their broadness also facilitates access to information that has been produced over a long span of time under various settings, or in the case of this research, information on multiple organisational processes.

Unlike interviews, the documentary research method has not had as much attention among social research (Ahmed, 2010). Even though it is not a new method, its low usage among social scientists and association with historical approaches has resulted in it being marginalised or treated as more of a complementary method. This is because discussions about

research methods are often more focused on questionnaires and interviews as it pertains to the two main methodologies which are the quantitative and qualitative forms of analysis. Yet this oversight minimises the fact that the documentary research method is an equally good method (Mogalakwe, 2009). This type of method consists of analysing written documents that are either privately or publicly available and that contain “information about the phenomenon we wish to study” (Bailey, 1994 cited in Ahmed, 2010, p. 2). It can be described as producing secondary data as the materials already contain information that were created for a different audience (Yin, 2014).

Thus, according to Mogalakwe (2009), since they are naturally occurring, in order to acquire the best data from this source, it must be understood that documents of any type (including census publications, official business or government proceedings) are actually “socially situated products” (Ahmed, 2010, p. 2). That means they contribute to constructing a social reality about the phenomenon that the researcher is observing because every document is bounded within the political, social, cultural, and distinct time for which it was created (Yin, 2014). It has therefore been suggested that researchers must exercise caution when analysing to avoid misrepresentation of the evidence by searching for the right meaning (Mogalakwe, 2009).

The strength of this method nonetheless is that the documents are not biased in respect to how they were created, which means that researchers cannot be impartial towards either the authors of the documents or the subjects. This links with the previous statement that documents are not made with the researcher or their research in mind; so as noted in the work of Ahmed (2010, p. 10) “the data collection method itself generally does not change the data being collected”. However, criticisms levelled against this type of method have to do with the fact that researchers who choose this method are working with sources that were not made with the researcher’s goal in mind. In other words, they are working on pre-built reality. So as highlighted by Ahmed (2010) and

Mogalakwe (2009), commentators and academics who choose this method must handle documentary sources in the same manner and level of rigour that they use in other methods such as questionnaires and interviews. Additionally, they should regularly engage in reflexivity to help remain impartial to the politics that surround documentary sources.

3.3.4.2 Case Study Research

A case study is said to “illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result” (Schramm, 1971). Yin (2003) described a case study as the investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context. It is a common research method in psychology which has been used in the contribution to knowledge about individuals, groups, and organisations and other related phenomena (Yin, 2014). However, as Stake (2005, p. 443) observed, ‘an interest’ in one specific case is not sufficient to establish case studies as a research method. Recognising this, Yin (2014) identified the exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case study types.

The three conditions to be met in order to use one of these types of case studies is informed by the type of research question posed, the extent of control a researcher has over actual behavioural events, and the degree of focus on contemporary as opposed to entirely historical events (Yin, 2012, 2014). Regarding questions posed, “what” questions can be used in an exploratory study, while “how” and “why” can be used in any of the three case study types. In the second condition, the case study can adopt direct observation and interviews as two sources of evidence. However, the unique strength of the case study method is its capacity to deal with a full variety of evidence, like documents, archival records, interviews, physical artefacts, and participant or direct observation (Marshall & Rossman, 2011) which differentiates a case study from a conventional historical study. Yin (2014, p. 105) noted that “these sources of evidence have their comparative strengths and weaknesses, with none of them having a complete advantage over the other, but rather complementing each other”.

As previously stated, qualitatively directed research emphasises understanding society through the lens of individuals and the perspective they take when attributing meaning to what goes on around them. It explores how such people react to action or lack of action, events and/or nothing happening, including interactions with people, or in the absence of people (Kumar, 2011). This is key because case studies are not always of a quantitative nature, but they can be qualitative too (Hesse-Biber, 2017; Yin, 2014). Accordingly, among the various qualitative methods, case studies have become prevalent both in investigating international businesses and in studying the subject of business, psychology and other social science subjects (Tsang, 2013; Yin, 2014); yet in the literature there is no defining concept of what case study research is (Hesse-Biber, 2017; Hyett et al., 2014; Kumar, 2011). This is problematic, especially for those seeking to define or describe what their case study research is all about. While, Yin (2009; 2014) classifies it as a method, Easton (2010) and Verschuren (2003, p. 122) states that case study research can encapsulate a methodology, a research paradigm or even a research design and so the term ‘case study’ can invariably be referred to as, consisting of “several different epistemological entities”.

Despite the ambiguousness that surrounds the term, a case study is still understood in regard to the sample size. It can involve single or multiple samples, where the instance is observed in detail (Hyett et al., 2014; Tsang, 2013). This facilitates understanding in an area by aiding researchers to explore processes and the dynamics of a subject or unit. The benefits of such an approach is that it endorses the use of multiple methods to strengthen the weight of the data that is being collected (Verschuren, 2003). What is more, it can be conducted in a highly flexible manner because “case studies may employ both deductive and inductive cycles of data collection” (Easton, 2010, p. 124). Crucially, this has made case study research more appealing to social scientists from a variety of fields since it permits the researcher to choose the most appropriate method for their research study, whilst helping them to achieve their desired, and/or intended, outcome

(Hyett et al., 2014). Through the work of thinkers such as Eisenhardt (1989) cited in Kelliher (2005) and Yin (2014) however, more emphasis has been placed on producing work that results in theory. This has led to more researchers choosing qualitative rather than quantitative methods of collection such as semi-structured interviews. This is shown in the work of writers such as Hesse-Biber (2017) who looks in detail at qualitatively driven case studies which simply refers to studies that are characterised by a "holistic, interpretative, and subjectivist approach" (Hesse-Biber, 2017, p. 220).

Interestingly, Jans and Dittrich (2008) who reviewed a set of published literature on case studies in business research, found that there is a difference between practice-oriented case studies and theory-oriented ones. Unlike Yin and Eisenhardt who claim that case studies should result in theory, Jans and Dittrich identified how most of the studies were really focused on practice-oriented results; meaning that while they may make use of theories, they did not seek to contribute to these theories. What they sought to do was to describe and illustrate the usefulness of these theories in relation to the specific companies or situation that were being studied (Jans & Dittrich, 2008). What this consisted of was describing the "design, implementation, and/or evaluation of some interventions." (Dul & Hak, 2008, p. 8). Likewise, the theory-oriented case studies were formulated as exploratory in the sense that they focused on building theory by exploring the cases or situations rather than testing those theories.

This research study is a practice-oriented single case study, as shown in Figure 3.1. It contextualises the case study as a qualitative methodology. In other words, the research investigates the degree of relationship between KM and psychosocial risk management (PRM) within the business setting, by specifically assessing a manufacturing multi-national company in Nigeria through in-depth semi-structured interviews, and the examination of official business documents. Ultimately, the objective is to determine how both KM and PRM can be mutually beneficial

to each other through the incorporation of PWE factors in the organisation's KM work practices to foster people and organisational performance, and learning.

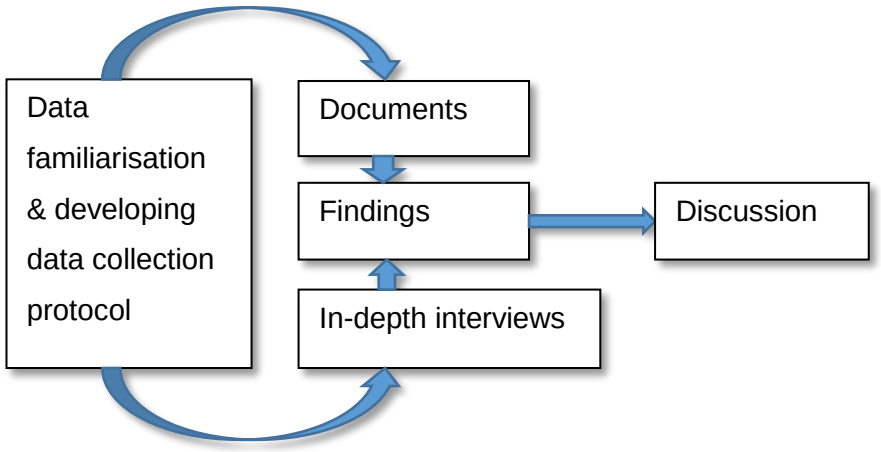


Figure 3.1: Case study methodology

3.4 Data sources

Using a case-study approach, data was collected via the organisation's policies and procedures (secondary data) that are linked to employee organisation and management. Another set of data was collected through the semi-structured interview approach. The following sections explains these data sources in more detail as well as their advantages and limitations regarding this research.

3.4.1 Documentary evidence

Policies are captured and expressed through texts, practices, symbols and discourses that define and deliver values that could have positive or negative attributes (Schneider & Ingram, 1997) from time to time. These policies are not static even when they are imbedded in laws and regulations, but rather continually change based on policy decisions made by people implementing them.

Notwithstanding, from a social science standpoint, the focus of this research is to adopt a policy analysis approach in scrutinising the contributions of organisational policy towards examining whether psychosocial work and work environment factors are appropriately represented in modern KM initiatives with the aim to fostering people and organisational performance, and organisational learning. Furthermore, the research will investigate organisational practices, drivers and barriers that may affect effective implementation of policies. This analysis will form part of the framework that will include key policy-related factors that are critical to the promotion of people, organisational performance and organisational learning.

On this basis, this research has identified and extracted documents that addresses people practices, organisational learning and performance, and management from the standpoint of managers. This will enable the investigation and recognition of people-related themes that are considered important by the organisation. The twelve policies adopted all addresses various targets and expectations of the organisation in terms of the people that will work or are working within it. For instance, some policies focus on getting the 'right' people (policy 1); measuring and improving employee performance (policies 2 – 5, 8, 9); employee well-being (policies 5 – 7); career development and role clarity (policies 10 – 11); and resolving social issues within the organisation (policy 12) (see Table 6.1).

These policies will allow an evaluation which is high on people orientation by assessing probable practical constraints that policy practitioners could encounter while implementing policies that directly impact on people, and how employees might be affected positively or otherwise. Despite Weimer and Vining's (1992) statement that policy analysis has little academic interest, this study would affirm that documentary analysis is necessary at an organisational level in order to fully determine the challenges that could be encountered by policy users in the

effective implementation of policy documents leading to the enhancement of knowledge usage by employees.

Therefore, to fully understand the importance of policies and procedures in shaping how work is organised and managed in the workplace and its influence on employees', a documentary data analysis gives clear meanings to aspects of policy documents and procedures which could be tailored to address the psychological, social and physical needs of employees.

3.4.2 Semi-structured interviews

Interviews are one of the most commonly used methods in qualitative research because it is understood that the ways of gaining access to people's understanding is to capture their talk (Seidman, 1998). This can literally mean their spoken words turned into text (e.g. interviews, focus groups) or include participants' words that were written down by them for themselves or others (e.g. content analysis). This method gives the most scope for the researcher to develop their ideas and speak more widely on the issues that need to be addressed further (Berg, 2008). The reason being that it is often argued, that the strength of conducting interviews, whether individually or in a group, is that it allows for the exploration of feelings, emotions and contradictions in greater depth, especially when a measure of honesty and openness is required (Seidman, 1998).

Interviews yield primary data also known as first-hand information and this can occur in three distinctly different ways: firstly, through the structured approach; secondly, the open-ended approach, and thirdly, the semi-structured approach. As highlighted by Gill et al. (2008), what distinguishes the three types of interviews is the rigidity of structured interviews and the extremely fluid style of open-ended interviews; comparatively semi-structured interviews are a hybrid of both structured and open-ended approaches in that though they are defined by key questions, there is still room for the interviewer as well as the interviewee to "pursue

an idea or response in more detail" (Gill et al., 2008, p. 291). Out of the three types of interviews, the semi-structured approach is deemed to be the best type because it employs a combination of both aspects of the other two types of interviews, giving researchers the space for optimum use and resulting in more comprehensively exploratory and focused data (Jamshed, 2014).

Specifically, the third study, presented in Chapter 6 focuses on investigating work designs and work environment to determine how knowledge is being gathered and used for people organisation and management, and organisational performance and learning by conducting semi-structured interviews. To this end, the study is based on 13 semi-structured interview questions (see Appendix 1) with managerial-level employees in a multi-national manufacturing company. Apart from face-to face interviews, there are other media through which interviews can be conducted such as telephone interview, video-conference, and e-mail or electronic/online interviews (Carr & Worth, 2001; Christman, 2009; Hunt & McHale, 2007; Morgan & Symon, 2004; Sears, Zhang, Wiesner, Hackett, & Yuan, 2013). In this research however, skype-based interviews and telephone interviews were used.

The decision to interview people in the managerial position within the organisation was due to their expert knowledge (Bogner, Littig, & Menz, 2009) in the activities and processes of the business, particularly as it relates to policy and procedure formulation and implementation. Experts have been described as "people who possess special knowledge of a social phenomenon which the interviewer is interested in, and expert interviews as a specific method for collecting data about this social phenomenon" (Gläser & Laudel, 2009, p. 117). Although the determination of an expert could be subject to the view of the researcher and the purpose of study, Meuser and Nagel (2009) indicated that an expert is someone who is accountable for the development, implementation or control of policies or initiatives, and

who has privileged access to information about groups of individuals or decision processes.

The features stated form the expert knowledge required by the researcher, hence the choice of managerial level participants for the interviews conducted. In order to facilitate the interaction between managers and the interviewer (Meuser & Nagel, 2009), the researcher adopted the open-ended or semi-structured approach to the interviews. This method was used because it allows the interviewer to structure questions in a flexible manner which allows further exploration of issues raised by the interviewee (Doody, 2013; Whiting, 2008).

Other than the advantages of semi-structured interviews mentioned at the beginning of this section, the approach is useful where the objective of the research is related to the understanding of values, attitudes, opinions, experiences and/or processes (Rowley, 2012). In line with Rowley's submissions, Stephens (2007) points out that semi-structured interviews equally avails the interviewer the chance to obtain a narrative of the experiences of the interviewee in ways that are comprehensible to them. Concerning this, the third study is particularly interested in the interpretation and opinion of managers in regard to organisational policies and procedures, and their actual implementation. Their view of how these policies align with work processes will also be looked into.

Furthermore, Rowley (2012) indicated that semi-structured interviews are more appropriate when there is little known about the subject, and secondly where the potential interviewees are more receptive. Although the concepts of KM and PRM already exist, there is no evidence of any research that has attempted to evaluate these concepts together, with the aim of establishing their complementarity, to improve their effectiveness in the workplace by promoting people and organisational performance. Also, employees were able to discuss freely and give their genuine opinions about various issues in line with the questions asked as a result of their knowledgeability and expertise in the research subject. Another advantage

is that these interviews were conducted over skype and by telephone. Telephone and Skype-based interviews are usually cheaper and quicker to conduct as they remove geographical limitations which facilitates easier access to participants who are in other locations (Stephens, 2007).

Despite these advantages, King (2004) identified four areas that need to be considered in the design, implementation and analysis of interviews. King noted that the development of an interview guide, conducting interviews, and analysing interview transcripts are all time-consuming activities for a researcher. More so, interviews are energy-consuming as well as time-consuming to the researcher and the interviewee respectively. This is the case because they involve a substantial level of concentration by the interviewer, and the length of time they take from the interviewee could also make recruiting participants a difficult task. In addition, the huge volume of data gathered via the interview approach could make analysis more complex.

Notwithstanding, Torres (2017) advocated that some key aspects should be considered to increase the quality of the interview data. The main areas identified were the interview guide and interviewer skills. According to Dilley (2000), developing a suitable interview guide can be advantageous to the interviewer in achieving good interaction with interviewees and in attaining satisfactory conclusions. To be able to effectively do this, it is pertinent for the researcher to have possessed the required expertise in the topic area in order to be able to ask informed and relevant questions (Qu & Dumay, 2011). The interview guide in the third study rigorously adopts the suggestions made earlier in regard to quality purposes. Developing the interview guide involved the considerations of relevant literature, and the initial insights provided by documentary evidence in the first part of study 3. The details of its development, the interviewees and the process of recruiting participants are presented in Chapter 6 .

The interview guide considered 4 main criteria in its developmental process as follows– (a) the limited and selective approach of African culture

towards sharing and use of knowledge and the negative perception towards raising issues relating to psychosocial risk - (b) an understanding of how work is organised and managed to determine how the work environment functions and operates through the eyes of practitioners considering the organisation do not have established KM or PRM programmes - (c) the differences in levels of experience and understanding of managers in policy interpretation and practice – and (d) the relativity of interview guide to the research objectives pre-determined.

In the first instance, the general African culture's preference for associating knowledgeability to authority and age rather than what an individual knows would typically suggest the repetitiveness of workplace errors which could be avoided where knowledge is readily transferable irrespective of its source. More importantly, the collectivist and conflict avoidance tendencies in African culture, and the high level of respect expected between people have made discussions on psychosocial issues difficult to address or resolve for individuals who may be exposed to it. This could also be a source of heightened hazard that could result to risks if not checked. Since KM and PRM are not readily known concepts by African managers, the interview guide was expressed in the terms understood by the participants to avoid misinterpretation.

The second consideration focuses on understanding the fundamental approach to the organisation and management of work towards a holistic exploration of practices that demonstrates the use of knowledge and psychosocial risk management by managers, and priorities for action at enterprise level. The third consideration informed the simple and logical presentation of the interview question and a semi-structure set-up which enables open-ended questions and opportunities for follow-up questions. The final reflexion on drawing up the interview question was a direct result of the research objective of this study.

3.5 Analytical approach

3.5.1 Thematic analysis

According to Braun and Clarke (2006, p. 79), thematic analysis can be defined as “a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data”. The flexibility and accessibility of the thematic analysis method have been suggested as the reason why it is suitable for qualitative data analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, 2012). Furthermore, Braun and Clarke (2012), and Tuckett (2005) referred to this approach as a way of iteratively identifying similarities in data, and making meaning out of its commonalities. For effective analysis, the commonalities should be associated to the specific topic or research question being analysed.

One major criticism of the thematic technique is that its guidelines are not sufficiently clear as a result of its flexibility. Smith and Frith (2011) indicated that the lack of clear guidelines could lead to data mis-interpretation, and the subjectivity and lack of transparency of findings. To counter this limitation, Braun and Clarke (2006) recommend a six-step process in conducting a thematic analysis. The authors describe these steps as follows:

1) Familiarisation: This phase involves getting immersed in the data from the moment it is collected, transcribed and read. The first set of ideas is noted at this stage to enable the next phase of analysis.
2) Initial code generation: The next phase is the production of preliminary codes from the data. These codes are generated to identify some explicit meaning or underlying features of the data which are relevant to the researcher.
3) Theme searching: This is the stage where different codes are organised into potential themes. Here, the use of tables and thematic maps is advised in order to categorise these codes into themes. These themes can be theory-driven, data-driven or both (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006) as is the case in this thesis.

4) Theme reviewing: This is the stage were initial themes are refined. The process involves a review of themes at the level of the coded data extracts, and in relation to the whole data set. This process also involves the classification of themes into primary or secondary themes/sub-themes (Aronson, 1994).
5) Theme defining and labelling: This is the stage where themes are “defined and refined” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 92) in spite of the preliminary names allocated to them in the previous stage. Themes are given names and definitions that capture their essential meaning.
6) Report: This phase of the process involves the final analysis and writing of the report by the researcher. The final document should explain the themes and data extracts that emerged, and this can be used as representative samples.

These steps were followed for the analysis of the theoretical data, documental data and interview data in Chapter 4 , Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 respectively. Further checks were carried out by the researcher through multiple reviews of themes to ensure that no potentially important data was left unprocessed.

3.5.2 Framework analysis

Richie and Spencer (1994) referred to framework analysis as a technique that was developed in the context of applied policy research. In addition, Srivastava and Thomson (2009) described it as a method presented in a matrix form that involves the creation of thematic groups into which data is coded. One significant feature of this approach is that it allows themes that are previously identified to be specified as coding categorisations, thereby allowing a combination with other themes that emerged from the data set (Dixon-Woods, 2011). Framework analysis is fundamental to the second study (Chapter 5) as a number of Knowledge Management (KM) frameworks had been identified in the literature, and were being compared against the existing psychosocial work environment dimensions by Leka, Jain, and Lerouge (2017).

Furthermore, a crucial element of framework analysis is its strategy for managing data (Spencer, Ritchie, & O'Connor, 2003) over similar techniques like thematic analysis. It allows a high level of transparency because documents included in the investigation are easily identified through analysis. The systematic analysis of data from preliminary data management through to the development of descriptive to explanatory interpretations (Smith & Frith, 2011), are interconnected stages within the framework analysis approach which explicitly describe the process.

In terms of framework analysis implementation, (Srivastava & Thomson, 2009) suggested five iterative phases:

1) Familiarisation: This is the initial data immersion and revision phase.
2) Identifying thematic framework: Themes or issues that arise from existing ideas which can be driven by the data set (Lacey & Luff, 2009) are identified.
3) Indexing: This phase addresses the identification of data sections that correspond to a specific theme. This is referred to as coding in qualitative data analysis (Swallow, Newton, & van Lottum, 2003).
4) Charting: This stage involves the arrangement of specific items of data that were indexed, in charts. These charts can be presented as theme-based charts or case-based charts.
5) Mapping and interpretation: This final stage involves the analysis where the nature of a phenomenon, concept definition, finding relationships within data, or provision or development of strategies are carried out (Richie & Spencer, 1994).

These five stages of framework analysis were followed in the analysis of documents. Also, validity checks were carried out by asking independent researchers to review the indexing and the actual complementarity of the themes in the final matrix established (see Chapter 5).

3.6 Assessing reliability and validity

Significantly, the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm allows for the study of unique cases making it suitable for case study research because the interest lies in studying actors within their context and drawing interpretations from that (Easton, 2010; Hesse-Biber, 2017). The problem however, is that criticisms are often levelled against the reliability, validity and generalisability of results that emerge from interpretivist research (Kelliher, 2005). Reliability which is one key component in any legitimate research is simply about consistency of a measure. It deals with the degree to which that measure involves error and so one way of achieving reliable results is through a technique called member checking where validation of the data and (potentially) the interpretation, is affirmed by the participants.

Moreover, the use of triangulation from an interpretivist perspective, is seen as a key strategy in counteracting any issues of reliability that may arise. The combination of sources helps to strengthen the research findings and notably, triangulation aids in producing believable, credible and trustworthy work by providing more than one perspective on a situation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). Likewise, it by default encourages the use of multiple methods to corroborate evidence; hence, why this case study research acquires data from both official documents and in-depth semi-structured interviews. Interpretivist research is thus all about the researcher starting with “a broad research question, establish systematic data collection to ensure case access to create strong triangulated measures” (Eisenhardt, 1989 cited in Kelliher, 2005, p. 123).

When we talk about validity, what we are looking at is whether what was meant to be tested or measured was achieved. This is understood about two groups of validity, which are: internal and external. It can be said that “internal validity refers to how the research findings match reality, while external validity refers to the extent to which the research findings can be replicated to other environments” (Pelissier, 2008, p. 12). Since this research study is a qualitative case study, it focuses on one issue/case in

detail and gives room for solid descriptive data to emerge. What this does, is that it allows for a broader understanding of meaning to the experiences that are being studied, which in this instance pertains to the positive influences of KM and PWE in the work environment.

For some (Berg, 2008; Creswell, 2003; Gillman, 2000) however, internal validity is difficult to achieve when using a qualitative approach. They suggest that exploring cases and individuals through qualitative means can result in varied findings that are subjective to each person and their experiences; thus, it can be argued that internal validity cannot be achieved when there are multiple realities at play (Berg, 2008). In addition, critics of this paradigm and by default, qualitative research approaches, claim that external validity is also hindered. This is because the findings that emerge are in and of themselves, unique to that person, group or event and so there are no criteria that can be clearly used when replicating in other environments and when producing similar results.

Nevertheless, the use of multiple source data fortifies validation because it establishes a chain of multiple evidence. Furthermore, transferability (or generalisability as it is also known) can be achieved through a 'thick' description of the research process. This allows the reader to see if the results can be transferred to a different setting and though it may not necessarily produce enough evidence for robust generalisations, it can still be used to discover the existence of a phenomenon (Kelliher, 2011). Equally, the benefit of this is that whatever inferences are made will assist the researcher to draw conclusions about society/culture or even institutions that "say something of something" (Walliman, 2000, p. 213). This does have its limitations though, as these claims cannot be said to be fully representative of all human experiences since human life is replete with layers of meaning which at times can be contradictory.

3.7 Ethical considerations

Prior to the accessing company documents and conducting interviews, participants received a research consent form, information sheet, and a copy of the interview questions. This was for participants to make an informed decision to take part in the study, while also providing them with adequate time for preparation and clarifications they might have. It is also to ensure consistency and reduce bias on the part of participants. To provide a true account of professional viewpoints and to avoid misinterpretation of data, interviews were audio recorded and transcribed with the participants' written consent. The University of Nottingham's Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences Research Ethics Committee granted ethical approval, prior to data collection, for this research.

As such, participants acknowledged their right to withdraw, and the fact that data would be audio recorded, remain anonymous, transcribed and used in a pre-identified manner for research. Participants were also assured of the confidentiality of the research data, by restricting access and storing them securely, in line with the GDPR (2018). In addition, this research recognises and fulfils the guidelines included in the British Psychological Society's Code of Ethics and Conduct (BPS, 2009), Code of Human Research Ethics (BPS, 2010), Ethics Guidelines for Internet-mediated Research (BPS, 2013), and the Chartered Association of Business Schools' Ethics Guide (CABS, 2015).

3.8 Reflections on implementation of research process and methodology

Qualitative research embodies honesty and openness. It encourages introspection and acknowledges that the researcher's biases, interests and values influence the interpretation of the data; hence the importance of reflexivity (Patton, 2002). What this means is that, by being aware of the problems of pre-figuring the field, researchers can maintain an openness to the situation they are investigating. Likewise, they can be attentive to issues

that are not expected or those that do not conform to existing accounts or theories of society.

The first obstacle I had to face in my research process involved understanding issues around work design, the psychosocial work environment and psychosocial risk management in scope and depth (see chapter 1). Comprehending the concept was initially tedious because of my background in general business administration as opposed to applied psychology. Therefore, I had to consciously acquire knowledge in a somewhat new field through reading and conversations with supervisors and colleagues. On the other hand, I had a quicker understanding of issues around knowledge management because the themes were relatable to my previous studies and experience. Having said this, the differences in the objectives of KM authors when identifying KM drivers made it difficult to carry out a systematic review of research on KM frameworks with a view to holistically derive the critical factors of KM initiatives (see chapter 2), hence, it was a tedious process (Pignone et al., 2005). However, this was achieved by an extensive review of the functions of diverse KM themes and their potential association to the objectives of PRM. This necessitated an in-depth understanding of the PWE factors too.

After getting a grasp of the PWE and a clear approach of identifying knowledge factors through definitive explanations within literature, the next hurdle I had to face was the complementarity between PWE and KM. I had to painstakingly describe the drivers of both PWE and KM without ambiguities to get the perfect match possible between related themes (see chapter 5). This was quite hard to achieve because of the tendency to forcefully find a link or connection between seemingly or otherwise unrelated themes between PWE and KM. I had to make a deliberate attempt not to fall into this trap. On the contrary, this could be a key area of discussion regarding differences in policy document objectives and their interpretation by practitioners. Notwithstanding, analysing a secondary data source (policy documents) provides the research with further credibility

which is devoid of the researcher's own bias. Furthermore, this research might be able to reconcile any observed misinterpretations caused by ambiguities in policy statements and the diverse interpretations by managers. Therefore, this might not be a problem in itself, but an additional option at addressing KM and PRM related issues.

Prior to evaluating the similarities between PWE and KM in Chapter 5 , I had to answer queries that have been raised around the research methodology and methods, and data sources and strategies for analysis (Holloway & Galvin (2017; Tsang, 2013; and Yin, 2009; 2014). One additional pattern emerged during the research process. This particular challenge was related to the interpretation of some contents of the company documents. The fact that these documents were produced for other purposes other than this research, made it difficult to relate the relevance of some of the contents of the documents reviewed (Chapter 6) to this research. In addition, there were differences in interpretations given to some policy contents by interviewed participants, thereby suggesting ambiguity in the policy content, or differences in interpretation of such policies by the participants (Chapter 6). Occasional ambiguity of statements also surfaced on my review of the policy documents. This could have vital implications for this research in terms of finding the intended meaning of some of the contents across various company policies (Mogalakwe, 2009). Despite these possibilities, the research will demonstrate dependability through simple but extensive interview question administration to participants with room for multiple levels of follow-up questions to ensure that each question was exhaustively answered by the individual. While this might be time-taken, the rigor will ensure the ability of observing the same outcome or finding under similar circumstances (Guba, 1981). Although the interpretivist approach deals with human behaviour which is continuously variable, contextual, and subject to various interpretations of reality which makes it impossible to reproduce exactly the same result. However, this research has ensured that the inferences and interpretations are based on

the researcher's ability and skills to make sure that findings in this research emerged from the data gathered and analysed for this research.

Furthermore, the level of subjectivity or objectivity in the individual responses of interviewees to questions could be linked to a variety of reasons ranging from interest in the topic, degree of knowledge about the topic, level of bias on the subject matter and so forth. This could inform the participants' views on the success of various work processes (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Lin, 2013). This is an aspect of my research where I should ensure that I look beyond the verbal responses from participants, but also investigate how their tacit knowledge, experience, and decision-making powers may have informed what they say or know. More importantly, I found that the scope of knowledge between individual managers were sometimes vast even where they are on the same level with similar years of work experience. This gave me an impression that policy interpretation or the general approach to work organisation or management could be based on the ability/willingness of individuals to absorb and apply knowledge, or simply about competency.

The scenarios narrated in paragraphs two and three in this section gave me the opportunity to investigate and get the actual meaning of policy contents that are 'contestable' in terms of interpretation (Scott, 1990; Rapley, 2007). I was able to achieve this by seeking clarification from the individuals who designed and developed these policies for the organisation (HR managers and partners). Through this process a level of confirmability around the purpose and intention of specific policy documents was established prior to the use of such information in my research activity. Equally, I entertained the divergent views of a cross-section of managers from the six strategic business units and central unit in the organisation. This gave me a clearer overview of the gap that may exist between policy development and implementation, and how people interpret them. Furthermore, the interview transcripts also attest to the fact that the

research findings are the result of the experiences and views of the interview participants, rather than the preferences of the researcher.

If this is the case, then there is a need to have a platform where the development, interpretation, and application of various organisational work processes will be standardised without ambiguity. This may not necessarily deter individuals' opinion on diverse components of work processes, which is equally helpful in assessing a situation from multiple viewpoints. Rather, it will facilitate a consensus on the direction in which work processes should be heading towards to improve people and organisational performance and learning through user-friendly work initiatives.

Additional efforts were made in this thesis to ensure that participants answered the interview questions in an objective manner. This was facilitated by the quality of interview questions and the follow-up questions by the interviewer. All three studies adopted the qualitative technique to exhaustively evaluate all areas of KM and PWE towards the advancement of both concepts in the workplace. In this regard, KM themes were generated without taking the PWE dimensions into cognizance. This was done to facilitate an unbiased comparison with the pre-existing themes in the PWE dimension in study 2. The third study intended to investigate the success factors and drivers that ensures that people are well organised and managed to attain people and organisational learning and performance.

3.9 Conclusion

Methodology, methods, designs and philosophical paradigms are all key components in the make-up of a good research. They all help to guide the researcher to collect their data in a way that can facilitate understanding of the topic, event and/or the participatory group. Yet, it is important to note that every methodological approach has its advantages and disadvantages and so there are no guarantees of a perfect outcome. Whilst the debate surrounding quantitative, qualitative as well as mixed method approaches are ongoing; what remains however, is that the choice of method (or

approach) is based on what is most suited to the researchers' purpose and the data they seek to attain from the study. Hence the decision to conduct a qualitative case study research. Simply put, case study research, is about studying single instances or cases and this is deemed to be more highly effective when conducted in a qualitative manner. Crucially, it helps the researcher to observe real life events in a detailed and exploratory way; thereby producing rich descriptive data that give an insight into human society and its inner-workings. Therefore, in this thesis, the expectations of the employer, and the behaviours, feelings and experiences of those working in the organisation have been critically analysed through documents and explored through interviews as pertaining to themes identified in KM and the psychosocial work environment respectively. The results from using the methodological designs in this chapter are presented in Chapter 4 , Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 respectively.

Chapter 4 Knowledge management drivers and success factors in organisations: a focus on people and work systems

4.1 Introduction

As established in Chapter 2 , people form an essential aspect of Knowledge Management (KM) initiatives. More so, the growth in KM has enabled the selection, development and retention of employees who are highly skilled, with knowledge and capabilities, which are difficult to find within core employee ranks (van Buren, 2003). These skilled individuals have high short-term value due to the temporary nature of work prevalent in the current world of work (see Chapter 1). This has major implications for the way their skills are used, and their capabilities are imparted to others. Therefore, organisations' have realised the importance of managing these knowledge assets so that the knowledge obtained through these sources can be stored, shared and re-used (ISO, 2017; Kim & Hancer, 2010; Shrafat, 2018).

With 60 percent of employees in the UK being knowledge workers (Brinkley et al., 2009), there are clear indications that knowledge and technology which facilitate knowledge storage and learning, are the main conveyors of economic well-being (OECD, 1996; Malhotra, 2005). Today's workplace has knowledge imbedded in people's mind (tacit knowledge) and in various knowledge-based systems (explicit knowledge) (Nonaka & Toyama, 2015). These sources of knowledge give organisations multiple platforms to engage and learn about various perspectives to approach problems before choosing the most appropriate option to achieve performance and learning (Kumar et. al., 2013). People are therefore, an important knowledge resource for competitiveness in organisations due to their intellectual capital input and performance (Akhavan et al., 2009a; Paulin and Suneson, 2015; Singh and Kant, 2008; Snowden, 2000; Witherspoon et al., 2013).

On this premise, this chapter investigates key people organisation and management themes within KM frameworks. This study seeks to identify KM themes with a view to investigate how people and work systems influences KM processes and implementation. Furthermore, identification of KM drivers (attributes) within KM are investigated. Identified themes are then compared with those of psychosocial work environmental (PWE) dimensions (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) to determine the extent of complementarity between KM and PWE in Study 2 (Chapter 5). The exploration of these factors is crucial in evaluating the extent of overlap in people themes between KM and PWE. The outcome of this study will also provide a platform to address the complementarity between KM and the PWE dimensions (Chapter 5) with the aim of making an argument for the integration of both concepts in promoting people and organisational performance and learning.

Having considered KM's role at the centre of organisational operations, its sources, taxonomies and key considerations, whilst also acknowledging the role people and technology play within KM in Chapter 2, 109 KM frameworks were identified in the literature (see Appendix 3). The literature review process was conducted in light of the approaches proposed by Jesson et al, (2011). This involved the development of a research plan aimed to outline the scope and methodology of the review and the research selection criteria. The criteria for inclusion involved journal articles retrieved from highly rated KM journals such as Emerald Insight. The journals selected were not bound to a period because of the researcher's intention to take a holistic look at all data which addresses people's role in KM.

Also, the review captured data from a prosperous period for KM research (Ma & Yu, 2010) and beyond with emphasis on the last eighteen years (see Appendix 2) using a pragmatic approach. Criteria for exclusion were non-academic researches, journals published in other languages or databases. General keywords like knowledge management and knowledge management frameworks were used in database search.

Of these 28 KM frameworks are reviewed in this chapter, based on matching criteria to existing KM typologies, particularly those that were people and technology-driven. At least 75 percent of these articles were published in the Journal of Knowledge Management which is the oldest (Lambe, 2011) and highest ranked journal in the field (Bontis and Serenko, 2009). Other top cited journals in KM were also included. Furthermore, the selected KM frameworks focused on the coverage of key people roles in KM. These KM frameworks were gathered from research and practice. Therefore, the distribution of KM frameworks reviewed is spread across various fields (science, technology, consulting), sectors (private and public sectors) and standardisation body (International Organisation for Standardisation). This gives an opportunity to cast a wide net in search of the role people play within KM frameworks and how this affects work organisation and management.

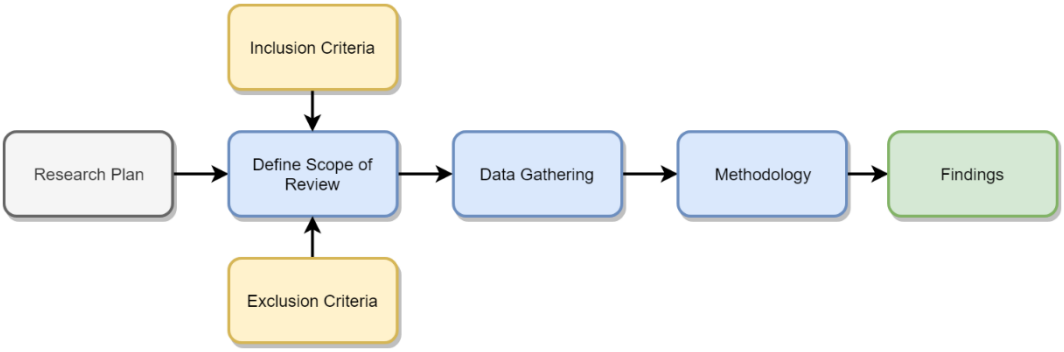


Figure 4.1: Flowchart for Study 1

The next section provides a detailed description of each of the 28 KM frameworks with a view to highlight their focus on people-related functions. This will further affirm the diverse influence of people on the success of KM initiatives. More importantly, it will provide a fundamental source of data for analysing the key people component of KM frameworks. This will be a fundamental contribution towards analysing the complementarity between KM and PRM in Study 2.

4.2 Review of knowledge management frameworks

4.2.1 AlShamsi and Ajal (2018) knowledge framework

The framework identifies organisational leadership (OL) as a factor in knowledge sharing and management. OL assumes the role of stimulating communication and collaboration to motivate people and build trust. This generates engagement in everyday performance and sets the appropriate environment for enabling and supporting knowledge sharing (Biloslavo, 2005). Secondly, organisational culture (OC) ensures the company's ability to obtain continually improved performance. Organisational strategy (OSY) reflects the company's ability to facilitate knowledge sharing (KS).

The framework (Figure 4.2) conveys Corporate Processes (CP) clearly and positively impact knowledge sharing. This was attributed to organisation's ability to transform and exploit knowledge which could determine its level of innovation. Organisational processes (OP) was recognised as a set of organisational resources that are aligned, organised and integrated around the core process of managing and disseminating knowledge (Hung et al., 2009). Employee engagement (EE) is viewed as the leadership's vision and strategic approach for knowledge distribution as a core process of the organisation.

The framework portrays organisational structure (OST) as being important for knowledge distribution. Technology infrastructure (TI) and human resource management (HRM) were determined to be important to knowledge sharing too. The authors suggested that data have become an important input and an organisation's ability to process and analyse data is central to empowering innovative ideas (Lee, 2016). More so, exploiting the increasing power of TI capabilities was regarded as a key factor for increasing the performance of the organisation.

On HRM the authors submitted that it is an effective approach that allows organisations to institute a strong connection between the key areas of HRM, such as training, decision-making, performance appraisal and

compensation and rewards with important areas of knowledge sharing, such as knowledge acquisition, documentation, transfer, creation and application (Yahya & Goh, 2002). However, some functions of HRM, such as communication, development, education and remuneration were found to be the main weaknesses in HRM processes (Mulolli et al., 2015).

Further analysis revealed a set of sub-factors that have a high impact in KM. The most impactful were decision-making and trust/integrity, which are sub-factors of organisational leadership (OL). Result outcome show that decision-making and trust/integrity sub-criteria were related to the role modelling that the organisation leadership (OL) exercises from top-to-bottom in a firm (Madu, 2012). The vision and mission sub-factor were regarded as foundational elements of the strategic planning process as they frame the entire structure for outlining the strategy, strategic actions and performance measures.

Teamwork was presented as a sub-factor to organisational culture (OC). Organisational Culture is expressed as a catalyst that enables the combining of skills and resources in a synergic process to obtain the expected outcomes (Biloslavo, 2005), hence, teamwork was expressed as an inherent part of OC. The framework indicate that financial performance was a sub-factor of corporate performance (CP) which aligns with the survey outcomes in a revenue-driven organisation in which the study was carried out.

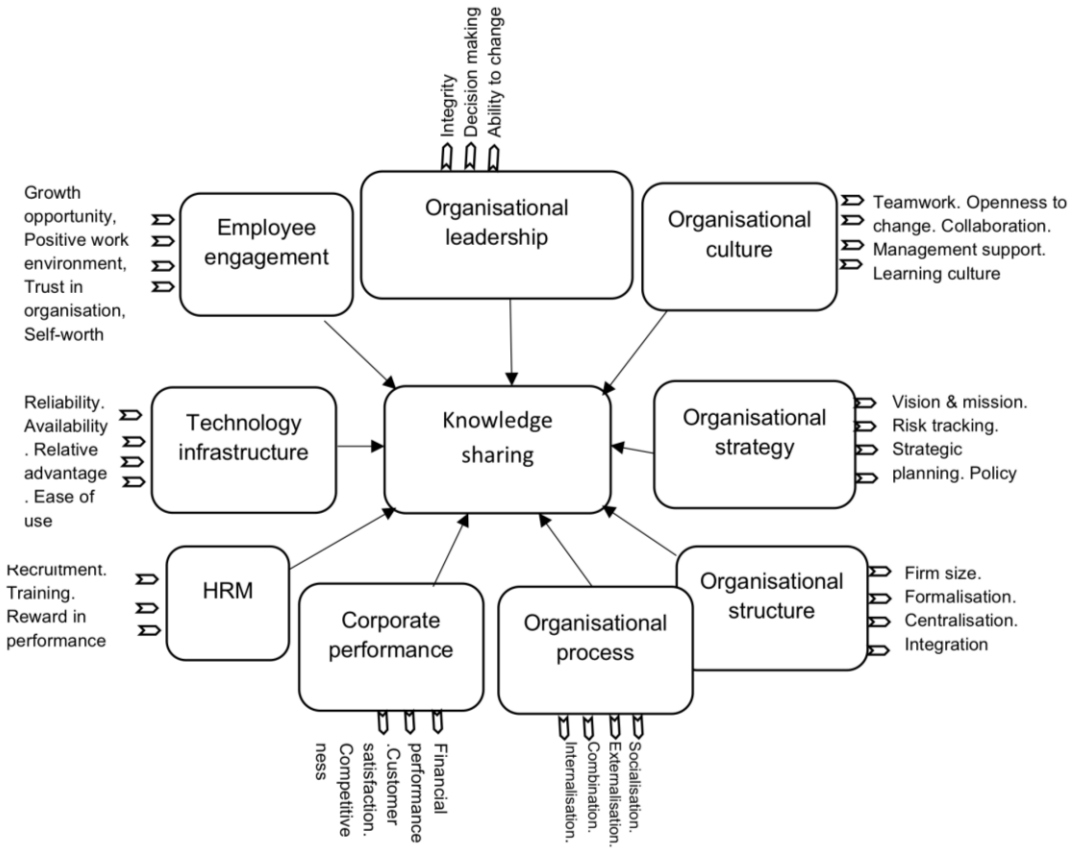


Figure 4.2: AlShamsi and Ajal (2018) knowledge framework

4.2.2 Shrafat (2018) KM model

Figure 4.3 showcases an understanding of the factors that influence KM Systems (KMS) adoption. In this framework, information technology (IT) capability and organisational culture (OC) significantly influence KMS adoption. Shrafat's framework suggest IT enhances KM capabilities. IT is considered as a critical KM infrastructural capability which encourages KMS adoption activities. Thus, greater familiarity with IT infers a higher level of knowledge to use in the operation of newer KM systems. The framework indicated that a culture of trust among employees positively influences KM acceptance. Shrafat's model demonstrate that KM capabilities like acquisition, conversion, application and protection, influence KMS acceptance. The framework affirmed that KM capabilities, through an increased emphasis on organisation learning (OL) enhances knowledge sharing thus strengthening the effect of KM capabilities on KMS adoption.

KM capabilities appear to work as an input, and OL is an outcome. Shrafat's finding show that KM capabilities influence OL.

To ensure the generation, accumulation and accessibility of employees to knowledge, Shrafat found that it is important to recognise that managers should inspire employees to generate and use knowledge effectively. The framework indicate that KM capabilities are important, and employees should consider the association between KM capabilities and KS as significant. Though KS was found to improve organisation learning, results indicated that there is adequate evidence to support the idea that there is a positive relationship between KS and OL (Rangachari, 2010). Similarly, knowledge sharing processes was found to increase the possible adoption of KMS by the organisation.

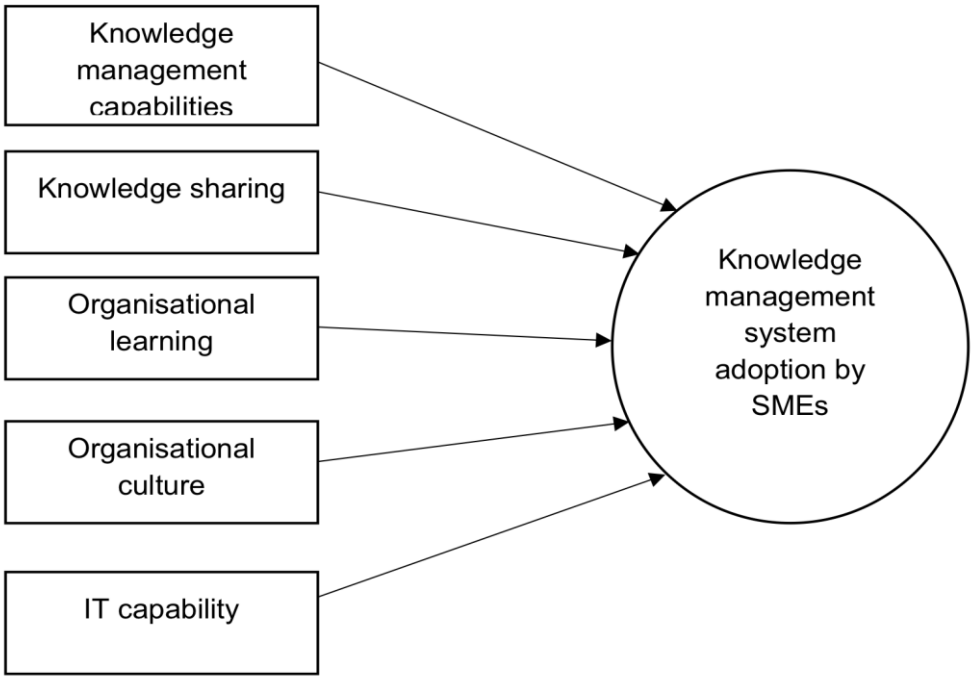


Figure 4.3: Shrafat (2018) KM model

4.2.3 Zaki and Soliman (2017) KM Research Framework

The framework (Figure 4.4) established that support of top management is imperative. Commitment of high-level managers means a better opportunity of higher resource allocation, and more allowance in

terms of time spent on the project. Also, authors presented organisational culture as criteria of social behaviour and integrated action. Their framework identified trust as a fundamental aspect of a culture of knowledge sharing. Alongside trust, new terms and collaborations also come into existence. Collaborative culture is required for knowledge transfer between individuals and groups to occur because knowledge transfer involves interaction, idea exchanges and knowledge sharing (Valmohammadi, 2010)**.**

Furthermore, the framework identifies a link between KM and information technology. It is generally accepted that databases, knowledge platforms and networks are the essential supporting blocks of KM. The framework also refers to the need for strategy. It advocates that a KM strategy should create an understanding of the organisation's knowledge resources and where they are located; clarify the role of knowledge in value creation and should comprise of several integrated projects or phases of activities planned over time (Zaki & Soliman, 2017). HR practices as a factor recognised KM training and education awareness are essential. Another HR practice was identified as reward and motivation. The authors categorised reward and motivation as social rewards, financial rewards, further security, and further opportunity/risk as motivator tools.

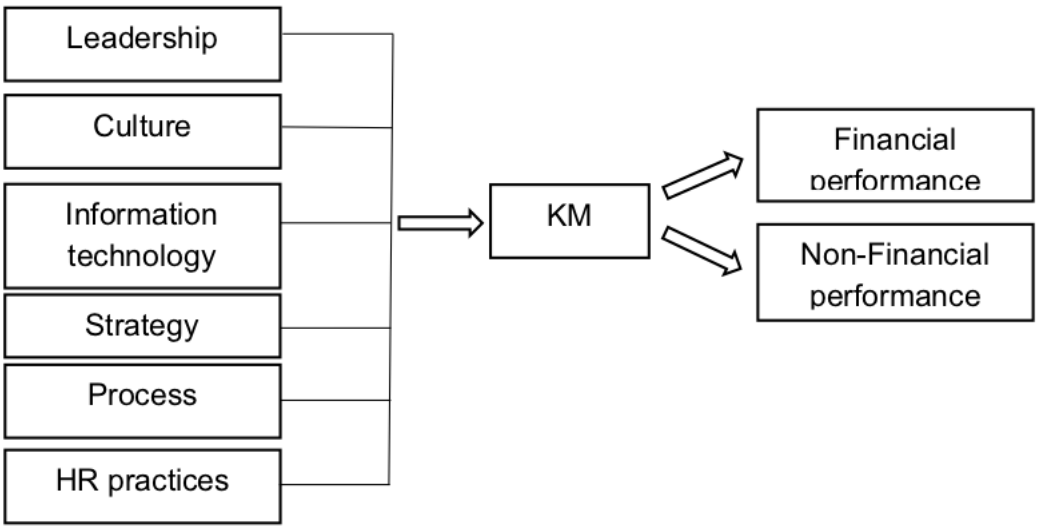


Figure 4.4: Zaki and Soliman (2017) KM Research Framework

4.2.4 Karami et al. (2015) framework

Figure 4.5 identified critical success factors (CSFs) for KM implementation. The framework CSFs of KM System implementation: organisational culture theme – includes teamwork culture, trust culture, knowledge sharing culture, participating in doing tasks and benchmarking; Human Resource Management theme – includes employee training, paying financial and non-financial rewards, taking advantage of special training departments, promotion opportunities, knowledge oriented evaluation, recruiting based on knowledge competencies and promotion based on knowledge competencies; goals and strategies theme – includes alignment with company strategies, top managers' support, proper budget allocation, employee empowerment and strategic knowledge management; information technology theme – includes system and user congruence, IT infrastructure, technological tools prevalence, IT and knowledge management congruence and information resource distribution networks; organisational factors theme – includes standard and flexible knowledge structure, knowledge management special team presence, knowledge of products and services and obtaining feedback from employees and customers.

Karami and colleagues stated that prioritisation of these main factors will assist organisations to regulate KM activities and provide guide for managing the five primary themes in better ways.

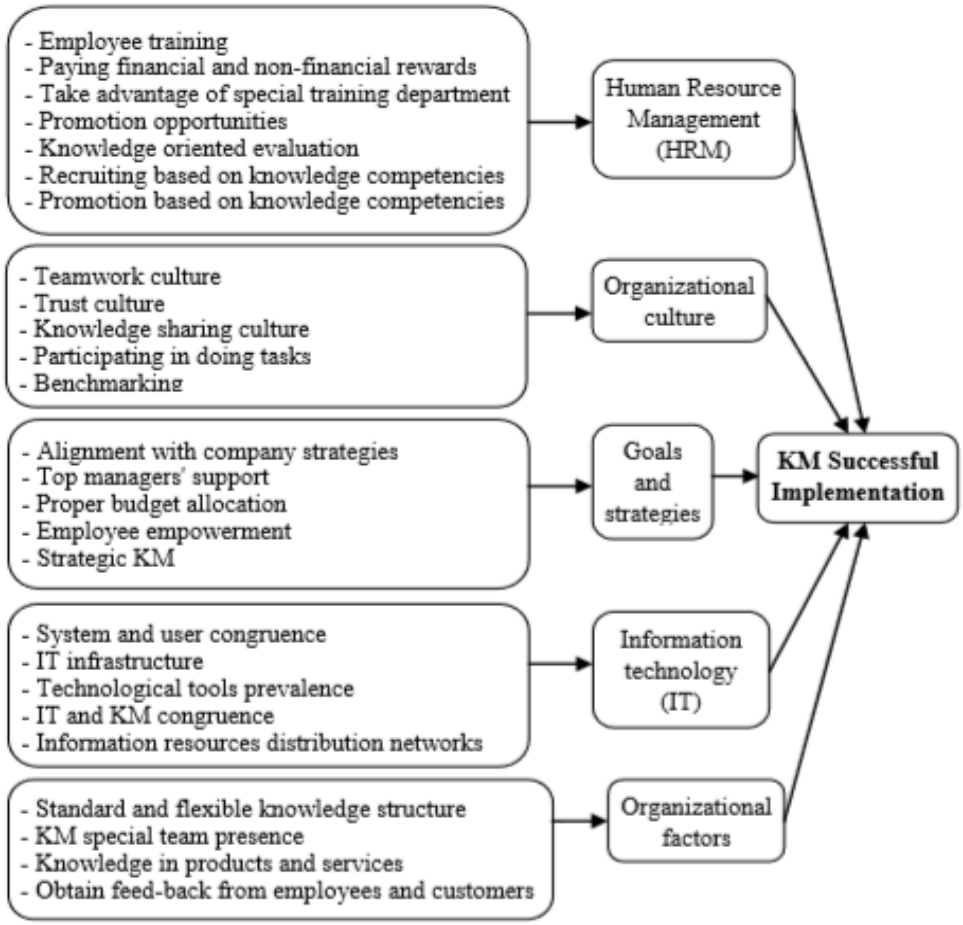


Figure 4.5: Proposed conceptual framework (Karami et. al., 2015)

4.2.5 Akhavan and Pezeshkan (2014) framework of Critical Failure Factors in KM

The framework (Figure 4.6) shows that preparation and infrastructure are fundamental stages in KM cycle on which the foundation of the KM process is built. The authors believe that the main decisions about the conditions and quality of the KM system are made at this stage. Furthermore, they claimed that developing required infrastructure such as those related to information technology can facilitate the implementation of KM initiatives.

The framework shows critical knowledge identification as a challenging task which will affect the organisation (Love et al., 2012). The authors are of the view that lack of sufficient involvement of workers in this

step may lead to weakness in identification of relevant and useful knowledge and can impose serious dangers on the KM process. Thus, the main threats at this stage are non-conformities between current systems and new systems, inappropriate knowledge structure which is formed initially in this step, weak usability of KM system whose architecture is prepared in collection step.

Knowledge organisation was explained as the step in which collected knowledge is structured and specialised to be utilised within the organisation. If the system developed in this stage does not conform to the current system, then the resulting conflict can be so confusing that users will eventually abandon the new system which will lead to the demise of the KM system.

The study found that sharing had the greatest number of failure factors. Behavioural and managerial issues such as KM-oriented culture, resistance against change, lack of conflict management, and reward system, most of which are related to the workers are potentially critical failure factors. The authors opined that, not paying enough attention to the employees, their needs, and the factors that affect them in relation to the KM process can jeopardise KM systems because the primary goal of the system is encouraging the knowledge workers to share their knowledge and use other co-workers' knowledge and experiences to accomplish the organisational goal more efficiently (Bhatti et al., 2011).

Finally, when KM system is not evaluated, and its shortcomings are not eliminated, Akhavan and Pezeshkan claim the system will become outdated and users will gradually ignore it. Their study established that not having plans for evaluating the result in this stage stems from the lack of top managers' commitment to KM. Lack of efficient strategy for development and rollout and neglecting the evaluation of the KM project result were identified as failure factors in this stage of KM cycle (Akhavan & Pezeshkan, 2014).

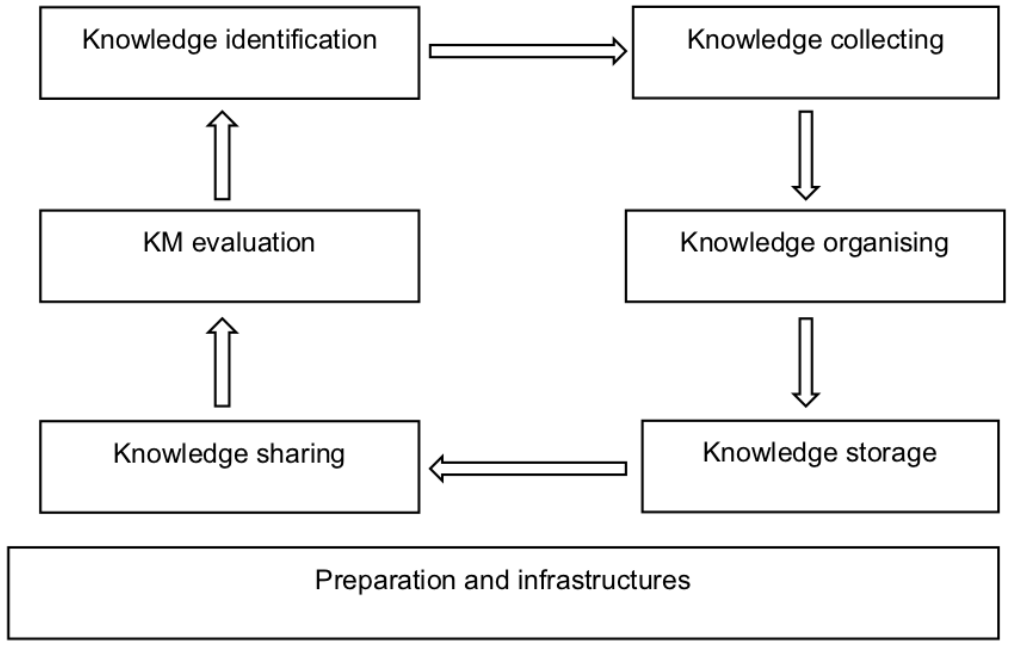


Figure 4.6: Akhavan and Pezeshkan (2014) framework of Critical Failure Factors in KM

4.2.6 Anggia (2013) KM implementation framework success factors

Anggia (2013) stated that the most important competitive advantage to any firm are its workforce remaining competent through continuous training and development (Figure 4.7). The framework indicate that training afforded employees and managers the skills and information to fulfil their responsibilities. Thus, timely and appropriate education and employee training were found to be one of the key success factors for KM implementation (Anggia, 2013). The framework indicate that HRM has several activities for employees on how to get benefits from implementing KM. These are said to impact on the culture of organisations were culture depends on humans so that people who are hired can share their knowledge within the organisation. Despite the advantages of information technology (IT) (Cristina 2009), finding by Anggia show that some individuals prefer the social approach to knowledge sharing more than the adoption of IT systems as a tool in achieving knowledge distribution.

The author identifies poor leadership quality as a threat to successful implementation of KM. To realise the potential of KM implementation, leaders in companies are advised to provide the appropriate environment to motivate employees to enable the creation, organisation and sharing of knowledge. Finally, Anggia considered organisational culture as a concept which is a key element of managing organisational change and renewal. The author believes that organisational culture is necessary for implementation of KM in organisations.

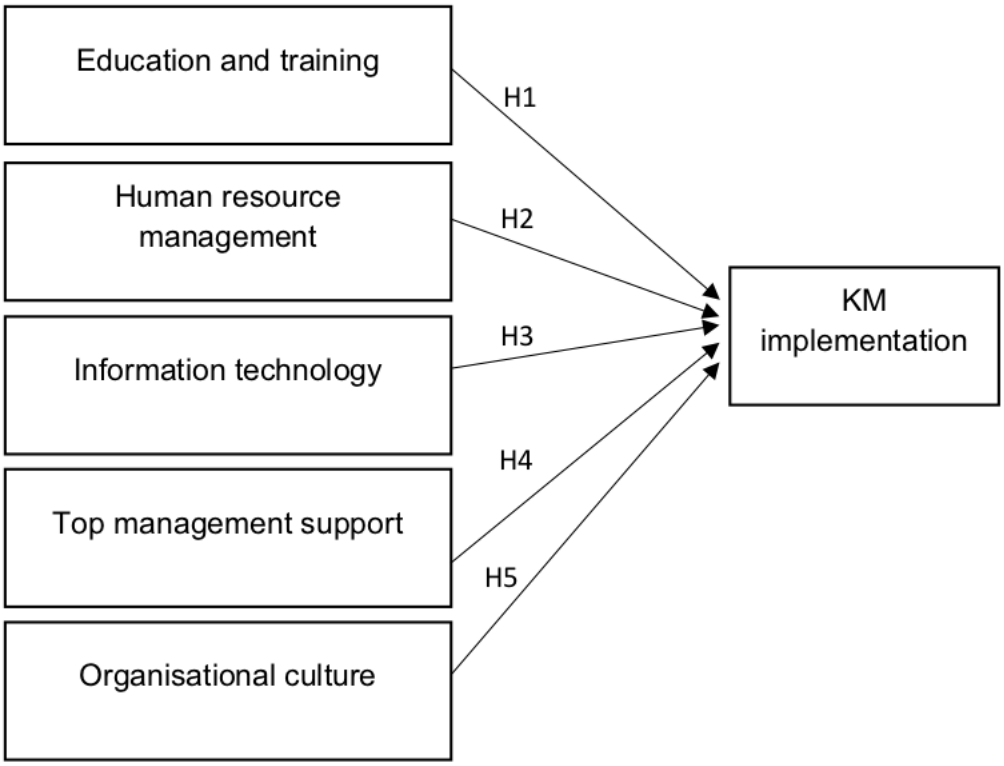


Figure 4.7: Anggia (2013) KM implementation framework success factors

4.2.7 Lin (2013) KM model

Lin's model (Figure 4.8) has five themes under organisational readiness as follows: top management involvement, organisational fit, technology resources, training resources, and project management resources. The study gave two reasons to justify the effects of top management involvement on the pre-and post-adoption of KMS. First, the most difficult and challenging KMS adoption related to the major changes

required in organisational processes and employee behaviours (Hester, 2011). Lin stated that these changes could meet resistance from various interest groups within the organisation unless there was absolute commitment from top management team (Grover et al, 1995). Secondly, top management cannot force employees to be pleased about adopting new innovations.

Visible top management involvement was found to have encouraged positive employee attitude towards KMS adoption (Kuo & Lee, 2011). Lin's model proposes top management involvement as a significant theme of organisational readiness which is positively related to KMS adoption or continuance intention. Additionally, greater fit between organisational needs and innovation initiatives was identified as preferable because it allows innovation to be interpreted in a more familiar context (Ilie et al, 2005). Thus, Lin suggested that when organisational fit of KMS is high, organisations become more likely to be positively predisposed to promote KMS adoption.

In line with Molla and Licker (2005), Lin argued that organisations with better resources are expected to increase managerial flexibility and stimulate business innovation initiatives. Study showed that the extent of efforts to introduce an IT innovation depends on complementary resources and existing technological resources, since firms that are already familiar with IT have a positive attitude towards further IT diffusion. Similarly, KMS was seen to be unlikely to become an integral part of corporate management processes and systems if firms lack necessary technological resources.

Regarding project management resources the framework considers it as a critical success factor for the various stages of technological innovation adoption. Appropriate project management ensures that KMS will be adopted on schedule, and that KMS is able to smoothly connect all aspects of an organisation. This suggested that technological, training, and project management resources are other significant themes of organisational readiness to be positively related to KMS adoption or

continuance intention. In sum, sound and thorough preparation via active top management involvement, high organisational fit, and sufficient technological, training, and project management resources helps ensure successful KMS adoption. At a higher level, organisational readiness is thus expected to drive organisation adoption or continuance of intention of KMS.

Also, expected benefits are recognised as a major driver of organisational innovation adoption (Lin, 2013). As more employees participate in KMS, the effects of KMS adoption may induce a two-way real-time knowledge exchange and help improve the ability of employees to search for and find knowledge related to task accomplishment (Ryan & Prybutok, 2001). In general, Lin surmised that when decision makers perceive the overall organisational benefits of KMS, they are more likely to encourage employees to use KMS.

The model also captured organisational learning capability to be a driver of organisational innovation adoption (Jimenez-Jimenez & Sanz-Valle, 2011). Organisational learning capability manifested in five related, yet distinct, facets. These facets encompass experimentation, risk taking, interaction with external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making (see Figure 4.9below). The study argues that organisational learning capability should have positive influences on KMS adoption intention for the following reasons. First, the study established that organisations with stronger learning capabilities are likely to have a higher level of pre-existing knowledge base that establishes a strong foundation to recognise the value of new information for KMS adoption and implementation (Lin, 2008; Teo et al, 2006). Secondly, an organisation committed to learning can increase its intention to adopt knowledge-intensive technological innovations because it is more likely to encourage knowledge exchange among employees (Nambisan & Wang, 2000).

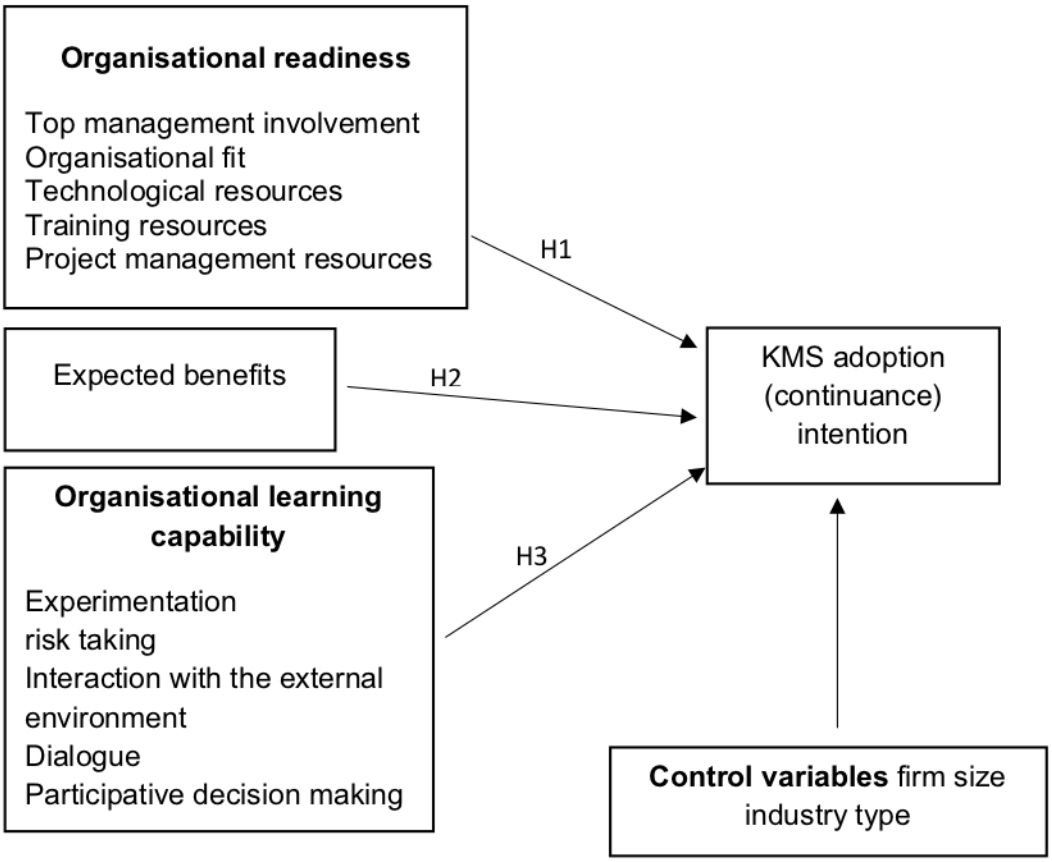


Figure 4.8: Lin (2013) KM model

4.2.8 Sharawy and Abdelghaffar (2017) KM framework

Figure 4.9 proposes a framework for assessing knowledge sharing intention and knowledge sharing behaviour among employees. It focuses on effects of technological advantage, community cohesiveness, and individual willingness on the knowledge sharing intention and knowledge sharing behaviour of employees using social software tools in their organisation. It also highlights the effect of technological advantage, community cohesiveness, and individual willingness on the knowledge sharing intention and knowledge sharing behaviour of employees using enterprise social network tools in their organisation.

The authors show that technological advantage had significantly positive effect on actual knowledge sharing. Additionally, the study established that environmental factors comprising community cohesiveness

and behavioural factors comprising individual willingness, sharing behaviour, sharing intention, and trust each had a significant positive effect on both the intention and the actual behaviour of knowledge sharing.

The framework advocated that a productive social environment must be fostered by striking a balance between organisational goals and individual user goals, monitored for appropriateness, and participation encouraged to develop and strengthen relationships among co-workers. Sharawy and colleagues suggested that one way to do this is to recognise those employees who exhibit individual willingness and recruit them as early adopters who will then encourage other employees.

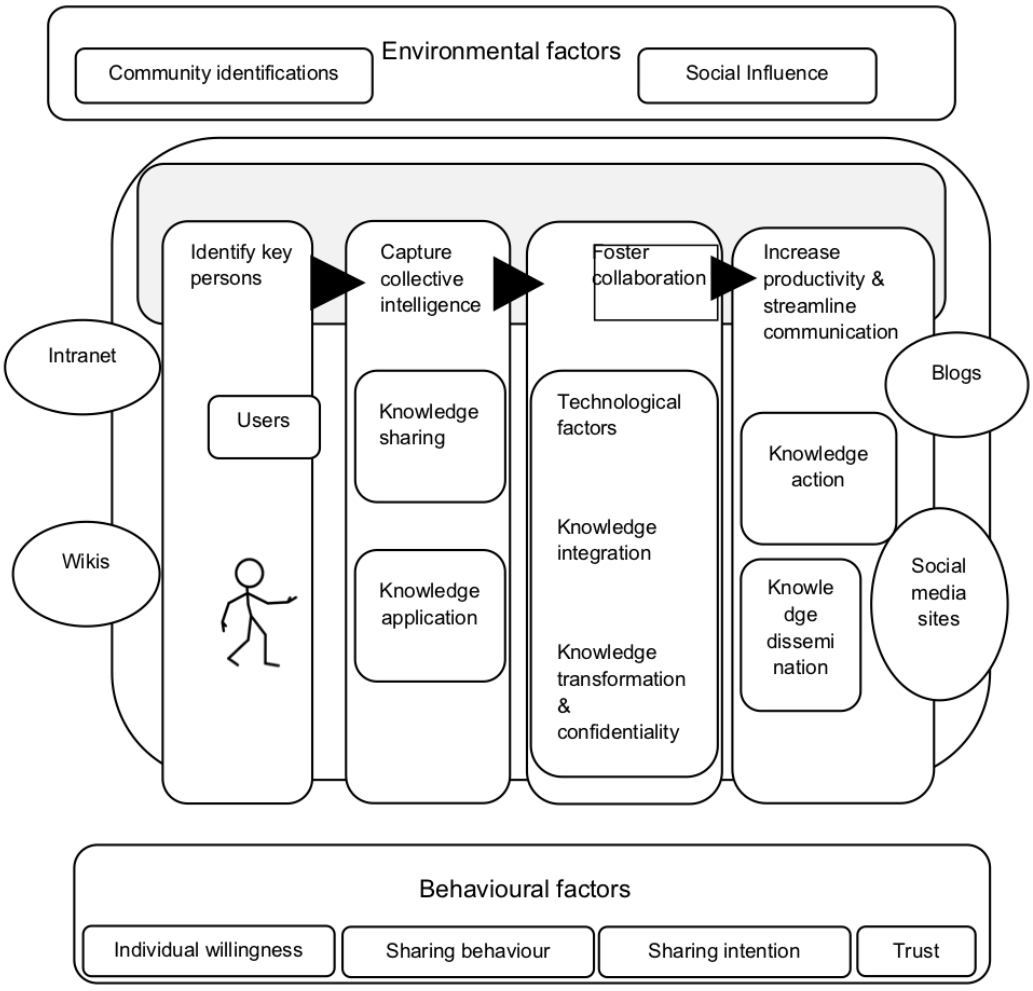


Figure 4.9: Sharawy and Abdelghaffar (2017) KM framework

4.2.9 Huang & Lai (2012) KM Model

Huang and Lai's (2012) framework show that KM encompasses a wide range of perspectives, and the successful implementation of KM is dependent on several critical factors as stated in Figure 4.10. The authors identified individual factors such as educational level, tenure and participation, as vital factors to predict KM adoption in organisations to integrate knowledge and to create organisational capability. The authors discussed technologies capture, store and distribution of structured knowledge for use by people. They indicated that technology can effectively integrate the previously fragmented flows of information and knowledge. Furthermore, Huang and Lai's research revealed that environments have significant effects on organisational characteristics. Environments and IT infrastructure were shown to have significant effect on KM characteristics. Whereas, KM characteristics have substantial effect on individual characteristics. On the other hand, individual characteristics, KM characteristics and organisational characteristics were all found to significantly influence the implementation of KM.

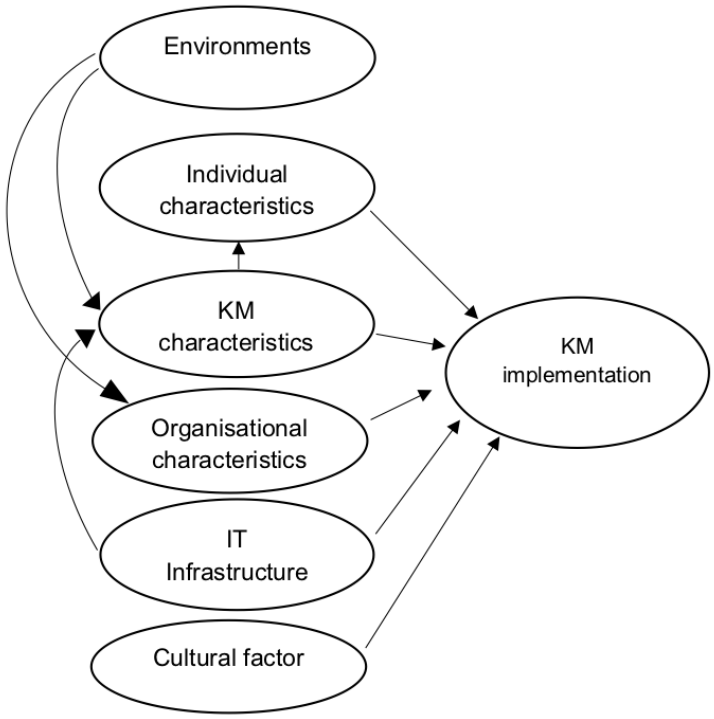


Figure 4.10: Huang & Lai (2012) KM Model

4.2.10 Jones (2009) KM framework

The KM model (Figure 4.11) shows that organisational culture is related to KM. Jones's research show that managers need to consider culture in the strategic planning of KM initiatives. The author is of the view that if managers understand their organisations' culture type, then they can consider the degree of fit needed between their company's KM initiatives and culture.

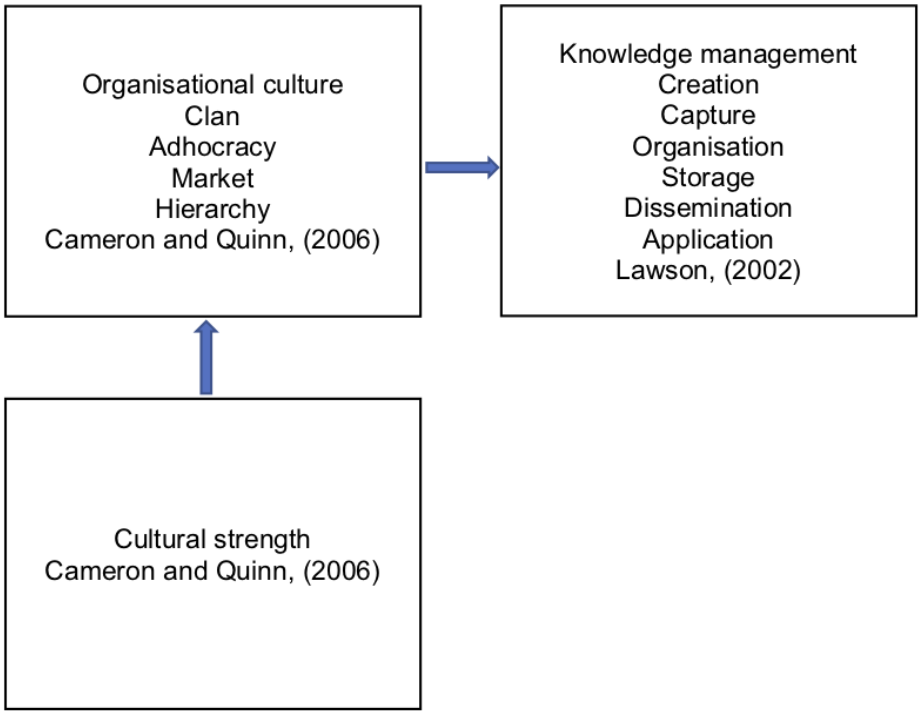


Figure 4.11: Jones (2009) KM framework

4.2.11 Chuang (2004) KM framework

According to Chuang's investigation, cultural factor is crucial for a firm's ability to manage its organisation effectively. The study affirm that employees play a crucial role in creating the right KM resource. It proposes that employees should be encouraged to be involved in product innovation since they have the knowledge in their heads. There was a demonstration of a positive relationship between human KM resource, structural KM resource, and cultural KM resource.

The framework also advocates for effective management of social KM resources that involves provision of organisational structure and culture that encourage and support employees to create continuous learning in organisation. It also proposes mechanisms that enable effective knowledge sharing and dissemination. The study show that technical KM resource provide the platform to launch KM applications faster.

4.2.12 Fugate et al.'s (2009) framework

The authors indicated that people are expected to collect and evaluate knowledge based on the usefulness of such knowledge to business decisions. They claim that knowledge generation involves the extent to which personnel can recognise and screen knowledge about the business environment they are involved in. Their framework (Figure 4.12Figure 4.11) also indicated that workers need to share knowledge in a timely manner within the organisation to ensure knowledge is properly disseminated. The authors stated that doing so will alleviate information overload and prevent other barriers to knowledge transfer (Luo et al., 2006; Szulanski, 1996). Furthermore, the study evidenced that effective knowledge dissemination is not merely about distributing large amount of information. It rather entails a selective distribution of knowledge to appropriate individuals and groups (Daft & Huber, 1987).

The authors also claimed that knowledge people should not hoard relevant and valuable knowledge as business environments are now dynamic and do change from time to time. Therefore, not transferring knowledge quickly will make the knowledge outdated and irrelevant (Day, 1994b; Garvin, 1993). Furthermore, the continuous scanning of the business environment was revealed to be vital to the timely capture and dissemination of knowledge. The authors claim that analysing information gathered enables people to determine who the appropriate recipient of knowledge should be, thus, facilitating effective knowledge dissemination. According to Fugate and colleagues, when people uncover demand and/or supply knowledge that may positively (or negatively) affect their business,

they feel it is their duty to tell others, so they can take advantage of that opportunity (or avoid a mistake).

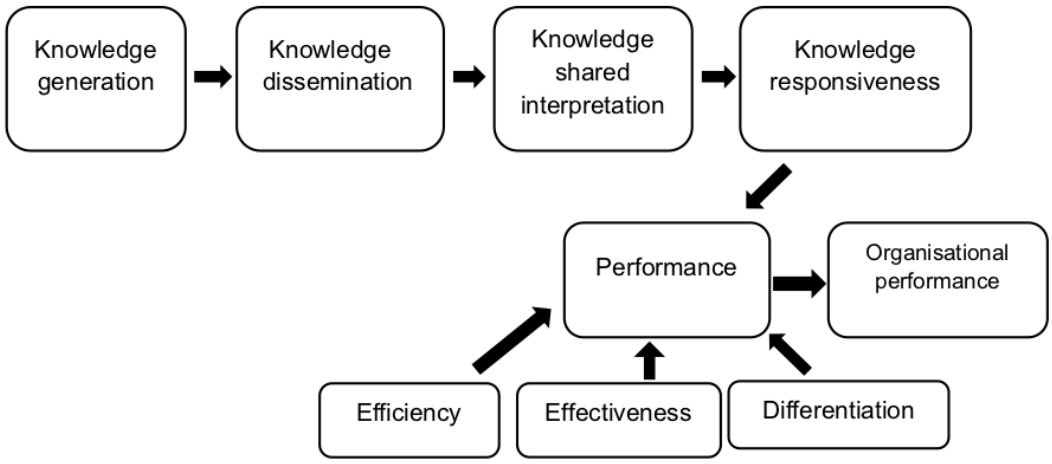


Figure 4.12: Fugate et al.'s (2009) framework

4.2.13 Gold & Malhotra (2001) KM capabilities and organisational effectiveness framework.

Gold and Malhotra, (2001) held that from the viewpoint of social resources, organisations create and disseminate knowledge through systems of relationships and standards. Figure 4.13 shows that technology, structure, and culture define the basis for the theoretical framework of social capital. The study also implied that process capabilities of acquisition, conversion, application, and protection form the functional perspective for the framework of knowledge mix and exchange that underlies the theory of knowledge integration. The authors claimed that firms that exhibit proficiency along themes of infrastructure and process elements will tend to be conducive to adopting knowledge-based capabilities that are key for organisational success. They stated that managers must first assess the underlying knowledge capability of the firm to leverage existing knowledge. Clearly, managers seeking to establish effective programmes of KM must balance both the content of organisational knowledge (tacit and explicit) and capabilities to leverage knowledge (infrastructure and process).

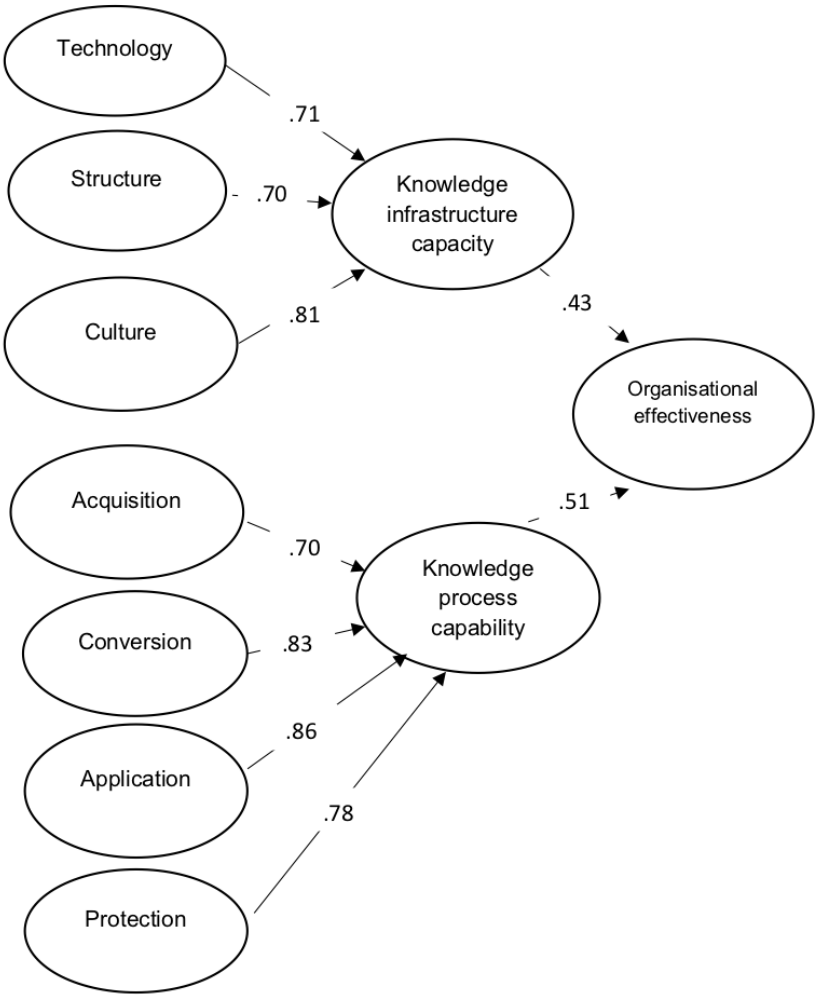


Figure 4.13: Gold and Malhotra (2001) KM capabilities and organisational effectiveness framework.

4.2.14 Handzic (2010) KM model

As Figure 4.14 depicts, the first set of confirmatory finding on knowledge process were leadership, culture, measurement and technology. Handzic advocated that management's recognition of the importance of KM to organisational strategy, organisational learning, and supporting existing competencies while creating new ones, and the development of human resource plans and reward schemes can be attributed to positive leadership.

The author explains affirmative culture as collaborative climate that facilitates openness and trust. A culture that values creation is the main

objective of KM practices, and where there is flexibility and a desire to innovate and drive the learning process. Also, Handzic recognises that knowledge requires consistent measurement supported by an appropriate evaluation system that is connected to the organisation's performance outcomes. This will enable subsequent KM adjustments (Handzic, 2010).

Regarding technology, the author confirm that it was a significant knowledge enabler. This was explained in terms of the potential of technological infrastructure to facilitate knowledge processes by providing a platform for knowledge storage and sharing. In addition, the study outcomes show significant indirect effects of leadership on knowledge processes via culture, measurement and technology and of measurement via technology. The author portends that a possible explanation for such indirect leadership effect may be that a strong organisational leadership is necessary to recognise the need for further investment in suitable social environment with collaborative culture, adequate measurement systems and technological infrastructure to fully facilitate KM processes.

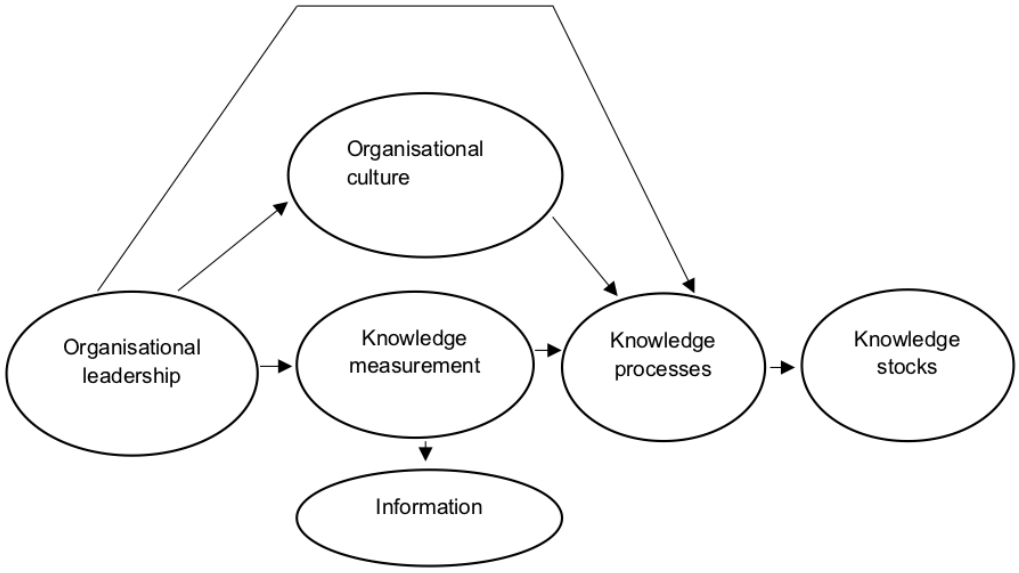


Figure 4.14: Handzic (2010) KM model

4.2.15 Kim and Hancer (2010) KM framework

The multiple regression results revealed that the significant KM resource inputs that affected organisational effectiveness were information technology, incentive, and a knowledge sharing culture. Information technology turned out to be the most important input followed by incentive and a knowledge sharing culture to improve organisational effectiveness. The study explained that this should link all employees to one another. Secondly, the study suggested that managers should clarify their incentive system and policy. It went on to explain that organisations should develop a well-designed incentive policy to motivate its best personnel, encouraging behaviours supportive of organisational objectives, process, and service improvements.

The study concludes that this would allow an organisation to improve its organisational effectiveness. The study recommended that the organisation should promote a climate of openness to create a knowledge sharing culture. It also revealed the importance of implementing a knowledge sharing culture, which requires a strong commitment from the organisation. After making a company mission statement regarding knowledge sharing culture, the manager must regularly monitor employees and evaluate their process.

4.2.16 Conley and Zheng (2009) Framework of organisational contextual factors influences KM

Conley and Zheng's (2009) framework (Figure 4.15) show that support of top management and leadership for formal organisational KM initiatives is crucial. They established that top management support also influences other factors critical to the success of KM, such as organisational culture, as top management is crucial in fostering trust and promoting a knowledge-sharing culture. The authors also identified organisational culture as a vital factor to an organisation's ability to create value through leveraging knowledge assets. They advocated that culture is often cited as one of the most difficult factors to achieve, as well as one of the biggest barriers to KM success.

The framework also captures strategy as an initiative that should be explained and communicated to members of an organisation by the human resource (HR) department to ensure that employees are able to link KM and organisational strategy. The authors believe that HR managers can use their knowledge and tools to help obtain buy-in and enhance motivation of employees in helping execute KM strategy. Through the development of a KM strategy focused on the organisation's most imperative needs, they indicated that HR professionals can deliver tangible value and increase their value proposition to the organisation.

Additionally, technology was identified as vital in enabling and facilitating many KM processes and initiatives. This is because the role of an organisation's technology infrastructure should be a tool in support of KM initiatives and not as the basis of the initiative itself. Consequently, the collaborative and communicative capabilities of an organisation's technology infrastructure is critical to the success of KM initiatives according to Conley and Zheng. The authors believe technology can enable HRM professionals to facilitate knowledge flow in their organisations more efficiently.

Furthermore, the framework recognises KM initiative factors which establish that processes must be in place to capture or facilitate the building and dissemination of organisational knowledge (Golet, 2006). Without such systematic processes in place, the authors claimed that the success of KM initiatives will be left to chance. Ultimately, they advised that HRM professionals' attention should also be drawn to shape KM processes with KM strategy, through working with the leadership team to explore ways to better connect processes and strategic directions.

Under KM initiative factors, Conley and Zheng mentioned the role of training and education in facilitating a successful KM programme. They elucidated on the need to educate all members of an organisation on what KM is, and the benefits from its adoption. Moreover, the authors claim that training and education should keep employees up-to-date on how they can contribute and take advantage of the tools and processes that are in place

to ease transfer of knowledge. Also, the framework identified that measurement provides milestones and benchmarks from which targets, goals, and improvements can be calculated. For a KM initiative, the authors suggested that measurement of a defined set of criteria is important as it allows those responsible for KM efforts to evaluate the impact of KM and provide evidence of value to top management and other stakeholders. The authors concluded that by measuring KM success in this way, organisations are in the position to demonstrate value to the business.

Finally, the KM framework suggested that incentivising knowledge-sharing behaviours should be done by integrating the desired behaviours within the organisation's performance and compensation system. Where this is the case, the authors found that organisations that recognised and offered both financial and non-financial incentives to employees that were of greater and lasting value have met with greater sustained participation and engagement in organisational KM initiatives.

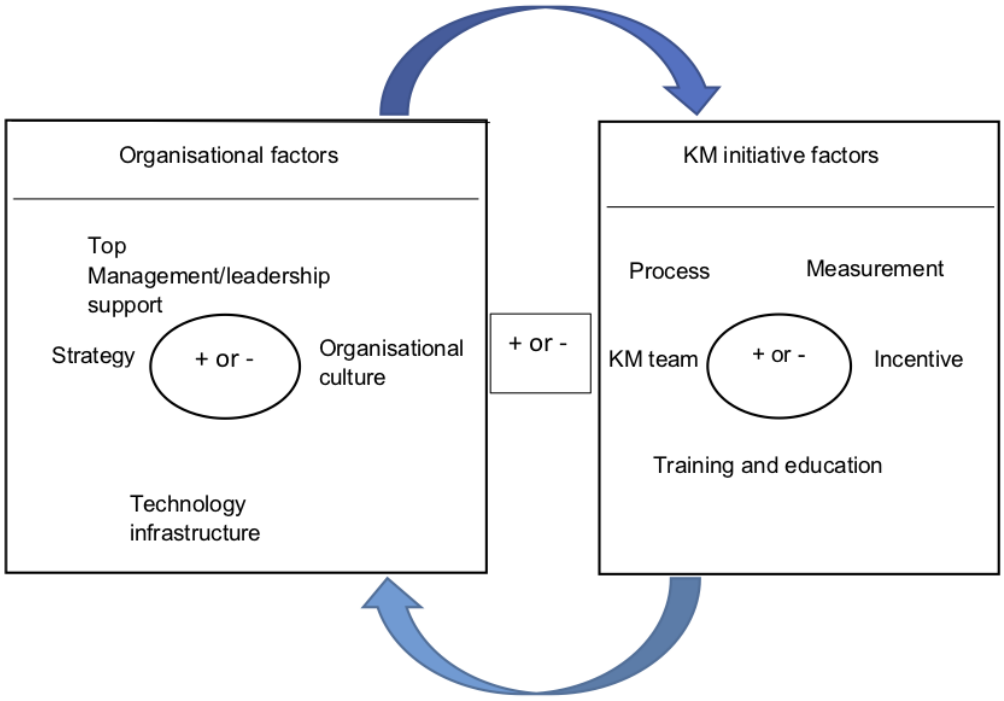


Figure 4.15: Conley and Zheng (2009) Framework of organisational contextual factors influences KM

4.2.17 Kulkarni (2006) KM Success model

Kulkarni's (2006) framework referred to measure of organisational support. Shown in Figure 4.16 the framework identified that organisational leadership can demonstrate commitment to KM by assuming the visible role of knowledge champions. These knowledge champions should spearhead the tasks of creating a KM strategy for the firm that includes setting goals, and emphasising the potential benefits of KM. According to findings, other important actions include instituting policies and procedures for rewards, recognition, and incentives, and promoting internalization of knowledge sharing and reuse practices.

In addition, the framework noted incentives and rewards as necessary factors behind KM success. It advocates that organisations must take note that incentives and rewards are required both to stimulate sharing of knowledge and use of the shared knowledge. Additionally, Kulkarni (2006) proposed that champions must enlist participation of supervisors in the initiatives to shape employee attitudes toward knowledge sharing. The author is of the viewpoint that as KM initiatives advances, their value to employees is likely to increase. The study established that attitudes and actions of supervisors and co-workers influence how knowledge sharing is perceived by employees.

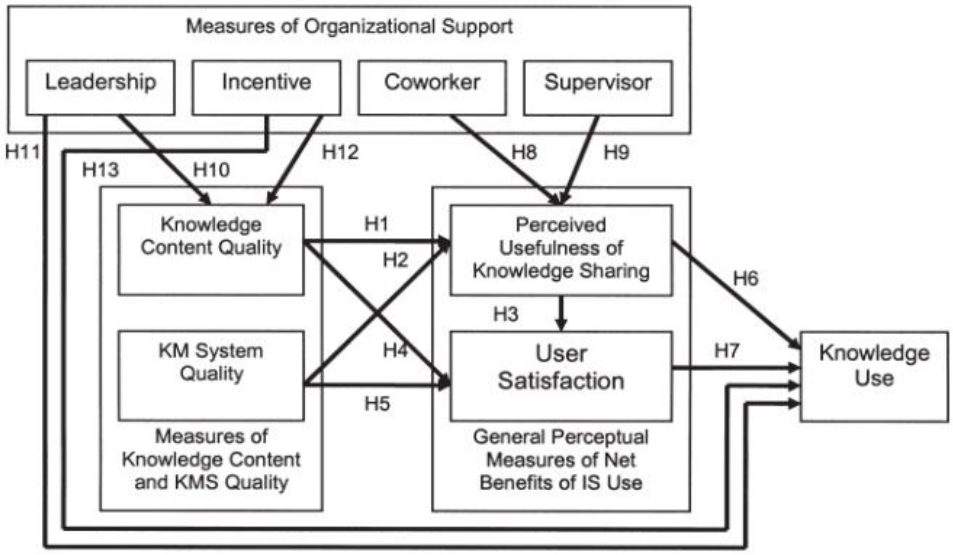


Figure 4.16: Kulkarni (2006) KM Success model

4.2.18 Lin (2007) KM Research model

Lin's framework indicated that both enjoyment in helping others and knowledge self-efficacy were strongly associated with employee willingness to share knowledge under individual factors (Figure 4.17) The author implied that employees who feel pleasure in sharing knowledge and helping others tend to be more motivated to donate and collect knowledge with colleagues. Additionally, the framework associates knowledge sharing to employees' sense of competence and confidence. That is, employees who believe in their ability to share organisationally useful knowledge tend to have stronger motivation to share knowledge with their colleagues.

Relating to organisational factors (Figure 4.17), top management support was found to be effective for employee willingness to both donate and collect knowledge with colleagues. The study identified that perceptions of top management encouragement of knowledge sharing influence employee willingness to share knowledge. On this basis, the framework recommended that management should recognise that organisational rewards only secure temporary compliance. To promote knowledge sharing activities, Lin suggested that top management facilitation of social interaction culture is more important than extrinsically motivated employees such as those motivated by monetary compensation.

Regarding the use of ICT, the framework submits that knowledge distribution cannot simply be achieved via online database or intranet. Lin suggested that investing in ICT alone is not enough to facilitate knowledge donation, because ICT can provide access to knowledge, but access is not the same as using or applying knowledge. Evidently, knowledge sharing involves social and human interaction alongside the use of ICT.

Finally, the results indicate that employee willingness to both donate and collect knowledge is significantly related to firm innovation capability (Figure 4.17). The study submit that innovation involves a broad process of knowledge sharing that enables the implementation of new ideas and processes.

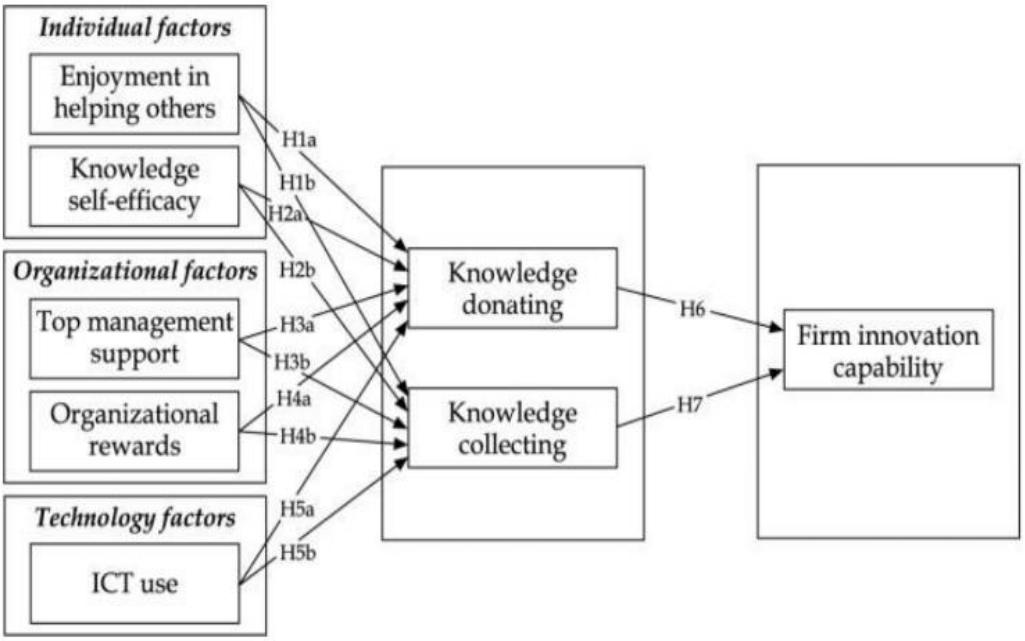


Figure 4.17: Lin (2007) KM Research model

4.2.19 Lindner and Wald (2011) Research model for explaining KM effectiveness

Lindner and Wald acknowledge the role of ICT. They are of the view that systems that facilitate communication between persons and systems for storage, search and retrieval of knowledge are important. The authors identified that the combination of ICT-systems for communication and storage can facilitate the transformation of tacit into explicit knowledge when it is accompanied by an adequate knowledge culture as shown in Figure 4.18. The authors concluded that the ICT infrastructure is a key factor of KM effectiveness in work environments.

However, their study recognises that ICT-systems alone are not sufficient for ensuring the exchange of knowledge because knowledge is often tacit and personalised. Instead, a positive set of values, attitudes, and expectations towards knowledge creates the willingness of individuals to share knowledge and to have trust in knowledge from other people. In their model, the authors advocated that knowledge culture is the most important factor for explaining KM-effectiveness. The support of informal communication, a tolerance towards mistakes, a positive project culture,

and the commitment of top management were all stated as contributors to the knowledge culture.

In addition, their research show that the commitment of top management for PKM activities has a direct impact on PKM-effectiveness but also indirectly influences the success of KM via the knowledge culture. Management commitment infers an appropriate resource advantage for KM but also creates the incentive for employees to participate in PKM. The study opined that management commitment also has a symbolical value for project team members as it legitimises the time and other resources devoted to KM. The framework also established that management commitment involves the setting up of a supportive and the delegation of responsibilities and authorities for PKM to the project leader organisation.

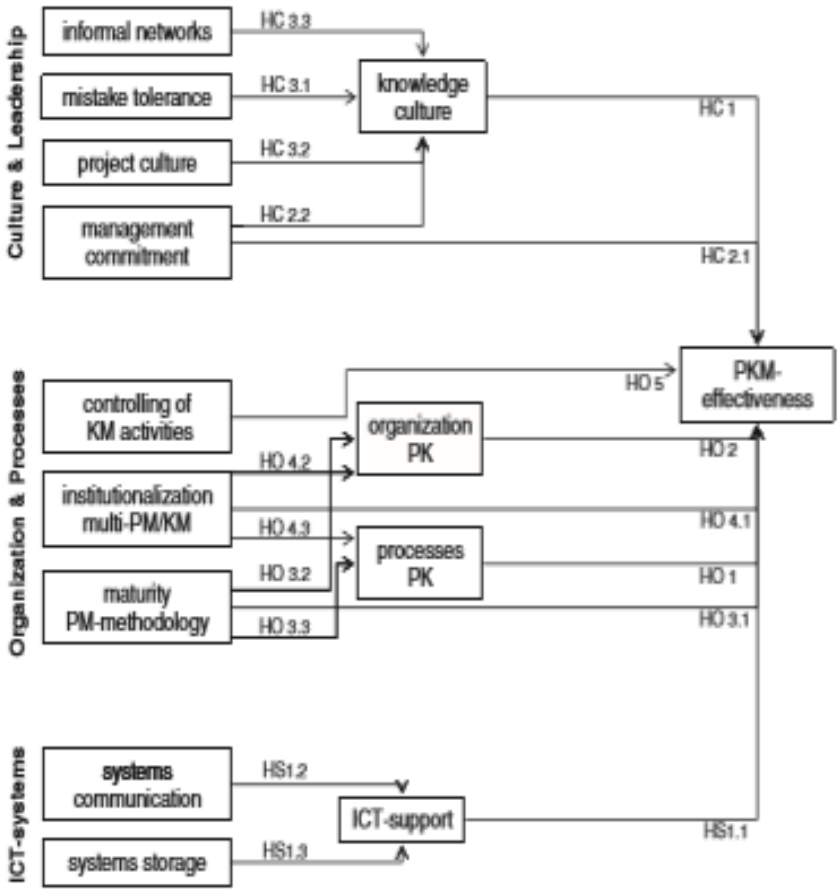


Figure 4.18: Lindner and Wald (2011) Research model for explaining KM effectiveness

4.2.20 Ndlela and du Toit (2001) KM Framework

Ndlela and du Toit's framework show that managing knowledge is very important to the success of the enterprise. They identified people as key to the implementation of KM programmes. Since, knowledge about business competencies, skills and capabilities was important and people are key enablers as knowledge resides in people's heads. Similarly, their framework noted that Information Systems (IS) are enablers to KM and for an enterprise to see its full benefits, it must see IS from a KM perspective. The authors acknowledged that (IS) is a channel for information to be exploited fully to realise its full potential. They stated that KM also requires leadership commitment to create an environment within which people can share knowledge and can assimilate as well as practice the knowledge gained.

4.2.21 Yahya and Goh (2002) framework

Their framework indicated that knowledge creation process requires interaction and involvement of people, technology and information. Their proposed framework hypothesises that if a company wants to become a knowledge organisation, it must start with quality training towards initiating organisational learning process leading to continuous improvement. Training related to creativity (empowerment and team building) were identified as significant in the facilitation of knowledge documentation, knowledge transfer, and knowledge creation.

Yahya and Goh affirmed that empowering people gives them a sense of power and authority, thus giving them more room to innovate and explore new possibilities. The authors argued in favour of team building training as it provides skills and techniques for effective cooperation and partnership among employees. The authors' submitted that the existence of these form of work environment are crucial in initiating the KM process, and thus promoting proactive acquisition of knowledge, and for subsequent knowledge documentation activity and knowledge transfer.

4.2.22 Alavi, et al. (2005) KM model

Their framework indicated that organisational values (Figure 4.19) influence the way in which they use KM technology. Alavi and colleague's analysis indicated that different patterns of KM tool usage have implications for which features of technology is most prominently in use. According to these authors, in conjunction with developing the objective of technical aspects of KM systems, managers must give close attention to developing the proper social environment to facilitate effective knowledge-related behaviours. According to the authors, this could include encouraging the use of KM features that facilitate social connections, engaging in periodic face-to-face community meetings to develop social capital, and identifying community leaders who value relationship-oriented values such as collaboration, caring, and support.

Furthermore, their framework suggested that the establishment of social ties is required before groups will effectively use KM tools for developing and accumulating intellectual capital. Also, cultural values were said to influence a firm's approaches to KM. Organisational culture was shown to have a more complex relationship to KM than has previously been thought. Alavi and colleagues submit that, not only does it influence such behaviours as knowledge sharing and seeking, but it influences technology selection and appropriation, the evolution of KM, the migration of knowledge within an organisation, the role of KM leaders, and the expected out-comes from KM use. Furthermore, this model suggests that individual and organisational KM outcomes may, over time, shape organisational and local values (Figure 4.19).

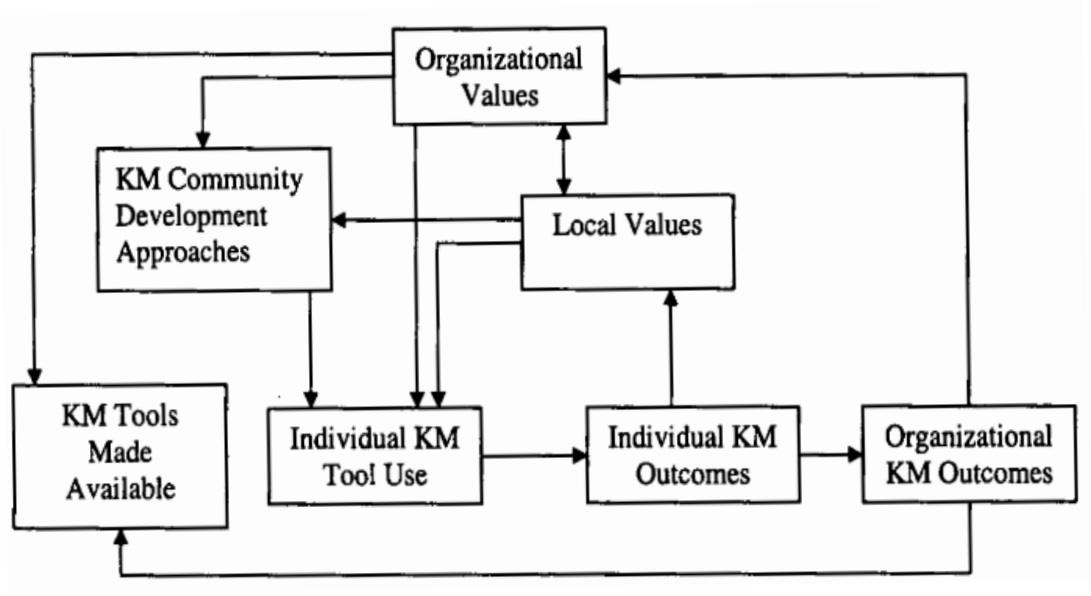


Figure 4.19: Alavi, et al. (2005) KM model

4.2.23 Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (2003) A generic KM implementation framework

The framework (Figure 4.20) referred to organisational culture and how the KM system affects it; the importance of aligning the KM system with the strategic and business goals of the organisation; commitment and involvement of senior management in the KM system and related KM efforts. The authors recognise the important role of technology in the development and use of the KM system. They submitted that KM may help improve communication and provide more informed knowledge to managers and teams. Through this means, project goals and objectives could be better articulated and shared among the team members. Equally important are the issues of the role of the manager in selection and recruitment, performance management, and the importance attached to individuals with requisite knowledge, competencies and wisdom as part of the wider intangible assets. The authors believe that KM plays an integral part of an organisation's human capital strategy to encompass the various types of knowledge from these individuals and organisations.

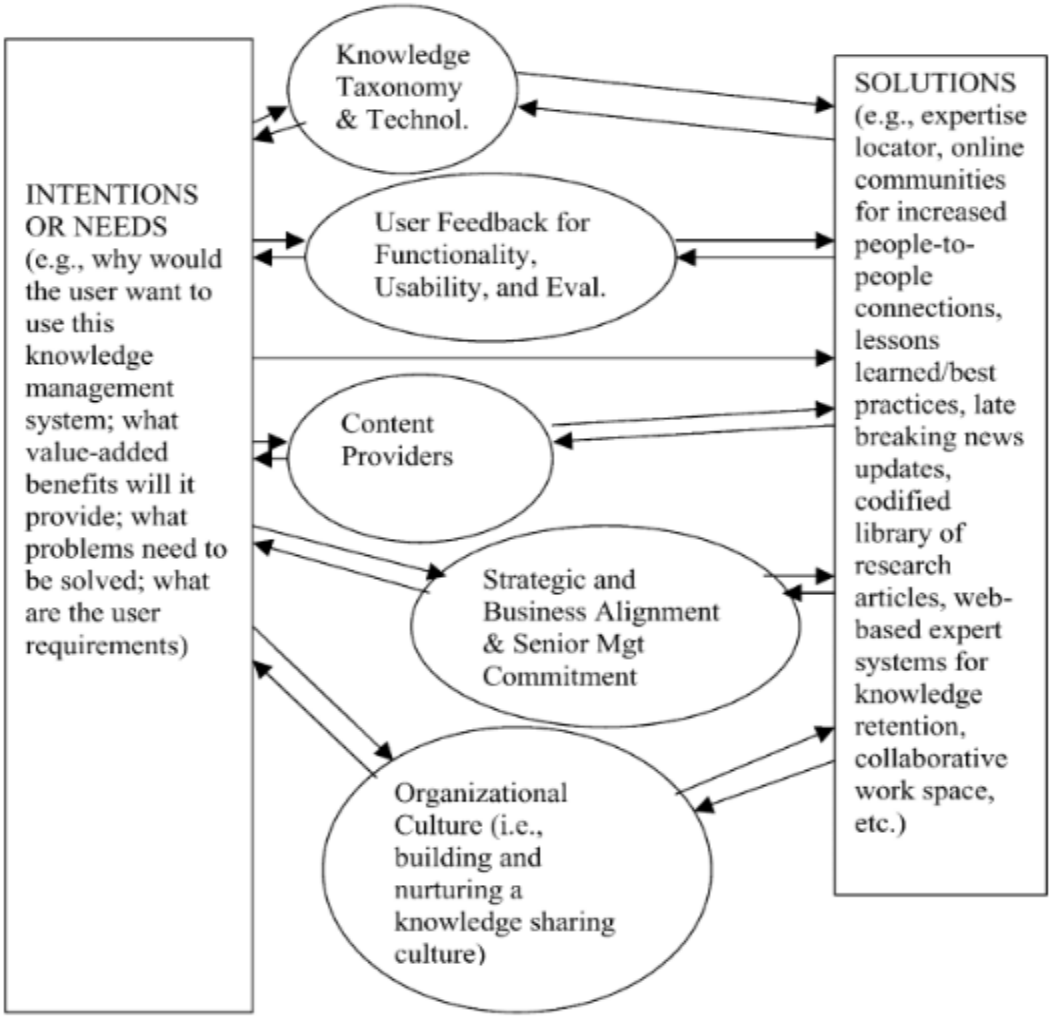


Figure 4.20: Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (2003) A generic KM implementation framework

4.2.24 Hsieh and Chen (2003) KM Critical Success Factors framework

Hsieh and Chen, (2003) signify several internal CSFs for KM, including company culture, support from top management, motivation of employees, reward for knowledge sharing, efficiency for mining the knowledge, as well as appropriate information technology (IT).

4.2.25 Goh (2002) An integrative framework

Based on Goh's framework (Figure 4.21), various key factors for an organisation to consider in developing effective knowledge transfer were identified. Leadership was identified as a key facilitator of knowledge transfer. This is due to its major influence on the culture of an organisation and its provision of the support required for knowledge sharing. The author also found that a culture that promotes problem-solving behaviours also drives knowledge sharing.

The framework equally identifies the need for support structures in the areas of technology, organisational design, training, skills development, and rewards. In Goh's viewpoint, investing in appropriate technology helps to support a change to a culture that promotes openness and accessibility to knowledge that is vital for problem solving. To achieve this, employees must be trained in the use of technology in order to maximise its potential to increase communication and knowledge sharing. Goh's framework advocated that organisation should be designed in a manner that encourages teamwork as formalised structures can either help or hinder knowledge transfer. The framework also lay emphasis on having a knowledge transfer process that ensures both the giver and recipient of knowledge have the knowledge base to learn and understand each other.

Finally, Goh stated that the organisation should tailor its knowledge transfer mechanisms and structured processes based on the relative frequency to which these processes are being used. In effect, the organisation need to establish a fit between the knowledge type and the KM system required to transfer it to other users.

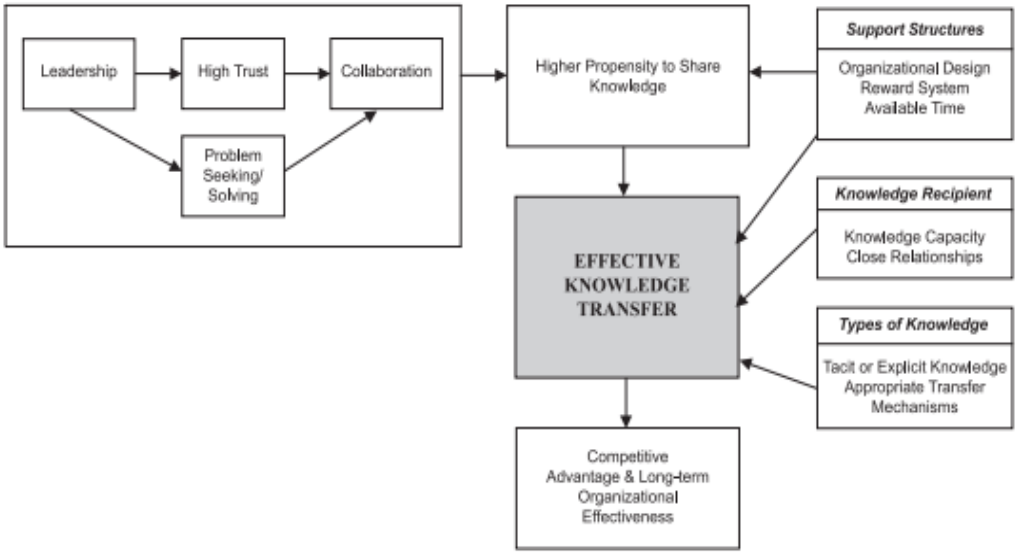


Figure 4.21: Goh (2002) An integrative framework

4.2.26 Nonaka et al. (2000) KM theoretical framework

Nonaka and colleagues identified that incentive systems can greatly affect the knowledge conversion rate. Nonaka et al., emphasised the importance of developing various incentive systems that motivate individuals to share their knowledge. However, such incentives can raise the cost of knowledge conversion. In their view, monetary compensation is not the only incentive for an individual. The self-satisfaction of being able to create something can also serve as a great incentive. Peer recognition and the sense of belonging were found to be important incentives for individuals to contribute to the organisation to which they belong.

The authors also referred to corporate culture and organisational routines that are specific to the firm. This can either promote or hinder organisational knowledge creation. They suggested that organisational culture determines how organisation members view the approach to knowledge and the knowledge-creating process, and how they interact with each other.

Finally, as the factor to integrate the above-mentioned factors, Nonaka and his colleagues stressed the importance of leadership. They

claim that leadership gives will and direction to the firm, which cannot be found in the market. They claim that leaders affect the knowledge conversion rate by creating the knowledge vision and fostering the organisational culture to create knowledge continuously and dynamically. Also, as knowledge is created through dynamic interactions among organisational members, synergistic interactions among top, middle and frontline knowledge practitioners were identified to be important. They argued that especially crucial to this process is the role of managers who are at the intersection of the vertical and horizontal flows of information within and across the company, and actively interact

4.2.27 Witherspoon et al. (2013) Antecedents of knowledge sharing framework

Witherspoon et al., (2013) discussed the role of intentions and attitudes concerning individual beliefs about the extent and value of one's knowledge and the positive feelings that result from its sharing. The framework also captures the four constructs within the intentions and attitudes category as shown in the (Figure 4.22). It includes the intention to share knowledge as a precursor in relation to a knowledge sharing (KS) behaviour. The authors suggested that KS is dependent on knowledge sharing behaviour intentions. They also identified that knowledge self-efficacy is derived from self-believe about one's competency and ability at a task. Therefore, increased level of knowledge self-belief should result in more knowledge sharing. It is assumed that a belief in one's knowledge value would foster the willingness to share knowledge.

The framework also acknowledges that intrinsic motivation to share knowledge is based on self-determination. Hence, intrinsic and internalised motivations to share knowledge is dependent on the degree to which participants enjoy helping others through KS. They indicated that the more internalised the individual's motivation to share knowledge, the more important (internalised) or engaging (intrinsic) that one considers KS, and the more likely that KS will result. Therefore, the more benefit the individual

perceives from sharing knowledge, the more likely the individual is to engage in KS (Witherspoon et. al. (2013).

Furthermore, the study established that organisational culture factors concerns environmental influences on KS that are embedded in, or influenced by, organisations. One of these factors was communication which refers to the nature and frequency of communications within an organisation. Social interaction theories argue that both nature and nurture influence language acquisition and transmission processes. Hence, organisations that facilitate communication processes can expect higher levels and higher-quality of knowledge sharing. The framework also suggested that theories that are concerned with participation investigate the extent to which participants believe they actively involved in decisions. Such theories generally contend that participation in decision making enhances the quantity and quality of KS (Kauffman et al., 2010).

Also, reference was made to social trust and social networks as important sub-factors concerning people's relations within the organisation. The authors claim that social trust measures the degree to which individuals believe that others are reliable, open, and honest. Consequently, the study surmises that higher levels of social trust and stronger social networks lead to higher levels of KS because these environmental conditions resonate with adaptive learned strategies among humans.

Additionally, the framework identified people with high levels of organisational commitment and their dedication to organisational goals. The authors submitted that this commitment makes these individuals more willing and likely to share knowledge that benefits the organisation. Still under organisational culture factor, KM resources and technology are viewed as vital support to KM and KS. Witherspoon and colleagues indicated that a greater availability of organisational resources facilitating KM should increase KS through a reduction in organisational barriers to sharing. They also stated that organisational support of KS was shown to measure people's belief concerning the magnitude to which management

promotes, and provides leadership for KS (King & Marks, 2008). The trust that management value KS is expected to increase KS among employees by increasing the confidence that the culture of the organisation promotes sharing.

On the reward to KS theme, the framework submitted that anticipated pay increase or promotion determine the degree to which participants believe that KS will lead to monetary rewards and/or promotions. The study mentioned reciprocal relationships which determines the extent to which participants believe that others will reciprocate a KS episode by sharing knowledge. The authors predicted that the more likely that other organisational actors are to reciprocate KS, the more likely an individual is to share knowledge. Finally, reputation building was found to measure the degree to which participants believe that KS will enhance their reputations (Buntrock, 2009; Wasko and Faraj, 2006). People who believe KS will enhance their reputation would be more willing to share knowledge, since they perceive that KS will enhance their social position or rank.



Figure 4.22: Witherspoon et al. (2013) Antecedents of knowledge sharing framework

4.2.28 International Organisation for Standardisation (2017)

The ISO (2017) identified the elements that should be included in an organisational knowledge management system to promote an effective KM system as follows:

Roles and accountabilities for users of the system, and people with defined accountabilities. Processes regarding business and knowledge activities, procedures, instructions, methods and measurement KPI's that an organisation applies and entrenches. The third factor identified was technology and infrastructure referring to digital channels, virtual and physical workspace and other tools. Governance was presented as another enabler because it provides strategy, expectations and means of ensuring the knowledge management system is working in alignment. Also, imbibing a KM culture across the organisation is seen to be critical for sustained application of KM. Therefore, the organisation need to demonstrate that organisational culture has been addressed to support the KM system.

The ISO (2017) advocate that top management should demonstrate leadership and commitment with respect to the KM system by: fostering organisational values which enhance trust; ensuring that the knowledge policy and knowledge objectives are established and are compatible with the strategic direction of the organisation; ensuring the incorporation of the KM system requirements into the organisations business processes; ensuring that the resources needed for the KM system are available; communicating the importance of effective KM and of conforming to, or exceeding, the KM system requirements; managing the process of change towards adoption and application of the KM system, and towards the cultivation of a culture that values, supports and enables KM; ensuring that the knowledge management system achieves its intended outcome(s); directing and supporting people to contribute to the effectiveness of the knowledge management system; promoting continual improvement of the KM system; supporting other relevant management roles to demonstrate their leadership as it applies to their areas of responsibility.

Furthermore, ISO (2017) also show the role of top management in establishing a knowledge policy that is appropriate to the purpose of the organisation; that provides a framework and guiding principles for setting, reviewing and achieving knowledge objectives; that satisfy applicable

requirements; that sets expectations for all staff with regard to the use of the knowledge management system and the cultivation of a culture that values knowledge; which includes a commitment to continual improvement of the knowledge management system; and that manages the balance between knowledge sharing and knowledge protection.

Finally, the organisation is also expected to provide resources such as finance, people, technology and management support which are required for the creation, implementation, monitoring and improvement of the KM system. An organisation is also expected to determine the competences of people working for it particularly as it affects knowledge management. Appropriate communication systems that are relevant to KM system have been identified as essential to the promotion of KM.

4.3 Method

This study uses a qualitative methodology. As discussed in Chapter 3, qualitative method enables a "systematic, in-depth and holistic investigation of any phenomenon" (Leko, 2014, p. 276). The qualitative method used in this chapter is the thematic analysis. This method has been chosen not only because it allows the collection, analysis and combination of data, but also allows the researcher to draw conclusions (Shadish, Cook & Campbell, 2002; Walliman, 2011).

4.3.1 Data generation

This study uses KM frameworks as documentary data for analysis (as detailed in Chapter 3 – section 3.3.4.1). To collect the documentary data, a literature review of KM frameworks cutting across various disciplines was carried out (Heisig, 2009). This was done to gain a wide perspective of the underlying concepts that are featured in a diverse range of knowledge-related frameworks. The main objective for evaluation of KM frameworks collated in this research is to identify all underlying themes with an intention to capture all essential drivers and success factors, as well as possible barriers.

A total of 109 KM frameworks was originally identified from journal articles, from academic platforms such as “Journal of Knowledge Management” website, the University of Nottingham e-library and other reliable academic websites. From these, 28 KM frameworks were selected for analysis. The selection of this sample was based on their coverage of all elements that represent those that were observed in the initial population of frameworks assessed. This selection affords the researcher the opportunity to examine these representative KM frameworks thoroughly in scope and depth. Table 4.1 presents these frameworks and an overview of their drivers where they are not included in a KM framework. To avoid duplication, it was deemed unnecessary to include frameworks that had the same content as those already identified. The scope of KM framework representation has not been limited to a specific time. This was done to extensively review all KM themes irrespective of how old or recent they might be, since the main objective is identifying KM drivers and success factors. KM frameworks which solely focused on information technology systems were excluded from the analysis.

Table 4.1: List of selected knowledge management frameworks reviewed

Code	Authors	Frameworks	KM Drivers
1	AlShamsi & Ajal, (2018)	Knowledge Sharing framework	Leadership: communication, collaboration, motivation, trust, engagement Culture: teamwork, strategy, structure, processes, technology, human resource
2	Shrafat, (2018)	The KM System framework	Information Technology, culture, processes, learning: capabilities, leadership
3	Zaki & Soliman, (2017)	KM Research Framework	Leadership Role: commitment, self-learning & organisational learning, Culture: act, communicate, hierarchy & control, processes, trust, collaboration. Strategy, technology, HR practices: training & education, reward, motivation, security
4	Karami, Alvani, Zare, & Kheirandish, (2015)	Conceptual Framework	Culture: teamwork, trust, knowledge sharing, participation & benchmarking; HRM: training, rewards, knowledge evaluation, recruitment based on competency; Goals & strategy: strategy alignment, leadership support, budget allocation, empowerment & strategic KM; IT: system & user congruence, information distribution networks; Organisational factors: standard & flexible structure, KM team presence
5	Akhavan & Pezeshkan 2014	Critical Failure Factors (CFF) in KM frameworks	Infrastructure: IT; KM team; Leadership: commitment & support; processes; employee involvement; knowledge structure; KM culture; change management; conflict management, reward system; HRM; strategy
6	Anggia, (2013)	Research Model for KM Implementation Success Factors	HR & Org. learning: education, training & development; HR Practice: planning, building relationships, health & safety standards, culture; Information Systems: KM processes; Leadership

7	Lin, (2013)	The KM research framework	Top management involvement: changes in processes & employee behaviour, commitment; organisational fit; technology resources; education & training resources; and project management resources; Learning capabilities: experimentation, risk taking, interaction with external environment, dialogue, and participative decision making; communication
8	Sharawy and Abdelghaffar, (2017)	Conceptual framework	Technological advantage; community cohesiveness; individual willingness; knowledge sharing intention; and knowledge sharing behaviour of employees; leadership: conflict resolution, relationship building, participation & communication; Culture
9	Huang & Lai, (2012)	KMS Research framework	Leadership, organisation, technology and organisational learning
10	Jones, (2009)	Empirical research framework	Culture: employee fit, training; reward
11	Chuang, (2004)	Empirical framework	Cultural factor; human factor; structural factor; technical factor
12	Fugate, Stank, and Mentzer, (2009)	Fugate et. Al.'s Theoretical framework	Leadership: engagement, conflict resolution, communication, decision making
13	Gold and Malhotra, (2001)	Knowledge Management capabilities and Organisational effectiveness framework	Social capital: networks of relationships, norms; technology; structure; and culture; capabilities: infrastructure & process
14	Handzic, (2010)	Empirical framework	Leadership: strategy, learning, develop human resource plans & reward schemes; culture: collaborative climate, openness & trust, learning process; measurement systems; and technology: storage & sharing

15	Kim, & Hancer, (2010)	Empirical framework	Information technology; incentive; knowledge sharing culture: openness & commitment; leadership: incentive policy, monitor & evaluate process
16	Conley & Zheng, 2009	Framework of Organisational Contextual Factors that can influence KM	Leadership support: commitment; culture: prioritization of knowledge, critical attitude toward existing knowledge, trust, care, openness, proactiveness, innovativeness, entrepreneurship, warmth, support, risk, reward; structure; strategy: motivation; structure: communication; processes; technology: collaboration & communicative capabilities; HRM: training & education; measurement, motivations & incentives, teamwork; employee engagement: reward
17	Kulkarni, (2006)	KM Success framework	Leadership: commitment, reward, promoting KM practice; technology; HR: training, collaboration: teamwork, culture
18	Lin, (2007)	Research model	Enjoyment in helping others and knowledge self-efficacy; competence and confidence; management support: perceptions, social interaction culture; information technology; budget for providing adequate training
19	Lindner, & Wald, (2011)	Research model for explaining KM effectiveness	Information technology: communication & storage; structure; culture; leadership commitment: motivation, legitimates the time and other resources devoted to KM, delegation of responsibilities and authorities
20	Ndlela & du Toit (2001)	Empirical framework	People: competencies, skills and capabilities; Information systems; leadership commitment
21	Yahya & Goh, (2002)	Empirical framework	Process: people, technology and information; training: empowerment and team building; organisational learning; culture
22	Alavi, Kayworth, & Leidner (2005)	Model of Organisational Values and KM	KM technology; cultural values; leadership

23	Liebowitz & Megbolugbe, (2003)	A generic knowledge management implementation framework	Knowledge sharing processes: leadership, teamwork; mentoring and shadowing
24	Hsieh and Chen, (2003)	Critical Success Factors (CSFs) for KM	Motivation; culture; top management support; reward; efficiency for mining the knowledge; information technology
25	Goh, (2002)	An integrative framework	Teamwork: trust; leaders: openness; culture: co-operation and collaboration; employees & training: skills and competencies; structured processes: mentoring, personal intranets/web sites, group dialogues and reflection sessions; reward system: successful knowledge sharing, cooperation, and teamwork
26	Nonaka, Toyama & Konno, 2000	The SECI Process: Nonaka & Takeuchi, (1995)	Organisational norms, routines and skills; structure; incentive systems; organisational culture; people: love, care, trust, and commitment; technology; leadership: will & direction
27	Witherspoon, Bergner, and Cockrell (2013)	Antecedents of Knowledge sharing	Intentions and attitudes concerning individual; KS motivation; Social interaction: communication, participation, trust, networks; organisational commitment; leadership; culture; incentive; reputation building
28	ISO/DIS 30401, (2017)	KM Standard	Leadership: Strategy, commitment, trust, objectives, communication; process; technology & infrastructure; KM culture

4.3.2 Analysis

Using the thematic analysis approach through an analytical process which has six distinct but highly interrelated stages of familiarisation, initial code generation, searching for themes, reviewing themes, and defining and naming themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006), this chapter identifies the drivers and critical success factors that influences KM implementation. The coding stage involved identifying features of the data set to locate themes that are relevant to KM framework construction, with specific focus on the 'people or human' perspective. Adopting a pragmatic approach, the KM frameworks this research deemed suitable were reputable KM journals which focused on the role of people as catalyst in KM initiatives. These evidences go beyond basic acknowledgement of 'people' as key players in KM, but also establishes the different relationships and interactions that exists between people and other KM themes. The criteria for selection also included frameworks that focused on people as antecedent and at other times attributes of implementing a successful KM initiative. Capturing people's role as initiators, executors or participants in KM processes, and identifying the combination and relationships between themes which make this possible, lie at the heart of a people focused KM framework.

During the 'theme searching' stage, the codes were sorted into potential themes by allocating all relevant coded data extracts into identified themes, which were further consolidated to form fourteen preliminary themes. This was achieved by using quotes from their original context and re-arranging them with other similar quotes under the newly developed thematic content. The fourteen themes initially generated were colour-coded and 'article extracts' were colour-coded respectively so that themes could be traced back to their origin.

The 'theme review' stage revealed that some component extracts of some of the themes did not fit into a coherent pattern. This involved the need to revise some themes to accommodate the extracts that did not work in the existing themes. Therefore, some initial themes generated had to be

merged to avoid the duplication of themes and to ensure a rational pattern among themes, while also broadening the scope of each theme to enable an exhaustive coverage of their respective data component. The outcome of this evaluation process resulted in the final thematic grid presented in Table 4.2 below.

Prior to the provision of the final themes, the validity of each individual theme was carried out, in comparison with their component data-set to establish that these themes accurately reflect the meaning in the data set and to ensure that no data-set was left unassigned. To give “structure and demonstrate the hierarchy of meaning within the data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.22), sub-themes were generated from the main themes with a description of the scope and content of each sub-theme to establish a set boundary for the main themes.

In a nutshell, the process of building the themes involved using descriptions representing relevant KM themes in frameworks as observed within the literature. These themes were established in line with prior defined KM frameworks categorisation. Some aspect of themes where renamed, expanded or slightly modified to accommodate the various taxonomies of KM frameworks particularly as they relate to the activities people undertake. As a result, new themes emerged where the existing frameworks could not accommodate items retrieved from the literature.

These components were further compressed until the thematic template reached a practically acceptable level, in terms of usability. To ensure the reliability of the analysis, indexing and charting as proposed by Srivastava and Thomson (2009) were conducted. The results were five broad themes and their respective sub-themes which were considered as significant factors for a KM framework to have a chance of success when adopted.

4.4 Findings

This research identified five main KM themes. These themes had fourteen (14) second-order themes (see Table 4.2). They cover a cross-range of factors required in a KM framework. Further underlying themes, particularly those focusing on the people and organisational factors that are catalyst to people and organisational performance and learning will be subsequently discussed in detail.

Table 4.2: Categorisation of themes within knowledge management frameworks

KM themes	Sub-themes	Description
Leadership commitment	Articulating and implementing KM policies and strategies	Setting up policies & establishing objectives to control workforce towards the attainment of KM goals.
	Workforce engagement	Instilling consciousness in employees about their responsibilities in KM initiatives.
	Sustaining KM	The process of evaluating KM which guides managers in determining KM's impact on organisational performance and areas of strengths and weaknesses to decide whether KM objectives are being met or not & how improvements can be made where there are shortfalls, and how successful knowledge initiatives can be stored for re-use.
Organisational culture	Trust & openness	Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness from employees & management, which facilitates and encourages collaborative values that increases the propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge.
	Motivation	Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives.
	Roles and responsibilities	Standardising the "collective ideals of engagement" to empower & encourage employees in knowledge sharing in order to ensure that employees know what is expected of them across organisational & geographical boundaries.
People empowerment	Value generating capabilities	Structures and activities that deal with creating, identifying, sharing, and using knowledge for value creation for the organisation.
	Degree of knowledge	The degree of knowledge influence facilitated by the level of authority, which causes people with higher authority to share information amongst their peers

	influence facilitated by the level of authority	while employees with lower authority tend to direct information to those with superior authority, based on the capability of the latter to put knowledge to effective use.
	Harmonising tacit knowledge	Harmonising various knowledge embedded in individual experiences involving factors such as adaptation and interpretation of information, past expertise, errors in judgment and other influences that individuals have been through, which forms a source of usable knowledge residing in their minds which could be accessed through communities of practice and other related forum.
Socio-technical capabilities	Integrating knowledge sources	Interactive processes of storing and organising what people know in knowledge-based systems for use or re-use through social relationships and knowledge retrieval from databases or communicated via internet, intranet, emails or other technological systems towards the attainment of desired organisational effectiveness.
	Physical design	Physical work space arrangements that facilitates free-knowledge flow amongst group members.
Organisational Learning	Improving skills and competencies	Attainable through training, communication networks, networks of peers and communities of practice in ensuring the capabilities of employees are relatively consistent to accomplish their work & realise the desired values.
	Establishing learning objectives	Focusing on the individual's expectations or intentions from exchanging knowledge, skills or expertise with others, and determining whether the knowledge shared will be beneficial to both the sharer & recipient's organisations.
	Promoting knowledge application	Facilitates knowledge usage through knowledge transfer systems, while raising the perceived value of the knowledge transmitted through the demonstration of knowledge practicableness by these systems.

4.4.1 Leadership commitment

4.4.1.1 Articulating and implementing KM policies and strategies

KM theme	Description	Related frameworks
Articulating and implementing KM policies and strategies	Setting up policies & establishing objectives to control workforce towards the attainment of KM goals.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 14, 15, 16, 17, 20, 23, 28.

KM frameworks reviewed advocated for the role of leadership, or knowledge champions (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018; Kulkarni (17), 2006; Shrafat (2), 2018), in documenting how knowledge should be managed (ISO (28), 2017; Kim & Hancer (15), 2010; Kulkarni, 2006; Ndlela and Toit (20), 2001) in order to avoid knowledge gaps (Ndlela & Toit, 2001). According to the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) (2017), senior management should be at the fore-front of purpose and direction regarding how KM policies should be managed and the alignment of guiding principles for the KM objectives procedure with the organisation's strategic direction. The ISO and Liebowitz & Megbolugbe (23) (2003) highlight the importance of instituting KM policies that are fit for organisational purpose, based on senior management's support. While the ISO lay out guidelines about how KM policies and procedures should be constituted and aligned with the organisation's goals, Kulkarni (2006) suggested that, not only should KM strategies be embraced for promoting practices of knowledge sharing and use, there is also an obligation to establish KM strategies that emphasise the goals and benefits of KM by top management.

In addition, AlShamsi and Ajal (1) (2018) and Shrafat (2) (2018) suggested that policy makers should understand how to incorporate KM systems into the organisation, while promoting such initiatives with suitable strategy that facilitate knowledge sharing. To this end, Kim and Hancer (15) (2010) and Kulkarni (17) (2006) and other KM frameworks (Conley & Zheng (16), 2009) proposed that managers should develop clear incentive policies that motivate employees to support organisational goals which improves

organisational effectiveness. According to other studies, it is imperative for top management to be involved in KM initiatives as it can cause key organisational changes (Sharawy & Abdelghaffar (8), 2017; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017).

For instance, the strategic dimensions by Karami et al, (4), (2015) lay credence to the diverse use and relevance of strategy in all KM activities. The lack of efficient strategy in KM evaluation has been established to result in KM implementation failure (Akhavan & Pezeshkan (5), 2014). However, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009), ISO (28), (2017), Jones (10), (2009), and Sharawy and Abdelghaffar (8) (2017) found that it is important for an organisation to ensure the fit of its KM strategy into its vision. Conley and Zheng warned that this should be done with clarity of intention. These studies re-affirmed that organisational strategy should be central to KM through effective leadership (Conley & Zheng, 2009; Handzic (14), 2010) or governance (ISO, 2017).

Finally, all fourteen frameworks, which covered this theme, identified that KM policies and strategies should be constituted in a manner which encourage and incentivise employees to support an organisation's processes and practices (Kim & Hancer, 2010). This could be achieved by setting expectations for employees on the use of KM systems, and a culture that value knowledge (ISO, 2017) and commitment for continuous improvement (ISO, 2017; Kim & Hancer, 2010). These findings are not an anomaly as Ndlela and Toit (2001) had already established that employee support is required as a key component of any successful management programme. Although Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (23) (2003) did not expressly mention employees as an important factor in KM, they referred to adequate resources as a critical success factor that ensures communication and informed knowledge within a team. One could deduce that they are referring to different types of resources, one of which is the human resource. Ultimately, ISO, (2017) surmises that an organisation needs to show clear commitments towards satisfying KM requirements.

4.4.1.2 Workforce engagement

KM theme	Description	Related frameworks
Workforce engagement	Instilling consciousness in employees about their responsibilities in KM initiatives	1, 5, 7, 12, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22, 27, 28

To affirm the symbiotic nature of the relationship that should exist between managers and employees in terms of their responsibilities towards KM initiatives, ISO (28) (2017) propose that top management should allocate responsibility and authority to ensure KM compliance and people engagement towards an effective application of the KM system within the organisation. Fugate et al. (12), (2009) emphasised on the need for managers to share knowledge so that employees' will have a unified response to KM implementation. They suggested that this could be achieved by encouraging employees to question knowledge to gain a collective understanding of its meaning and significance. Fugate and colleagues however hinted that this could lead to a slow resolution of divergent interpretations.

Furthermore, Lin (7) (2013), Lin (18) (2007), Lindner and Wald (19) (2010) respectively support the notion that top management commitment has a significant influence on knowledge sharing processes, based on how much it can bolster employees' willingness to both contribute and receive knowledge to and from colleagues. This is in line with AlShamsi and Ajal's (1) (2018) and Conley & Zheng's (16) (2009) proposal that leadership should create engagement through its behaviour by stimulating communication and collaboration to motivate and build trust in people to knowledge sharing. From an employee perspective, Lin (18) (2007) found that the level of competence and confidence of employees can influence employees to engage in knowledge sharing. In corroboration, Witherspoon et al. (27) (2013) stated that the more benefit the individual perceives because of sharing knowledge, the more likely the individual will engage in the KM process.

However, Lin's framework provides a caveat, which focuses on the need for management to ensure that employees derive 'enjoyment' from sharing knowledge with each other. Conley and Zheng (2009) and Lindner and Wald (19) (2011) agree that there is a need to motivate employees in KM participation. Reiterating the need for managers to set a cultural change which favours the use of desired KM tools among workers, Alavi et al. (22) (2005) indicated that entrenched values in individuals is central to the diverse pattern of retrieving knowledge for use. Alavi and colleagues argued that where the prevailing circumstance does not favour the use of desired KM tools, managers could introduce a wide spectrum of KM tools in an organisation that has a diverse culture on the use of these tools.

Despite this slightly divergent but relevant perspective by Alavi and colleagues, the ISO (28) (2017) re-emphasises the importance of not only creating awareness among employees on their role towards effective KM, but also highlighting the benefits of improved KM performance, while equally emphasising the implications for not conforming to KM system requirements. Akhavan and Pezeshkan (5) (2014) indicated that insufficient involvement of workers in the KM process could result in inadequate identification of useful knowledge. Ultimately, the knowledge creation process requires the interaction and involvement of people (Yahya & Goh (21) 2002).

4.4.1.3 Sustaining KM

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Sustaining KM	The process of evaluating KM which guides managers in determining KM's impact on organisational performance and areas of strengths and weaknesses to decide whether KM objectives are being met or not & how improvements can be made where there are shortfalls, and how successful knowledge initiatives can be stored for re-use	9, 11, 14, 16, 17, 18, 26, 28

Findings on the sustainability of KM show that its significance can be achieved through measuring and monitoring competitive accomplishments from using a KM system. This requires the passage of time (ISO (28), 2017).

This is consistent with an investigation carried out by Handzic (14) (2010) which links performance results to the adjustment of KM based on the consistent effect of measurement attributable to the existence of an adequate system for evaluating knowledge. This needs to be bolstered by a leadership that recognises the need for further investment in KM systems (Huang & Lai (9), 2012). From a somewhat different perspective, Lin (18) (2007) suggested KM sustenance by learning from mistakes to curb its repetition in the future. While Chuang (11) (2004) affirm the importance of learning, the study also advocates for the establishment of mechanisms that will enable continuous and effective knowledge sharing.

This differs from the notion of ISO (2017) and Handzic (2010) who focused on the determination of sustainable KM systems based on its performance measurement. Whereas, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) addressed the difficulties in using incentives as a means of sustaining employees' interest in KM initiatives. Likewise, Kulkarni (17), (2006) submitted that knowledge and system quality are determinants of users' level of satisfaction, hence, leading to KM's sustained use. This aligns with Nonaka and colleagues (26) (2000) who indicated that tacit knowledge can be a source of sustainable competitive advantage where individuals engage in knowledge sharing. Embedding a KM culture across the organisation is seen to be critical for sustained application of KM.

4.4.2 Organisational culture

4.4.2.1 Trust and openness

KM theme	Description	Related frameworks
Trust and openness	Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness by employees & management, which facilitates and encourages collaborative values that increases the propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge.	1, 2, 3, 4, 14, 16, 19, 20, 25, 26, 27, 28

Studies indicate that trust is a product of a positive set of values, attitudes, and expectations that emanate from people's willingness to

exchange knowledge (Lindner & Wald (19), 2010). This is enabled by gradual relationship building through a partnership between the knowledge leaders and other individuals (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018). At the heart of this process is the leader's willingness to share knowledge freely to creating an atmosphere of goodwill, a trusting culture and an ethical environment (Goh (25), 2002; Ndlela and du Toit (20), 2001; Shrafat (2), 2018; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017).

In agreement, Karami et al., (4) (2015) refer to trust culture as one of the critical success factors in KM. Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) and Handzic (14) (2010) espoused that affirmative culture fostered by leadership can be explained in terms of a collaborative climate where trust exists in promoting a knowledge-sharing culture. Goh's study aligns with this position by expressing that high level of trust is needed between levels, individuals, and work groups in the organisation. This is evidenced by widespread sharing of and ready access to information about the organisation enabled by co-operation and collaboration among people (Goh (25), 2002). This is developed through work practices that encourage and allow individuals and groups to work together on projects and problems.

Nonaka et al. (26) (2000) also found that trust and other values are important as they form the foundation of knowledge creation. This cannot be achieved without social trust concerning relationships between people within the organisation and the measure of degree to which individuals believe that others are reliable, open and honest (Witherspoon et al. (27) (2013). To establish this, top management need to demonstrate leadership and commitment with respect to KM by fostering organisational values which enhance trust (ISO (28) (2017).

4.4.2.2 Motivation

KM theme	Description	Related frameworks
Motivation	Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives	1, 2, 3, 11, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 24, 25, 27

Frameworks that identified motivation as a driver and a component of KM (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018; Chuang (11), 2004; Handzic (14), 2010; Hsieh and Chen (24), 2003; Kim and Hancer's (15), 2010) emphasised on the importance of reward schemes targeted at the contribution of individuals to the development of organisational knowledge and the creation of a continuous learning culture. Conley and Zheng's (16) (2009) suggested that HRM professionals should focus on employee motivation and incentive that fuel employee learning and performance. Handzic (14) (2010) and Kim and Hancer (15) (2010) also believe that business owners can motivate employees by providing incentives which will improve organisational effectiveness. Kulkarni (17) (2006) rather singles out managers for incentives based on their performance. Evidently, these frameworks approve that people and organisations should recognise 'good' employees and favourably perceive employees who are seen to disseminate knowledge. Lin (18) (2007) sees things differently by suggesting that it is only those employees' who possess useful organisational knowledge that are motivated to share knowledge. Lin's position defers from other studies that view motivation as a catalyst for knowledge initiative.

Other authors have equally addressed other aspects of motivation by discussing it from a psychological viewpoint. Lindner and Wald (19) (2011) refer to the motivation of employees to participate in KM, however they are not clear on how this can be achieved. On the other hand, Witherspoon et al., (27), (2013) stated that motivation has to do with intentions and attitudes concerning individual beliefs about the extent and value of one's knowledge and the positive feelings that result from its sharing. They claimed that intrinsic and internalised motivation for knowledge sharing concern the degree to which participants enjoy helping others through knowledge sharing, but also found that knowledge sharing motivations could be due to personal gain or pure self-interest.

Furthermore, studies show that reward systems must not be focused purely on financial results or outcomes that are based on competition

between groups in the organisation, rather, rewards should be broadly based on other criteria such as successful knowledge sharing, co-operation, and teamwork (Goh (25), 2002), and social reward, further security, and opportunity as motivator tools (Zaki and Soliman (3), 2017).

4.4.2.3 Roles and responsibilities

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Roles and responsibilities	Standardising the "collective ideals of engagement" to empower & encourage employees in knowledge sharing to ensure that employees know what is expected of them across organisational & geographical boundaries	11, 16, 17, 26, 28

The ISO (28) (2017) attributed roles and accountability to individuals such as the Chief Knowledge Officer or Community of Practice Facilitators who are burdened with operating and promoting elements of the KM System. Nonaka et al. (26) (2000) explained these leaders influence the knowledge conversion rate by creating the knowledge vision and fostering a culture that creates knowledge continuously and dynamically. They argued that especially crucial to this process is the role of knowledge producers, who are often middle-level managers, as they are at the intersection of the vertical and horizontal flow of information within and across the company.

In addition, Kulkarni (17) (2006) submitted that one way by which organisational leadership can demonstrate commitment to KM is by having top management assume the visible role of knowledge champions. According to this author, knowledge champions should spearhead the task of crafting a KM strategy for the firm, setting goals, and emphasising the potential benefits of KM. Similarly, Chuang (11) (2004) and Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) noted that KM initiatives often require the involvement and engagement of every individual in an organisation. However, they equally mentioned that it is important to develop positions whose primary roles and responsibilities are related to the organisation's KM programme.

This falls in line with the general outlook of the frameworks in the table above advocating for ‘distributed leadership’ where every member of the firm can be a leader.

4.4.3 People empowerment

4.4.3.1 Value generating capabilities

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Value generating capabilities	Structures and activities that deal with creating, identifying, sharing, and using knowledge for value creation for the organisation.	1, 2, 7, 13, 16, 20

Findings show that a combination of structures and processes are required to achieve value generation in an organisation. A combination of technology infrastructure, culture, strategy, processes, and learning have been identified as key factors for increasing the capabilities of the organisation because it gives an organisation the opportunity to process and analyse data which is central to the empowerment of innovative ideas (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018; Gold & Malhotra, (13) 2001). Both Lin (7) (2013) and Shrafat (2) (2018) acknowledge that organisational learning is facilitated by culture and IT capability, which increases the possibility of knowledge creation, transfer and application.

With technology being a constant factor, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) indicated that technology infrastructure has become critical to the success of KM initiatives. They observed that technology enable HRM professionals facilitate knowledge flow in their organisations more efficiently. Although knowledge resides in people’s head (Ndlela & du Toit’s (20), (2001)), the authors acknowledge that information systems as a channel for information and data gathering should be exploited to its full potential for any organisation seeking knowledge.

It should be noted that the frameworks mentioned in this theme are those that have addressed both KM facilitating structures and processes in

generating value capability in the organisation. Many of the KM frameworks reviewed referred to KM processes only. These frameworks are not being considered in this section because of their narrow approach.

4.4.3.2 Degree of knowledge influence facilitated by level of authority

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Degree of knowledge influence facilitated by level of authority	The degree of knowledge influence facilitated by the level of authority, which causes people with higher authority to share information amongst their peers while employees with lower authority tend to direct information to those with superior authority, based on the capability of the latter to put knowledge to effective use.	1, 2, 4, 7, 16, 18, 21, 27, 28

Yahya and Goh (21) (2002) advocated that empowering people gives them a sense of power and authority, giving room to innovation and exploration of new possibilities. They identified training related to creativity (empowerment and team building) as significant in the facilitation of knowledge creation, knowledge documentation and knowledge transfer, while Karami et al., (4) (2015) identified employee empowerment as a critical success factor for KM implementation. To achieve this, it is the prerogative of top management to assign responsibilities and authority in ensuring that the KM system meets standards of good practice by ensuring the engagement of people and the effective application of the KM system within the organisation and reporting on its performance to top management (ISO, 2017).

Decision-making is another function related to the role modelling that an organisation's leadership exercises from top-to-bottom. This function is expressed as a privilege of organisational leadership (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018). Lin (7) (2013) highlights that when decision makers perceive the overall organisational benefit of KM, they are more likely to encourage employees to use KM System. The author calls this participative decision making which is a facet of organisational learning capability, a factor

Witherspoon et al (27) (2013) also considered as relevant in their study findings.

From an opposing standpoint, Shrafat (2), (2018) contended that organisation's which see knowledge as a source of power, respect, prestige and promotion or a source of superiority over others, may tend to hoard knowledge. According to Lin (18) (2007), this phenomenon may occur when organisations exhibit a tendency for employees to use knowledge as their source of power for personal advantage rather than as an organisational resource. The problem with this scenario is that concentrated power arrangements are inclined to prevent imaginative solutions to problems (Conley & Zheng (16), 2009).

4.4.3.3 Harmonising tacit knowledge

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Harmonising tacit knowledge	Harmonising various knowledge embedded in individual experiences involving factors such as adaptation and interpretation of information, past expertise, errors in judgment and other influences that individuals have been through. This forms a source of usable knowledge residing in their minds which could be accessed through communities of practice and network of peers.	3, 8, 12, 16, 17, 19, 23, 25, 26, 27

Nonaka et al (26) (2000) elucidated that tacit knowledge can be a source of sustainable competitive advantage for the firm. They claim it can raise the value of the individual who owns such tacit knowledge. However, to make such tacit knowledge one that the organisation can utilise, it needs to be shared with others through socialisation. Nonaka and colleagues and other studies (Lin (18), 2007), warned that since sharing of tacit knowledge could lessen the value of the original owner of the knowledge, the individual might not cooperate in externalising their knowledge. In such a case, Nonaka et al. argued that it is important to develop various incentive systems that motivate individuals to share their knowledge.

Also, a high level of trust is needed between individuals, and work groups in the organisation. This would be evidenced by widespread sharing of and ready access to information. Leadership behaviour must be consistent with a philosophy of openness. Goh, (2002) claimed that a strong pervasive culture of co-operation and collaboration must exist. This is developed through work practices that encourage and allow individuals and groups to work together on projects and problems. The need for teamwork and cross-functional work teams was strongly emphasised in organisations.

Another function crucial to harmonising individuals' knowledge is organisational culture which is fundamental to social behaviour and integrated action (Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017). Organisational culture represents the character of an organisation which guides its employees' day-to-day working relationships and directs them on how to act and communicate within the organisation, as well as controlling how the organisational hierarchy is built. Goh (25) (2002) and Zaki and Soliman (3) (2017) see trust as a fundamental aspect of knowledge sharing. A collaborative culture is important for knowledge transfer between individuals and groups to occur. Knowledge transfer requires individuals to come together to interact, exchange ideas and share knowledge with each other. The authors advocated that KM strategies should create an understanding of an organisation's knowledge resources and where they are located.

More so, a positive set of values, attitudes, and expectations towards knowledge facilitates the willingness of people to share knowledge and to trust in knowledge from other persons (Lindner & Wald's (19), 2011; Witherspoon et al (27), 2013). They advocated that knowledge culture is important for explaining KM-effectiveness. The support of informal communication, a tolerance towards mistakes, a positive project culture, and the commitment of top management were all stated as contributors to the knowledge culture. Regarding drivers of knowledge harmonisation, Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (23) (2003) identified mentoring and shadowing as examples of knowledge sharing techniques that could facilitate transfer of tacit knowledge for improved teamwork. Their study referred to the

importance of selection and recruitment, performance management, and the importance of individuals with requisite knowledge, competencies, and wisdom as part of the wider intangible asset. They concluded that KM should play an integral part of an organisation's human capital strategy to encompass the various types of knowledge from these individuals and organisations.

In fostering the exchange of tacit knowledge, Kulkarni (2006) and Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (2003) advocated that senior management should take on the role of exemplar. To achieve this, the authors suggested that managers should have senior-level KM advocates, associate KM with unit, group, and individual goals and objectives; cultivate communities of practice and interest; and use feedback to improve KM. In the view of the authors, organisations will find that knowledge-sharing efforts to arrange periodic meetings between and among work groups helps. At these meetings, feedback can be provided and success stories of knowledge sharing, and reuse can be exchanged.

Along the same lines, Sharawy et al. (8) (2017) found that environmental factors comprising community cohesiveness and behavioural factors comprising individual willingness each had a significant positive effect on both the intention and the actual behaviour of knowledge sharing. The study advocates that organisations should employ managers skilful in human behaviour such as relationship building. They upheld that a productive social environment must be fostered by striking a balance between organisational goals and individual user goals, monitored for appropriateness, and participation encouraged to develop and strengthen relationships among co-workers. One way to achieve this is to identify employees who exhibit individual willingness to share knowledge and recruit them as early adopters who will then encourage other employees to do the same.

4.4.4 Socio-technical capabilities

4.4.4.1 Integrating knowledge sources

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Integrating knowledge sources	Interactive processes of storing and organising what people know in knowledge-based systems for use or re-use through retrieval from databases or communicated via internet, intranet, emails or other technological systems towards the attainment of desired organisational effectiveness.	3,13, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 26, 28

All frameworks reviewed indicated that technology play an important role in KM. However, KM frameworks that specifically addressed the connection between people and knowledge-based systems were few. This interaction is an important one because the availability of tacit and explicit knowledge is vital to the success of KM adoption. On this basis, Ndlela and du Toit (20) (2001) identify that information systems should serve as the conduit through which knowledge is exploited, transferred, managed and retrieved in usable form through an interface with people. Similarly, the ISO (28) (2017) refer to associations between 'people to content' in terms of recording or documenting knowledge and the 'content to people' interaction through an effective use of codified knowledge.

To ensure KM effectiveness, Zaki and Soliman (3) (2017) claim that two main classification of knowledge are widely discussed, that is, tacit (uncodified) knowledge and explicit (codified) knowledge. They believe managing knowledge is not only about information technology, but also managing people and processes. In agreement, Kulkarni's (17) (2006) discussion evidences that people are as important as the technology that supports KM initiatives. This aligns with Conley and Zheng's (16) (2009) findings which raised the importance of educating employees on what KM is, how employees can contribute, and what they can expect from the KM efforts.

Also, Yahya and Goh's (21) (2002) findings show that knowledge creation process demands interaction and involvement of people, technology and information. Managers seeking to establish effective programmes of KM must balance both the content of tacit and explicit organisational knowledge capabilities to leverage knowledge (Gold & Malhotra (13), 2001). According to Lindner and Wald (19) (2011) and Nonaka et al (26) (2000) the combination of IT-systems for communication and for storage can also facilitate the transformation of tacit into explicit knowledge when it is accompanied by an adequate knowledge culture.

4.4.4.2 Physical design

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Physical design	Physical work space arrangements that facilitates free-knowledge flow amongst group members	6, 20, 25, 28

The importance of the physical work environment has been highlighted within KM in more ways than one. The ISO (28) (2017) identified the physical workspace like collaborative workspaces and coffee corners as knowledge sharing enablers. The provision of appropriate environment to motivate workers to enable the creation, organisation and sharing of knowledge cannot be over-emphasised (Anggia (6), 2013). Goh (25) (2002) indicate that organisational design encourages horizontal communication.

Other than the ISO (28) (2017) which was specific about the need for a physical workspace design that encourage easy communication among workers, other frameworks seem to discuss the 'environment' in a broader and more generic manner. However, one could still assume rightly that the physical design of work would fall under this same theme. Other frameworks like Alavi, et al., (2005); Conley and Zheng, (2009); and Handzic, (2010) also referred to a KM-friendly environment.

4.4.5 Organisational Learning

4.4.5.1 Improving skills and competencies

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Improving skills and competencies	Attainable through training, communication networks, networks of peers and communities of practice in ensuring the capabilities of employees are relatively consistent to accomplish their work & realise the desired values	2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, 20, 21, 25, 27, 30

According to Karami et al. (4) (2015) and Zaki and Soliman (3) (2017) KM training and education awareness are essential because they are one of the HR practices. In their view, training allows knowledge sharing. These frameworks also regard training on how to use a repository as extremely critical, since KM involves the use of Information Systems infrastructure to capture important information. Therefore, as a KM programme develops, ongoing training and education should take place to keep employees abreast of how they can contribute and how they can take advantage of the new tools and processes that have been put in place.

Studies have expressed the role of training and development in improving workforce competency as it gives an organisation a competitive edge. Anggia (6) (2013) suggested that training afforded some employees and managers the skills and information to fulfil their responsibilities. For the same reason, Conley & Zheng (16), (2009) highlight that a few organisations have become or are striving to become learning organisations. This should start with quality training toward initiating organisational learning process leading to continuous improvement (Yahya & Goh (21), 2002). Thus, timely and appropriate education and employee training was found to be one of the key success factors for KM implementation (Anggia (6), 2013).

From a resource perspective, training supposes that effective management of social KM resource involves a variety of different aspects,

which includes providing organisational structure and culture (employee empowerment and team building) that encourage and support employees to create continuous learning that enable effective knowledge creation, sharing and dissemination (Chuang (11), 2004; Lin's (7) 2013). Most KM frameworks agreed with the need for a strong culture of continuous improvement and learning in organisations (Goh's (25), 2002). This can be achieved through training which is vital for the attainment of higher KM scores (Jones (10), 2009). On the other hand, the lack of awareness of KM implied that the organisation needed to enhance their KM training activities. Jones emphasised that KM programmes should incorporate training as a core element.

4.4.5.2 Establishing learning objectives

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Establishing learning objectives	Focusing on the individual's expectations or intentions from exchanging knowledge, skills or expertise with others, and determining whether the knowledge shared will be beneficial to both the sharer & recipient's organisations.	14, 16, 28

Handzic (14) (2010) established that service value creation is the main objective of KM practice. This involves the flexibility and desire to innovate and drive the learning process, where employees take responsibility for their own learning. The author emphasises that this should be followed through expressed consistent effect of measurement that can be attributed to the existence of an adequate system based on the evaluation of knowledge and its link to performance outcomes that enable subsequent KM adjustments. In agreement, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) recommended that measurement of a defined set of criteria is important as it allows those responsible for KM efforts to evaluate the impact of KM and provide evidence of value to top management and other stakeholders.

Also important is the role of intentions and attitudes to knowledge sharing (KS) motivations concerning individual belief about the extent and

value of knowledge and the positive feeling that results from its sharing (Witherspoon et al., (27), 2013). The study also addressed the behaviour and attitude towards KS concerning the extent of perceived benefits that a sharer believes will accrue to them or others, as a result of sharing knowledge. It went on to affirm that the more benefit the individual perceives because of sharing knowledge, the more likely the individual is to engage in knowledge sharing. They predicted that the more other organisational actors reciprocate to sharing, the more likely an individual is to share knowledge.

However, Fugate et al. (12) (2009) warn that managers should undertake the necessary steps to ensure the delicate balance of encouraging individuals to thoroughly question disseminated intelligence to gain a collective understanding of its meaning and significance while also resolving divergent interpretations quickly. Their study addressed the ability of individuals to agree on the meaning and importance of knowledge and be receptive to the opinions of others considering that intelligence could be greatly impacted by the cultural and climate characteristics of a group. The role of top management is to establish a knowledge policy that set expectations for all staff regarding the use of the KM system and the cultivation of a culture that values knowledge (ISO (28), 2017). This includes a commitment to continual improvement of a KM system that manages the balance between knowledge sharing and knowledge protection.

4.4.5.3 Promoting knowledge application

KM theme	Description	Related Frameworks
Promoting knowledge application	Facilitates knowledge usage through knowledge transfer systems, while raising the perceived value of the knowledge transmitted through the demonstration of knowledge practicableness by these systems.	2, 7, 9, 16, 22, 26, 28

Policy makers, managers and other stakeholders have been advised to gain a better understanding of the KM system adoption process and

encourage the adoption of appropriate strategies to push their KMS initiative (Shrafat (2), 2018). KM capabilities like acquisition, conversion, application and protection, influence KMS acceptance with IT playing a vital role (Huang & Lai (9), 2012). The dependence of KM capabilities on IT has increased the possibility of knowledge application.

More so, Alavi, et al. (22) (2005) advocate that individual communities' perception of KM technology are shaped by their embedded values, which in turn lead to different patterns of technology use. The implication for practice is that managers undertaking large-scale KM initiatives cannot expect uniformity in how groups will use KM tools. Rather, the use of tools may vary based upon the assortment of local and organisation-level cultural values that influence perceptions of how these tools should be used. Alavi and colleagues indicated that different designs of KM tool will have implication on which feature of technology is most prominently in such use. Therefore, groups with different values using KM tools for different purposes are likely to experience diverse KM outcomes.

To this end, Nonaka et al (26) (2000) recommended that organisation's value system should determine what kind of knowledge it would apply. However, the authors explained that knowledge utilisation needs to be shared by others in the form of tacit knowledge through socialisation, or to be articulated so that it can be shared as explicit knowledge through externalisation. Whichever the case may be, ISO (28) (2017) advocates for KM capabilities to be embedded in an organisation's culture for its sustained application. The KM standard is of the notion that a culture where knowledge is treated as a valued asset supports the establishment and application of the KM system within it.

4.5 Discussion

This chapter presented the findings of the first study which investigated the key factors in KM frameworks and identify how people and work systems influences KM creation, processes and implementation. Through a rigorous analysis aimed at identifying and mapping these KM

factors, this research produced a template that encompasses all themes and sub-themes that are relevant to KM. These themes serve as drivers of KM initiatives in the organisation. Based on these findings, this chapter will discuss the implications for research and practice under the subsequent topics:

4.5.1 Good leadership as the driving force at the heart of KM initiative

This research has established the close inter-connection of the themes within the KM frameworks reviewed. The investigation shows that these KM themes work like different parts of one big machine. At the very centre of these drivers is leadership. Rahim, (2014) identified leadership as a major influence on changes that occur in the organisation. This was evident in this study which found that leadership in KM initiatives was a consistent factor that was present in all KM frameworks. As already established, changes in organisations is said to be a dynamic occurrence which takes place because of organisations becoming increasingly competitive and globalised in nature (ILO, 2016). Therefore, organisations need leaders who can influence employees' reaction to change during the organisation's change procedure (Donate et al., 2015)

To achieve the aforementioned, Argote et al. (2000) and other studies have associated qualities such as openness, trust and cooperation as essential components of good leadership. In agreement with other research outcomes, Singh (2008) emphasised that integrity and trust are two qualities which a leader must have within the team to guarantee the team's success. This view was corroborated by Zanini and Musante (2013) indicating that trust and respect are two key qualities that inspires and motivates people in leadership, whereas an unequal distribution of knowledge among the members of any team brings about distrust in a team (Park & Lee, 2014).

The link between effective leadership and organisational culture is another important part of the KM process (Bremer et al., 2013; Noor at. al.

2015). Effective leadership was found to be a function of the leader being able to provide trust and promote a knowledge sharing culture for the organisation (Artail, 2006; Riege, 2005). It suffices to say that all the listed qualities of good leadership are expected to be embedded in the 'fabric' of the organisation, rather than being a one-off approach. To achieve this cultural change, leaders should be empowered to make decisions which influences the knowledge process in a way that positively impacts on organisational performance (Kumar et al. 2013). Wong, (2005) indicated that effective and empowered leadership entails the capability of the leader to express behaviours which encourages the active participation of others in the decision-making process and engagement in KM efforts. To achieve high level participation, there should be effective communication and attention to convert information to knowledge as a vital part of the knowledge process (Kumar et al., 2013; Alipour et al. 2011).

Notably, leadership's success at managing knowledge is dependent on the organisation's ability to align business strategy to its knowledge requirements (Anghel et al., 2013; Kushwaha & Rao, 2015; Nevo et al. 2008; and Wakefield, 2005). Since leadership is saddled with the formulation of strategies, while equally emphasising the business vision, and communicating it to the whole organisation, this underscores the combined role of leadership and strategy in developing and promoting visions that support KM (Bedford & Harrison, 2015). This is further enabled by management's formulation of policies which support KM (Coleman et al., 2016) and ethical planning to help develop an organisation's KM behaviour.

4.5.2 Leadership, employee engagement and motivation as drivers of KM culture

Having ascertained the link between leadership and culture, it is not farfetched to claim that KM adoption is highly influenced by organisational culture as the latter shapes the behaviour of both leaders and employees within the organisation (Jung et al., 2007; Cristina, 2009). For instance, the relevance of a culture of teamwork and openness promoted through employee involvement and reward systems (Al-Adaileh et al. 2011; Al-

Khouri, 2014; Del Gludice et al. 2014) fosters a KM-friendly environment (Megdadi et al., 2012). These drivers positively influence knowledge dissemination among workers' in the organisation, as it encourages employees to participate actively in the KM process. While Pastor, (2011) sees culture as a factor that unites the organisation and reduces conflicts, Donate and Guadamillas (2010) suggested that the understanding that culture brings about because of connections and collaborations between employees, enables them to understand each other better, and forms a vital part of the cultural phenomenon as it promotes KM and sharing (Valmohammadi, 2010).

The strategic position of top leadership in the organisation is said to be a driving force that impact on the effectiveness of a KM culture (Ajmal & Koskinen, 2008) as management provides the organisation with functional initiatives. Similarly, management motivation and support provision for employee involvement improves organisational performance and the KM process as advocated by Rasula et al (2012), thereby bringing into focus a learning culture which promotes knowledge sharing practice (Al-Khouri, 2014; Rai, 2011).

Regarding motivation, Hau et al. (2013) and Patil and Kant (2012) also elucidated that rewards have a major part to play in motivating and encouraging employees to imbibe a knowledge-sharing culture, therefore building stronger relationship among workers within an organisation. The contribution of knowledge in the organisation and enhancement of knowledge sharing behaviour is contingent on a culture that rewards (Lin & Lo, 2015). It would not be out of place to express the notion that rewards are the catalyst that encourages employees in their individual and collective performance. Research evidence show that organisations who have a reward system in place can create a sense of cooperation, ownership and commitment which are some of the key indicators of a good organisational culture (Mueller, 2012).

Though Andreeva and Sergeeva (2016) highlight that rewards have a positive impact on a knowledge sharing culture by motivating employees

and making them feel appreciated and valued, Hau et al. (2013), and Patil and Kant (2012) warn that tangible rewards will not always be effective, as employees seek encouragement to contribute to knowledge sharing in the organisation. In Du Plessis's (2007) opinion, rewards are based on employee performance (push reward), whereas incentives are meant to motivate workers to be committed to improving their performance (pull reward). This ensures that the practice of knowledge dissemination is sustained at all fronts in the organisation. While an organisation shows appreciation for knowledge sharing through reward, it equally encourages others to do the same. This further affirms the need for organisations to adopt reward and incentive systems within their culture.

4.5.3 Employees disposition to positive attitude and intention to KM

Studies have established that motivation is important in getting desired performance from people (section 4.5.2). Therefore, employees engaged within organisations are expected to have positive attitude towards organisational values (Robinson et al., 2004). This behaviour is based on the employees' own understanding of the business perspective and their responsibilities to these business objectives. In agreement, Joshi and Sodhi (2011) inferred that good relationship of employees with top management, equal treatment of employees, and respect among colleagues bring about a positive working environment. Furthermore, it promotes mutual coordination among employees, and impacts positively on employee engagement. Positive employee engagement involves people's willingness to help each other at work (Andrew & Sofian, 2012). Hau et al., (2013) observed that social capital, reciprocity, organisational rewards and an element of enjoyment were factors which enhanced employees' willingness to share knowledge. According to the authors, employee engagement with one another would be affected by interpersonal trust or distrust among individuals within the organisation.

From another perspective, self-worth or self-regard was determined as a feeling of abundance of personal resources (self-efficacy, optimism and

self-esteem) among others in relation to work engagement by an individual as high personal regard leads to a high level of goal-congruence (Bakker & Demerouti 2008; Xanthopoulou et al., (2007). This allows individuals to believe in themselves and broadly fulfil organisational demands and expectations through high levels of engagement. This can be improved where training, career growth and development programmes are introduced to facilitate employee's personal growth and development or facilitate an opportunity for employees and managers to obtain the skills and information to fulfil their responsibilities as stated by Choy et al., (2005).

While the argument in favour of positive attitude about employees' engagement is necessary as the basis of an organisation's adoption of a KM initiative, the organisation also needs to make provision for the required KM drivers and facilitators to the employees' as the situation requires. This will increase the chances of improved performance of the workforce and significantly lower turnover intentions of employees (Claxton et al. 2014).

4.5.4 Aligning KM processes and structure

The importance of organisational processes as a platform that allow knowledge creation and enable an excellent delivery of knowledge cannot be over-emphasised (Jung et al., 2007). KM activities like meetings, discussions, presentations and sharing training experiences are meant to promote knowledge sharing processes (Hao et al., 2015). Moreover, socialisation enables organisational knowledge processing which feed into group and individual knowledge (Raina & Chauchan, 2016). A re-occurring factor is the duty of managers in promoting positive moods and emotions in workers by engaging them in the processes of social exchange of knowledge (Lai & Lee, 2007). This allows individuals to transfer knowledge between each other through collaborative knowledge-building approach that create new knowledge through an expansion of existing knowledge which result to increase in personal learning (Cress & Kimmerle, 2008). In addition, the conversion of tacit to explicit knowledge support knowledge sharing through documents and records to facilitate easier management of knowledge in enhancing knowledge exchange (Nonaka & Toyama, 2015).

However, to achieve knowledge flow from creation to utilisation, there is need for organisational structure to outline the flow of instruction and information within the organisation to effectively manage the KM process (Lai & Lee, 2007). The level of complexity or otherwise in organisational structure is a function of the firm size, and the extent of formalisation, centralisation, and integration, which are factors that influences the way knowledge is being managed in the organisation (Chen et al., 2010). Emphasising on the possible downside of large organisational structures, Zheleva and Viklund (2014) indicated that large organisational structures have more employees and a longer communication network, thereby giving chances to the possibilities of more misunderstandings. Rules and regulations which formalise processes are the outcome of complex structures (Gonzalez & Martins, 2014) based on the role it plays as a guide to employees' behaviour and establishing clearly defined and specialised roles for employees in the organisation.

Despite its role in the effective execution of KM processes, Willem and Buelens (2009) argued that an organisational structure is a process that centralises authority by centralising resources, technologies and planning which provides direction and responsibility for organisation's strategic planning and decision-making for improved KM that enhances knowledge flow. However, a caveat supposes that this centralised approach will be mainly suitable for organisations where either democratic leadership is not feasible or participatory decision-making cannot be achieved. On the contrary, a de-centralised structure better facilitates knowledge sharing (Mahmoudsalehi et al. 2012). Therefore, the argument in favour of integrated and network structures utilisation in KM have been put forward as they promote greater interaction among employees while enhancing knowledge flow (Gonzalez & Martins, 2014).

4.5.5 Recruiting the 'right' people and appropriate technology as drivers for learning, achieving and implementing learning objectives

Knowledge sharing have been practiced in knowledge-intensive organisations through initiatives like recruitment, training and development programmes and workers' knowledge. These are to be considered in the design of KM strategies and HRM practice within the organisation (Majeed, 2009). Giving HRM the attention it deserves would result in an organisation's ability to engage in knowledge creation and sharing by being able to locate and harness knowledge imbedded within the social system in the organisation (Mahmoudsalehi et al., 2012). From their viewpoint, the choice of recruitment and selection processes are crucial to the availability of resources and information within the organisation. In a similar view, Manjula et al. (2016) recognises that the functions of HRM recruitment and selection are factors which determine the development of worker's knowledge, skills and abilities to improve the quality of working life due to their role in the process of knowledge acquisition through to its application.

Deductions from the above suggest that recruiters should design their employee hiring strategies based on how knowledge is managed and shared in the organisation as new recruits are expected to be able to conform to the organisation's KM processes. Notwithstanding how thorough its recruitment and selection process are, the HRM team is yet saddled with the task of training employees with the sole aim of sharing and managing knowledge (Freyens & Martin 2007; Hau et al. 2013).

Despite having people as the source of knowledge generation, information systems and technology has been ascribed as the bedrock of effective and efficient KM (Cristina, 2009; Malhotra, 2005). Rodrigues et al. (2016) and Kowitlawakul et al. (2015) advocated that the reliability of technology for its users is a determinant that affects technological acceptance and utilisation as the new technology passes through the knowledge sharing system to penetrate the organisation. Unfortunately, in the past, people working within organisations were not aware of what they

did not know, thus, their decisions and attitudes were based on a limited set of available information (Rodrigues et al., 2016). However, technology enables organisations to compete with other businesses, while gaining advantage over them by attracting customers and being able to identify and apply the right strategies in doing so (Kowitlawakul et al. 2015). This implies that users must be convinced of the ease of use and usefulness of the technology to assist with KM activity (Davis et al., 1989; Kowitlawakul et al., 2015).

Ultimately, organisations emphasise on people and technology to have better KM processes (Tseng et al. 2010). This is evidenced in Andreeva and Sergeeva (2016) study where their evaluation of the connection between information, communication and technological practices have been shown to improve performance.

4.6 Conclusion

It is indicative that leaders are the main drivers of all other factors that are essential in KM process (ISO, 2017). Although, the knowledge process starts with the setting-up of policies and strategies, leadership however requires certain key attributes to be able to successfully create and implement knowledge-based activities. Trust, respect, openness are key attributes which have been identified as vital qualities that senior management is expected to possess to establish sustainable KM initiative. Studies show that the attributes identified need to be imbibed by managers to achieve other KM drivers such as building a culture of teamwork and collaboration among employees with an intent to share knowledge. The initiation must begin from the very top, through the expression of behaviours that supports the KM programme in place. By doing this, management will get the buy-in of workers and their active inclusion in the KM process.

Also, KM processes are an essential part of any KM initiative as it ensures that knowledge is identified, shared and utilised effectively (Wang et al., 2014). This is however based on the ease and convenience through which knowledge can flow within the organisation, enabled by the structure

in place. The role of people and technology in the knowledge process cannot be over-emphasised. Research show that while people are the holders of tacit knowledge, technology facilitates the storage, accessibility, dissemination and utilisation of such knowledge by others, hence, the need for an organisation to have the right technological infrastructure. In addition, other success factors relating to motivation, empowerment, level of competency, organisational goals and so on, have been identified as important drivers in KM initiative.

The next chapter will investigate the degree of complementarity between themes identified from the review of KM frameworks in this chapter (based on the KM themes generated), with those of the psychosocial work environment as identified by Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017). The aim of carrying out this examination is to create a basis for identifying the factors within the psychosocial work environment which are present in KM initiatives. The extent of complementarity between these two concepts could foster a new line of conversation and engagement between policy makers and practitioners of these concepts toward promoting work organisation and management with the aim of improving people and organisational performance and learning.

Chapter 5 Psychosocial work environment dimensions and knowledge management frameworks: Towards an integrative approach.

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 1 , Chapter 2 and Chapter 4 , have established that our workplaces, work practices and processes have advanced under the influence of novel technology and ever-changing economic and social environments (EU-OSHA, 2015). The emergence of new working conditions has brought about new and emerging challenges for workers and employers. This requires the implementation of various approaches that ensure high levels of safety and health are maintained at work. These evident changes have put the spotlight on people organisation and management within the work environment, and particularly the psychosocial work environment (PWE) which covers aspects of work organisation, design and management which addresses psychological, social and physical outlook of the work environment (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) as depicted in Table 5.1.

Though psychosocial factors do not carry immediate negative connotation, however, when reference is made to psychosocial hazards then it is implied that these aspects of work organisation, design and management have the potential to cause harm to individual health, safety and well-being (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017). The negative psychosocial factors referred to in Table 5.1 are some of the hazards that workers could be exposed to if an organisation does not put in place appropriate initiatives to prevent their occurrence. Failure to deal effectively with these psychosocial hazards could lead to psychosocial risk which have been defined as the potential of psychosocial hazards to cause harm (BSI, 2011). Whether an organisation will have a positive or negative psychosocial work environment will depend on how effectively it promotes the positive psychosocial factors and manages or mitigates psychosocial risks.

To further promote positive PWE adoption, KM has been identified as a concept that can assist with this process because of its incorporation into various organisational work designs (Shrafat, 2018; Karami et. al., 2015). KM has been used in the development, enforcement and articulation of visions and strategies through management support (Akhavan & Pezeshkan, 2014; ISO, 2017). Through such initiatives, senior management have brought together the required knowledge type alongside the appropriate technology needed to execute intended strategies. The similarities between KM attributes and objectives with those of risk management regarding organisation and management of working conditions provides a basis to consider the inclusion of KM in risk management. KM has the potential of preventing risks by mitigating the probable occurrence of hazards thereby promoting risk management (Fuller et al. 2008). To facilitate this however, KM inclusion in risk management must be prioritised. Also, study 1 ascertains that organisations must attain a best-fit approach where all knowledge resources align with the day-to-day operations of the business to ensure maximum performance (ISO, 2017). The expectation is that this approach will be established as a culture that emphasises on the importance of KM as a way an organisation can ensure good performance.

Consequently, this study investigates the extent of complementarity between key KM themes identified in study 1 to those of the PWE as outlined by Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017) and presented in Table 5.1. This approach will determine the potential of KM to complement or facilitate psychosocial risk management in organisations, thereby exploring the efficacy of the KM practice as a viable tool in promoting work organisation and management. In addition, it intends to demonstrate the inclusion of KM themes in the PWE in relation to organisational work designs and systems that enhance people and organisational performance and learning.

5.2 Methodology

A qualitative method has been adopted for this study. The method used is framework analysis (see Chapter 3), as it provides a platform for an in-depth and all-inclusive investigation of the complementarity between KM themes in Study 1 and the PWE dimensions and factors proposed by Leka et al (2017). This will help in identifying themes/factors that are common to both KM and PRM towards affirming the potential of these concepts in promoting each other within an organisation. Evidence provided in Chapter 1 regarding the similarity in the objectives of KM and PRM in improving work organisation and management which includes worker's health and organisational performance, further establishes the importance of this research.

5.2.1 Data generation

The PWE dimensions and psychosocial factors outlined by Leka, Jain & Lerouge (2017) is the framework used in this chapter. This framework by Leka and colleagues have made the latest contribution towards the Psychosocial Work Environmental framework through the consideration and addition of its potential positive factors. Their research has shown that the presence of the PWE factors should not be seen as hazards in themselves, because they could also have a positive connotation to them. Therefore, the choice of this framework is founded on its holistic outlook to factors influencing the PWE and its currency, which is not the case with other frameworks. In addition, the authors have rigorously reviewed and considered other PWE/PRM related factors both at theoretical and practice levels in the development of their framework. This was not the case with KM frameworks, hence the need to undertake Study 1 to establish its themes comprehensively, particularly its functions, operations and processes relating to people. Subsequently, its complementarity with the PWE best practice framework can now be examined.

This formed the basis for examining the coverage of psychosocial factors in the 28 KM frameworks (study 1) as well as the comparison

between KM themes identified in study 1 and the PWE dimensions/factors presented in Table 5.1. The purpose of this research is therefore to first examine the extent to which psychosocial factors are included in KM frameworks, and secondly, to establish the degree of congruence between the themes in both concepts with the intent to explore their potential to promote each other.

Table 5.1: Psychosocial work environment dimensions

Dimensions	**Negative psychosocial work environment**	**Positive psychosocial work environment**
Organisational culture & function	Poor psychosocial safety climate, Poor communication, low levels of support for problem solving and personal development, lack of definition of, or agreement on, organisational objectives	Good psychosocial safety climate, clear organisational objectives, appropriate support for problem solving and personal development, good communication processes
Job content	Lack of variety or short work cycles fragmented or meaningless work, under use of skills, high uncertainty, continuous exposure to people through work	Meaningful work, appropriate use of skills, work retaining employee interest and engagement, appropriate support
Workload & work pace	Work overload or under load, machine pacing, high levels of time pressure, continually subject to deadlines	Appropriate level of workload, appropriate work pace, sensible and achievable deadlines
Work schedule	Shift working (especially irregular), night shifts, inflexible work schedules, unpredictable hours, long or unsociable hours	Sensible shifts and reasonable working hours to maintain work-life balance, flexible working practices
Control	Low participation in decision making, lack of	Participation in decision making, control at work

	control over workload, pacing, shift working	
Environment & equipment	Inadequate equipment availability, suitability or maintenance; poor environmental conditions such as lack of space, poor lighting, excessive noise	Good physical working conditions according to good practice guidance
Interpersonal relationships at work	Social or physical isolation, poor relationships with superiors, interpersonal conflict, lack of social support, harassment, violence	Good relationships at work, teamwork, social support, appropriate policies and procedures to deal with conflicts
Role in organisation	Role ambiguity, role conflict, responsibility for people	Clear roles and responsibilities, appropriate support to meet objectives
Career development	Career stagnation and uncertainty, under promotion or over promotion, poor pay, job insecurity, low social value to work	Appropriate career prospects & development matching skills & performance, effort reward balance, valuable/meaningful work, job security
Home-work interface	Conflicting demands of work and home, low support at home, dual career problems	Work-life balance, supportive organisational policies and practices to achieve 'life balance'

Source: Leka, Jain & Lerouge (2017)

5.2.2 Analysis

The initial stage of data generation involved the familiarisation of the researcher with the PWE dimensions. The purpose is to examine the extent of coverage of psychosocial factors across the ten dimensions, in KM frameworks. Having discussed KM's multi-disciplinary outlook and attributes associated with promoting good working conditions, investigating the influence of KM in promoting a positive PWE is important. Consequently, psychosocial factors where compared with the data set from the analysis of

KM frameworks in Study 1. To determine a match between the various themes from both concepts, an index evaluation was carried out.

Indexing is a process that enables the determination of aspects of data that matches a specific theme. This involved the researcher's familiarisation to key dimensions/factors in PWE through in-depth reading to understand what they meant. Furthermore, the overarching headings/titles given to dimensions/factors were correlated to understand the basis of the groupings embarked upon by the authors. On one hand, the dimensions/factors selected were those discussed and relevant to the aims set by the author(s) in their research objective. On the other hand, factors that were merely mentioned and of no value to the authors' findings, alongside implications or suggested future implications were not considered. Finally, the abstract, authors' own indexing and bibliographic references were scanned for further clues and corroboration. This method was used in allocating pre-existing PWE dimensions/factors (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) to respective KM themes and sub-themes identified in Chapter 4. Adopting Braun and Clarke's (2006) analytical process, the coding stage involved identifying factors of the PWE (Table 5.1) and match them with corresponding KM themes.

In the charting stage, the KM themes (theme-based chart) with no form of alteration were used in determining potential matching themes from the PWE dimensions/factors by assigning themes that best fits to specific KM themes based on their descriptor.

The mapping and interpretation process resulted in the final thematic grid which showcase the extent of similarity between KM themes and PWE factors. Prior to the provision of the final combination of themes, the validity of individual themes was carried out through another review of literature on KM themes and PWE factors to establish that the PWE factors accurately matched pre-defined KM themes/descriptors.

5.3 Findings

This part of the research will evaluate the complementarity between KM themes from Study 1 and PWE factors with the aim to improve working conditions and organisation.

5.3.1 Organisational culture and function

This dimension of the PWE refers to psychosocial factors relating to good psychosocial safety climate, clear organisational objectives, appropriate support for problem solving and personal development, good communication processes (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) alongside matching KM themes as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.2: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Organisational culture and function

Psychosocial dimension	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Organisational culture & function	Good psychosocial safety climate	Organisational culture - Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness by employees & management, which facilitates and encourages collaborative values that increases the propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge.
	Clear organisational objectives and Appropriate support for problem solving	Leadership commitment - Establishing objectives based on decisions made towards goal attainment
	Good communication processes & personal development	Organisational culture - Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness which facilitates and encourages collaborative values of knowledge sharing. Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives
		Organisational Learning - Attainable through training, communication networks, networks of peers and communities of practice

Although, ‘good psychosocial safety climate’ was not distinctly mentioned in any of the KM frameworks, there is however an implied reference based on the existence of trust, openness, and collaborative climate that can foster a positive working environment (Conley and Zheng (16), 2009; Handzic (14), 2010; ISO (28), 2017; Karami et. al. (4), 2015; Lindner & Wald (19), 2011; Nonaka, Toyama & Konno (26), 2000; Shrafat (2), 2018; Witherspoon, Bergner, and Cockrell (27), 2013; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017).

Table 5.2 above also points to the fact that all the psychosocial factors under ‘organisational culture and function’ were covered by KM frameworks. However, it was observed that these factors were spread across KM themes ranging from leadership commitment which addressed organisational objectives and appropriate support for problem solving (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018; Kim & Hancer (15), 2010; Kulkarni (17), 2006; ISO (28), 2017; Ndlela and Toit (20), 2001; Shrafat (2), 2018) and other KM frameworks such as Conley and Zheng (16) (2009); Jones (10) (2009); Sharawy and Abdelghaffar (8) (2017).

The organisational culture dimension addressed good communication processes as captured by various KM frameworks (Conley & Zheng (16), 2009; Goh, (25), 2002; Handzic (14), 2010; Lindner & Wald (19), 2010; Ndlela and du Toit (20), 2001; Nonaka, Toyama & Konno (26), 2000; Shrafat (2), 2018; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017) and organisational learning in KM addressed issues around personal development (Anggia (6), 2013; Conley & Zheng (16), 2009; Handzic (14), 2010; ISO (28), 2017; Jones (10), 2009; Karami et. al. (4), 2015; Lin’s (7), 2013; Shrafat (2), 2018; Witherspoon, Bergner, and Cockrell (27), 2013; Yahya & Goh’s (21), 2002; Zaki and Soliman (3), 2017).

5.3.2 Job Content

The job content psychosocial dimension relates to meaningful work, appropriate use of skills, work retaining employee interest and engagement, and appropriate support (Leka et al., 2017). Findings indicate that each of

these psychosocial factors are included in KM framework themes and descriptors as identified in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Job Content

Psychosocial dimension	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Job Content	Meaningful work	People empowerment - Activities that deals with creating, identifying, sharing, and using knowledge for the purpose of value creation for the organisation.
	Appropriate use of skills	Organisational learning - Facilitates knowledge usage through knowledge transfer systems, while raising the perceived value of the knowledge transmitted through the demonstration of knowledge practicableness by these systems.
	Work retaining employee interest and engagement	Leadership commitment - Instilling consciousness in employees about their responsibilities in KM initiatives
	Appropriate support	All the five KM themes & fourteen Sub-themes were found to meet this criterion

'Meaningful work' was found to be aligned with value generating capabilities, a sub-theme under 'people empowerment' in KM themes in Table 4.2 in Chapter 4 . As identified in Chapter 4 , technology infrastructure, culture, strategy, processes, and learning (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018), technology infrastructure (Conley & Zheng, (16), 2009), organisational technology, structure, and culture and processes (Gold & Malhotra (13), 2001), organisational learning, (Lin (7), 2013), culture, and IT capability (Shrafat (2), 2018), people (Ndlela and du Toit's (20), 2001), and employees' understanding of their competence and confidence (Lin (18), 2007; Witherspoon et al. (27), 2013) were found to be significant in the creation of value and increase in capabilities of employees' at the workplace.

Seven KM frameworks had themes highlighting the provision of activities and techniques for applicability of knowledge by employees (appropriate use of skills). Findings show that organisations can sustain knowledge use by enabling its dissemination and usage through appropriate systems. Shrafat (2) (2018) emphasised the role of policy makers and managers in ensuring the adoption of suitable KM systems. Huang and Lai (9) (2012) and Shrafat also agreed that KM activities play a significant role in KM system acceptance. Other identified frameworks such as Alavi, et al. (22) (2005), Lin (7) (2013), Nonaka et al., (26) (2000) all advocated that the learning capabilities, embedded values, and value systems of an organisation inform how it applies knowledge. This position was also acknowledged by ISO (28) (2017) which referred to the need for a KM culture to sustain the application of KM.

Regarding 'work retaining employee interest and engagement', similar contributions were made in KM frameworks. This was determined as the prerogative of organisational leadership. ISO (28) (2017) referred to the role of top management in allocating responsibilities, defining authority and awareness creation among workers. Along with other KM frameworks (AlShamsi & Ajal's (1), 2018; Conley & Zheng (16), 2009; Fugate et al. (12), 2009; Lin (7), 2013; Lin (18), 2007; Lindner & Wald (19), 2010), the ISO (2017) emphasised on the influence of top management in creating a platform and engaging in a behaviour which stimulates communication and collaboration that are key requirements for creating work which can retain employee interest and engagement. Leadership needs to create an atmosphere where knowledge sharing is beneficial to the knowledge holder (Witherspoon et. al., (27), 2013). In addition, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) and Lindner and Wald (19) (2011) believe that motivation is an intrinsic factor when an organisation is attempting to retain workers' interest and engagement in the workplace. Alavi et al. (22) (2005) explained that this could only be achieved by adopting the right KM tools. It was however noted that all KM themes and sub-themes will be needed in proffering 'appropriate support' in a psychosocial context.

The need for an ‘appropriate use of skills’ is covered by the existence of KM processes which are put in place to ensure that knowledge resources are justifiably used. Findings show that all 109 frameworks reviewed and therefore the final shortlist of 28 KM frameworks referred to the use of KM processes in the effective application of knowledge in the organisation.

5.3.3 Control

This dimension of the PWE comprises of control relating to participation in decision making, and control at work which have been identified as possible hazards if it is not considered in work design (Leka et al., 2017). Table 5.3 presents the KM frameworks that cover the psychosocial factors in this dimension of the PWE.

Table 5.4: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Control

Psychosocial dimensions	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Control	Participation in control and decision making at work	Leadership commitment - Setting up policies & establishing objectives as a way to control workforce towards the attainment of KM goals.
		People empowerment - The degree of knowledge influence facilitated by the level of authority, which causes people with higher authority to share information amongst their peers while employees with lower authority tend to direct information to those with superior authority, based on the capability of the latter to put knowledge to effective use.

The analysis of the KM frameworks indicated that a substantial level of focus is given to decision making within KM. As Table 5.3 illustrates, a comparison between the main factors under the ‘control’ dimension and the KM themes relating to control and decision-making functions highlight the importance attached to these issues by the PWE and KM. Under the ‘leadership commitment’ theme, KM frameworks analysis in study 1

indicated that decision making in organisations is still largely the prerogative of top management who are individuals responsible for establishing the organisational objectives and the determination of how these objectives will be met with given resources (Akhavan & Pezeshkan (5), 2014; AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018; Handzic (14), 2010; ISO (28), 2017; Jones (10), 2009; Karami (4), 2015; Kim, & Hancer (15), 2010; Shrafat (2), 2018; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017; Sharawy & Abdelghaffar (8), 2017).

In addition, KM frameworks by (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018; Conley & Zheng (16), 2009; ISO (28), 2017; Karami, Alvani, Zare, & Kheirandish (4), 2015; Lin (7), 2013; Lin (18), 2007; Shrafat (2), 2018; Witherspoon et. al., (27), 2013; and Yahya & Goh (21), 2002) in Chapter 4 described control and decision making as the extent of authority held by an individual. These frameworks surmised that the more the level of authority possessed by a person, the more they can put knowledge to effective use.

5.3.4 Environment & equipment

As Leka, Jain and Lerouge (2017) stated, organisations are expected to have good physical working conditions based on good practice guidance. They expressed that doing so will ensure the availability of suitable equipment and the avoidance of poor environmental conditions such as the need for space, inadequate lighting or loud noise. As presented in Table 5.4, only four KM frameworks cover this dimension of the PWE.

Table 5.5: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Environment & equipment

Psychosocial dimension	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Environment & equipment	Good physical working conditions according to good practice guidance	Socio-technical capabilities - Physical work space arrangements that facilitates free-knowledge flow amongst group members

Regarding 'environment and equipment' dimension, the KM frameworks rather focused on the arrangement of the physical work space in such a manner that facilitates free-flow of knowledge (Anggia (6), 2013; Goh (25), 2002; ISO (28), 2017; Ndlela & du Toit (20), 2001) as explained under the socio-technical capabilities theme (Chapter 4). The focus for KM is the organisation of work in a way that enables social collaboration between people, and socio-technical exchange between people and technology. While this psychosocial factor acknowledges the need for good physical working conditions, which is the same with KM, it however goes beyond physical space by equally referring to the importance of other factors such as lighting and loud noise and the use of appropriate equipment which are not expressly mentioned in KM frameworks.

5.3.5 Interpersonal relationships at work

This dimension includes psychosocial factors such as good relationships at work, teamwork, social support, appropriate policies and procedures to deal with conflict (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, (2017). Findings show that these psychosocial factors were also covered within KM frameworks as presented in Table 5.6 below.

Table 5.6: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Interpersonal relationships at work

Psychosocial dimension	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Interpersonal relationships at work	Good relationships at work	Organisational culture - Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness from employees & management, which facilitates & encourages collaborative values that increases the propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge.
	Teamwork & social support	People empowerment - Harmonising various knowledge embedded in individual experiences which could be accessed through communities of practice

	Appropriate policies and procedures to deal with conflicts	People empowerment - Harmonising various knowledge embedded in individual experiences involving factors such as adaptation and interpretation of information, past expertise, errors in judgment and other influences that individuals have been through. This forms a source of usable knowledge residing in their minds which could be accessed through communities of practice and network of peers.

In KM, good relationships in the workplace have been closely linked to an organisational culture that encourages the willingness and behaviour of trust among its members. ISO (28) (2017) and Lindner and Wald (19) (2010) established that trust is a result of a positive set of values and attitude among employees which lead to gradual relationship building (AlShamsi & Ajal (1), 2018). A positive relationship creates more goodwill (Ndlela & du Toit (20), 2001). Good relationships increase the exchange of knowledge which further fosters a culture of trust (Shrafat (2), 2018; Zaki and Soliman (3), 2017). Other studies have affirmed that social trust brings about a collaborative climate which addresses relationships between people measured by the level of reliability, openness and honesty (Conley & Zheng (16), 2009; Handzic (14), 2010; Witherspoon et al., (27), 2013).

Regarding teamwork and social support in PWE, the KM theme on people empowerment, through its 'harmonising tacit knowledge' sub-theme has identified the importance of socialisation as an activity which brings people together to share implicit knowledge. Though Nonaka et al. (26) (2000) raised questions about people's willingness to share, Goh (25) (2002) suggested an incentive system could foster teamwork. Zaki and Soliman (3) (2017) put forward the idea that a culture of day-to-day working relationship and communication are essential to team building. While Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (23) (2003) and Lindner and Wald's (19) (2011) agree, they noted the effect of tolerance toward mistakes as driver of knowledge harmonisation among employees. However, leadership should be at the fore-front of the process that cultivates workplace relationship and

cohesiveness to create a significant positive effect on intention and involvement in knowledge sharing (Kulkarni (17), 2006; Liebowitz & Megbolugbe (23), 2003)

It was also observed that other than Sharawy et al. (8) (2017) who advocated for the introduction of community managers to prevent or intervene in conflicts which may affect communities, relationship building or communication, there were no clear suggestions that these psychosocial factors have been thoroughly addressed by KM frameworks.

5.3.6 Role in organisation

Psychosocial work environmental factors related to role in the organisation have been associated with clear roles and responsibilities and appropriate support to meet objectives (Leka et al., 2017) as identified in KM frameworks in Table 5.7

Table 5.7: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Role in organisation

Psychosocial dimension	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Role in organisation	Clear roles and responsibilities	Organisational culture - Standardising the “collective ideals of engagement” to empower & encourage employees in knowledge sharing in order to ensure that employees know what is expected of them across organisational & geographical boundaries
	Appropriate support to meet objectives	All KM descriptors

Regarding ‘clarity of roles and responsibilities’ as a psychosocial factor, KM have specifically addressed the importance of having standardised understanding of what is expected of employees. Furthermore, ISO (28) (2017) and Nonaka et. al. (26) (2000) emphasise on the role and impact of chief knowledge officers and community of practice facilitators in creating knowledge vision that fosters organisational culture.

KM frameworks also addressed ‘distributed leadership’ that allocates responsibilities to individuals based on pre-determined contexts such as experience and expertise. While Kulkarni (17) (2006) was in support of having knowledge champions who are responsible for managing knowledge, Chuang (11) (2004) and Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) indicated that positions whose primary responsibilities are linked with the organisation’s objectives should be developed.

On the ‘appropriate support to meet objectives’ factor, findings show that all KM frameworks emphasise the importance of this. KM frameworks such as AlShamsi & Ajal (1) (2018), ISO (2017) and Shrafat (2) (2018) unambiguously stated the vital role of leadership commitment in meeting organisational objectives. A culture of willingness to share and exchange knowledge to achieve set objectives is relevant (Goh, (25), 2002; Lindner & Wald (19), 2010; Shrafat (2), 2018; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017). Furthermore, sub-themes under people empowerment theme in KM addressed activities which deal with value creation (Gold and Malhotra (13), 2001; Ndlela and du Toit’s (20), 2001; Witherspoon et. al., (27), 2013), authority level (ISO, 2017; Karami et al. (4), 2015; Yahya & Goh (21), 2002), knowledge harmonisation through social behaviour (Lindner and Wald’s (19), 2011; Nonaka et al, (26), 2000; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017) as equally important contributors to the ability of an organisation in meeting its objectives.

The socio-technical capabilities theme in KM also emphasise on the relationship between people and technology (ISO (28) 2017; Kulkarni (17), 2006; Zaki & Soliman (3) 2017) and physical work space arrangement (ISO (28), 2017; Anggia (6), 2013; Goh (25), 2002) as structures that should be considered in the provision of support for employees to meet objectives. Also, organisational learning attainable through increase in skills and competencies enabled by training and communication networks, and communities of practice (Anggia (6), 2013; Jones (10), 2009; Karami et al. (4), 2015; Lin’s (7), 2013; Zaki & Soliman (3), 2017) and the application of knowledge were found to support the achievement of set out objectives

(Alavi, et. al. (22), 2005; Fugate et. al., (12), 2009; Handzic (14), 2010; ISO (28), 2017; Lin (7), 2013; Lindner & Wald (19), 2011).

5.3.7 Career development

The psychosocial factors under the career development dimension includes appropriate career prospects and development matching skills and performance, effort reward balance, valuable/meaningful work, and job security (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, (2017). Findings show that psychosocial themes on 'appropriate career prospects' and 'job security' were not covered in KM frameworks as expressed in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Psychosocial work environment dimensions: Career development

Psychosocial dimension	**Complementing themes**	
	Psychosocial factors	**KM themes**
Career development	Developing matching skills & performance	Organisational Learning - Attainable through training, communication networks, networks of peers and communities of practice in ensuring the capabilities of employees are relatively consistent to accomplish their work & realise the desired values
	Effort reward balance	Organisational culture - Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives
	Valuable/meaningful work	People empowerment - Activities that deals with creating, identifying, sharing, and using knowledge for value creation for the organisation.

The 'developing matching skills and performance' factor under the 'career development' dimension in PWE is represented in the 'improving skills and competencies' sub-theme, under 'organisational learning' in KM. This theme captures training and development as one of the tools of human resource management (Karami et al. (4), 2015; Zaki & Soliman (3), (2017). Anggia (6), (2013) indicated that for a workforce to remain competitive, a

certain level of competency must be attained through training. The framework further established that training creates an avenue for employees and managers to accomplish their responsibilities. Reinforcing these views, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009) referred to training and education as important to improving the skills and competencies of workers, to keep them abreast of new tools and processes that might have been put in place. Training actually empowers and builds the team (Yahya & Goh (21), 2002).

Regarding 'effort reward balance' factor, KM recognised 'motivation', a sub-theme under 'organisational culture' as a key driver. AlShamsi and Ajal (1) (2018), Chuang (11) (2004), Goh (25) (2002), Handzic (14) (2010), and Hsieh and Chen (24) (2003) supported a reward scheme based on the contribution of individuals and teams. Reiterating this, Conley and Zheng (16) (2009), and Kim and Hancer (15) (2010) also noted that reward systems are tools that HR managers use in motivating and incentivising employees to learn and perform. Other frameworks rather made suggestions about self-motivation (Lin (18), 2007; Witherspoon et. al (27), 2013).

While 'valuable and meaningful work' has been captured when discussing 'job content' in Table 5.3, investigations shows that 'appropriate career prospects' and 'job security' are not factors expressly represented in KM frameworks.

5.4 Summary of findings

Table 5.9 presents an overview of the themes and sub-themes which knowledge management and psychosocial work environment have in common based on the findings already presented. It is quite important to observe that neither all KM themes nor all the PWE factors were covered when comparing these concepts. However, there is highly significant complementarity between KM and PWE to create a platform for discussion on how both concepts can promote work organisation and management to enhance people and organisational performance. This can hopefully

energise the engagement of all stakeholders' in fostering a way towards improving working conditions.

Figure 5.1 shows a Venn diagram showing knowledge management as a subset of psycho-social risk management with corresponding themes/factors identified.

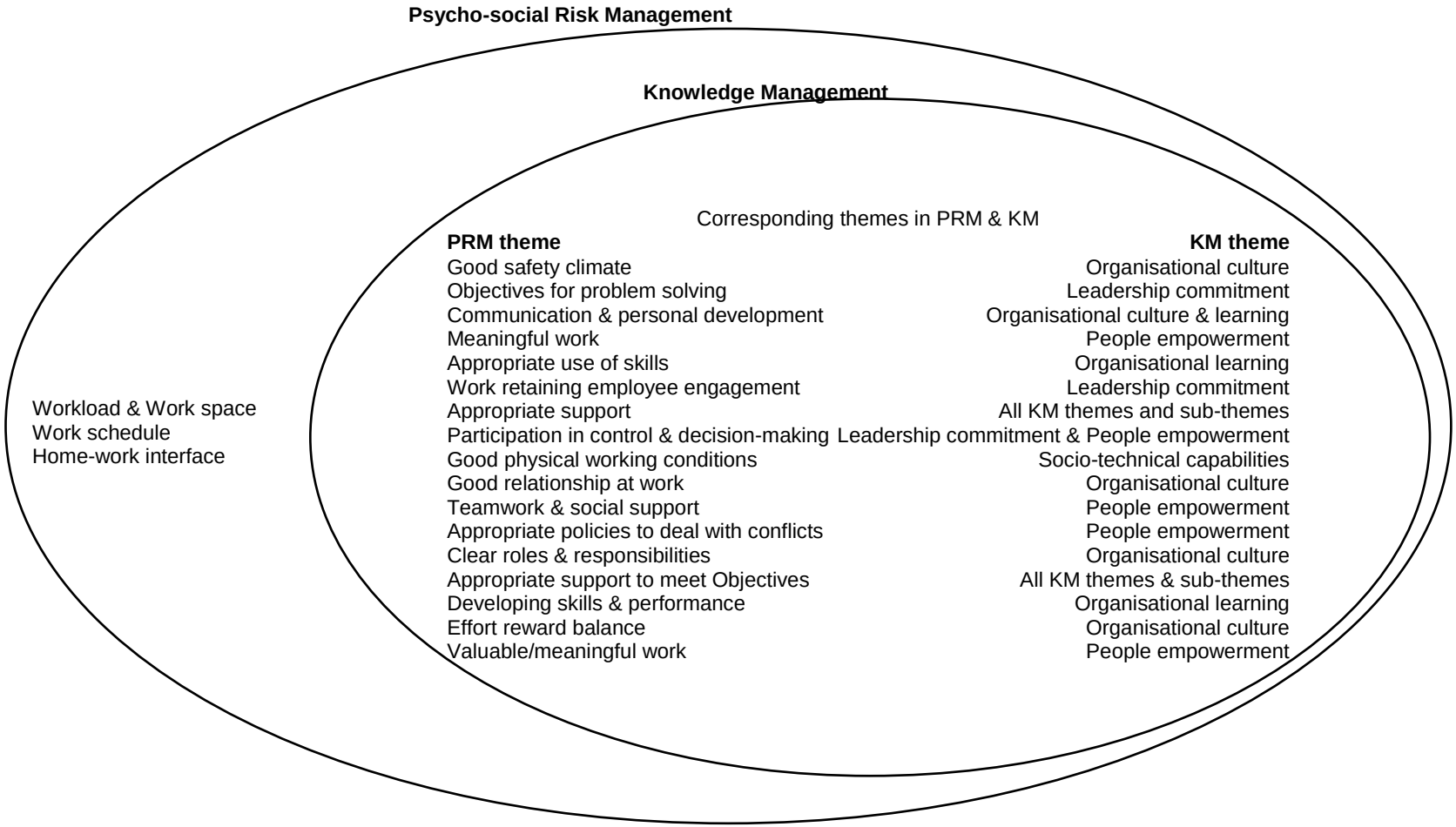


Figure 5.1 Venn diagram – a representative diagram showing the common themes/factors in KM and PRM

Table 5.9: Comparison between PWE factors and KM themes

Complementarity between psychosocial work environment dimensions and knowledge management themes				
PWE		**KM**		
PWE Dimensions	Psychosocial factors	KM Themes	KM sub-themes	KM descriptors
Organisational culture & function	Good psychosocial safety climate	Organisational culture	Trust & openness	Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness by employees & management, which facilitates and encourages collaborative values that increases the propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge
	Clear organisational objectives	Leadership commitment	Articulating and implementing KM visions and strategies	Establishing objectives based on decisions made towards goal attainment
	good communication processes & personal development	Organisational culture	Trust	Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness which facilitates and encourages collaborative values of knowledge sharing
			Motivation	Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives.
		Organisational Learning	Improving skills and competencies	Attainable through training, communication networks, networks of peers and communities of practice.
Job content	Meaningful work	People empowerment	Value generating capabilities	Activities that deals with creating, identifying, sharing, and using knowledge for value creation for the organisation.

	Appropriate use of skills	Organisational learning	Promoting knowledge application	Facilitates access to knowledge usage through knowledge transfer systems, while raising the perceived value of the knowledge transmitted through the demonstration of knowledge practicableness by these systems.
	Work retaining employee interest and engagement	Leadership commitment	Workforce engagement	Instilling consciousness in employees about their responsibilities in KM initiatives
	Appropriate support	All the five KM themes met this criterion	All fourteen sub-themes met the criteria	All KM descriptors met the criteria of this PRM theme
Control	Participation in decision making, control at work	Leadership commitment	Articulating and implementing KM policies and strategies	Setting up policies & establishing objectives to control workforce towards the attainment of KM goals.
		People empowerment	Degree of Knowledge influence facilitated by level of authority	The degree of knowledge influence facilitated by the level of authority, which causes people with higher authority to share information amongst their peers while employees with lower authority tend to direct information to those with superior authority, based on the capability of the latter to put knowledge to effective use.
Environment & equipment	Good physical working conditions according to good practice guidance	Socio-technical capabilities	Physical design	Physical work space arrangements that facilitates free-knowledge flow amongst group members
Interpersonal relationships at work	Good relationships at work	Organisational culture	Trust & openness	Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness by employees & management, which facilitates and encourages collaborative values that increases the

				propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge.
	Teamwork & Social support	People empowerment	Harmonising tacit knowledge	Harmonising various knowledge embedded in individual experiences which could be accessed through communities of practice
	Appropriate policies and procedures to deal with conflicts	People empowerment	Harmonising tacit knowledge	Harmonising various knowledge embedded in individual experiences involving factors such as adaptation and interpretation of information, past expertise, errors in judgment. This forms a source of usable knowledge residing in their minds which could be accessed through communities of practice and network of peers.
Role in organisation	Clear roles and responsibilities	Organisational culture	Roles and responsibilities	Standardising the “collective ideals of engagement” to empower & encourage employees in knowledge sharing in order to ensure that employees know what is expected of them across organisational & geographical boundaries
	Appropriate support to meet objectives	All KM themes in study 1	All KM sub-themes in study 1	All KM descriptors
Career development	Developing matching skills & performance	Organisational Learning	Improving skills and competencies	Ensuring the capabilities of employees are relatively consistent to accomplish their work & realise the desired values
	Effort reward balance	Organisational culture	Motivation	Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives
	Valuable/meaningful work	People empowerment	Value generating capabilities	Activities that deals with creating, identifying, sharing, and using knowledge for value creation for the organisation.

5.5 Discussion

As stated earlier in this chapter, this study aimed to evaluate the PWE factors that are covered in KM. The purpose was to determine the complementarity between the management of the PWE and KM from an organisational context. Findings indicate that KM provides a coverage of several PWE dimensions and factors, since both PRM and KM deal with the organisation and management of people, work processes and the work environment. Generally, it was observed that both KM and PRM have strong focuses on the holistic organisation and management of people and organisational performance and learning. This section will discuss and analyse the key KM themes that can be used in managing the PWE, therefore improving working conditions and work organisation.

5.5.1 Leadership's role in identifying and setting-up required processes and capabilities for building an envisioned organisational culture

Since most activities can be tied around 'culture' within the organisation, KM realises that different functions need to come together for things to work as expected (Holsapple & Joshi, 2002). Otherwise, the lack of functions like communication, people development, education and remuneration and other HRM processes and practices could result to the failure of a KM (Mulolli et al., 2015) or PRM programmes. For instance, this research found significant level of agreement between KM themes and the PWE factors that encourage good communication processes and personal development in organisational culture. KM also asserts that learning tools such as training and communities of practice amongst others are required for these goals to come into fruition (Alavi, et al., 2005; Ghazipour, 2011; Kulkarni, 2006; Valmohammadi, 2010; Zaki & Soliman, 2017). All these resource coordination tools fundamentally fall within the leadership's purview (ISO, 2017)

Though PRM recognises functional roles within organisations as important, while in agreement, KM indicates that leadership have the responsibility to set up objectives and make decisions on how they are to be achieved (ISO, 2017; Madu, 2012; Nonaka et. al., 2000). Furthermore, KM suggests that while the provision of appropriate support for problem solving might be regarded as the job of all stakeholders within an organisation, it emphasises that organisation's top management have to be the driving force behind the programme by providing its employees with the capabilities to handle such problems (Cristina, 2009; Grover et al, 1995; Lin, 2013). Unequivocally, 'leadership commitment' in KM positively mediates 'clear organisational goals' in the PWE.

5.5.2 Employee engagement facilitated by organisational processes, systems and leadership support to create valuable work

KM's position is that to make work meaningful, employees must be empowered (Yahya & Goh, 2002). Empowerment involves enabling employees to acquire skills that will add value to their jobs. This can be achieved through work systems that facilitate the creation, acquisition, sharing and use of knowledge (Debowski, 2006; Fudalinski, 2015; Holsapple & Joshi, 2002; ISO, 2017; McDaid, 2008). Ultimately, the usefulness of knowledge in KM or the type of work done in the organisation is a determinant of meaningful work (Argote et al., 2000; Boumarafi & Jabnoun, 2008; Mills & Smith, 2011). Also, the 'organisational learning' theme in KM and 'job content' dimension of the PWE suggests that the perceived value of knowledge transmitted through organisational systems is what explains whether or not an individual's skills have been put to good use or led to the creation of meaningful work respectively.

Interestingly, KM recognises the need for sustaining employee interest and engagement through the work they do (Biloslavo, 2005; Wang & Wang, 2012). KM believes that leadership has the responsibility to use tools and strategies to ensure that engagement is sustained (Madu, 2012; Rangachari, 2010). Apart from policies and procedures that can be put in

place to control employees' actions, KM initiatives have recommended that top management can use reward and incentive systems to achieve this same objective (Du Plessis, 2007; Hsieh and Chen, 2003; Salmani, 2005; Siemsen et al., 2007). However, even though sustainability is not expressly mentioned within the PWE, such activities like ensuring 'meaningful work' (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) suggest that sustainability is a consideration in PWE too. Regarding the 'provision of appropriate support' factor, it was not possible to single out any KM theme as suitable. Rather, the five main KM themes and their fourteen sub-themes all play an important role in providing workers and managers with the help they need in achieving set targets.

5.5.3 Work control enabled by employee's position, degree of delegation and expertise

At least fourteen KM frameworks identified that people in top management or leadership level have greater control over their work than at other levels because their position enables them to make decisions pertaining to their jobs (Applen, 2002; ISO,2017; Kauffman et al., 2010) and these decisions are backed by policies and procedures (Kulkarni, 2006). Another nine KM frameworks indicated that the level of authority an individual possesses could be a function of a unique skill they possess (Fahey, 2000; Jashapara, 2011; Ndlela & du Toit, 2001) which places them in a position to determine how they accomplish their work.

The lack of authority by lower level managers and employees, hence the dependability on people in top management makes their decision-making capabilities limited and also subject to scrutiny. Observations from KM frameworks reviewed shows that authority and decision-making powers could be acquired either through an individual's post in the organisation (Conley & Zheng, 2009; Davenport et al. 1998) or the extent of powers delegated to them because of their expertise or experience (Davenport et al., 1998; Lindner, & Wald, 2011). 'Control' as a dimension of the PWE supports the attention this issue has received in KM frameworks,

highlighting that managing ‘control’ is important for both KM and PRM initiatives.

5.5.4 Re-aligning the definition of work space between KM and the PWE to ensure a holistic KM and PRM programme

In comparison to the ‘environment and equipment’ dimension in the PWE, KM frameworks seem to address only a narrow aspect in this case. While the PWE is advocating for good physical working conditions which includes the use of equipment, KM focuses solely on the use of physical space as an avenue to foster relationship building, teamwork, communication, trust and other qualities which enhances collaboration among employees (ISO, 2017). Although recognising the usefulness of physical space is important, the suitability and arrangement of tools and equipment, and the general ambience of the workplace are areas that KM should equally investigate. This is particularly required in present-day organisations due to unavoidable interactions which between man and machines. Although studies show that KM recognises the role of technology in work organisation and management which include work equipment (ISO (2017), it does not seem to have made provision on how they should be handled or organised in the workplace.

5.5.5 Social relationships and support systems instituted on trust, openness, conflict prevention and intervention among employees

To build the kind of relationship expected between people working within an organisation, willingness (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Lin, 2007; Sharawy et al., 2017; Witherspoon et. al., 2013) and trusting culture (Brand, 1998; Chow & Chan, 2008; Handzic, 2010) were identified as fundamental themes. There must be a sustained series of activities for it to be ingrained in the culture of the organisation. This will enable ‘interpersonal relationship’ to become a ‘natural’ occurrence among workers. The main purpose of this approach is for the benefits derivable in form of knowledge exchange and

empowerment of employees to achieve their work objectives in more efficient ways.

Furthermore, ‘good relationship at work’ is closely linked with good ‘teamwork and social support’ as acknowledged in the PWE dimensions. Team cohesion and collaborative support systems are activities that makes an organisation more effective (Brand, 1998). They facilitate easy transfer of knowledge which resides in people’s head (Debowski, 2006; Ndlela & du Toit, 2001; Valmohammadi, 2010). Studies advocated that the more the trust between individuals and the organisation, the more likely the willingness to share information (Lindner, & Wald, 2011). It is also important to bring to fore that teamwork or social support should not be limited to the members of a group but should rather be a chain of activities that occur both intra and inter team across the whole organisation (Goh, 2002). In effect, teamwork and social support need to be infused into the daily operation of the organisation (Biloslavo, 2005; Karami et al., 2015).

The problem with employees’ not willing or trusting to share information is attributable to the authority or power individuals derive from holding unto such knowledge and using it as leverage to remain ‘relevant’ to the organisation (Chong et. al., 2014). Realising this possibility, organisations which practice KM have put in place reward systems which encourages and acknowledges individuals or teams who share knowledge. By this effort, KM can foster an environment of good social interaction. Similarly, incentive systems have been put in place to encourage people to engage in relationship building activities. Although Lin, (2007) would argue that a socially interactive culture should rather be driven by top management as opposed to dependency on extrinsic motivation.

One area which has not been comprehensively addressed in KM is conflict that may arise in teams. Pastor (2011) noted the need for consistent interaction and monitoring of teams to reduce conflict as failure to do so could lead to social or physical isolation, lack of social support or interpersonal conflict. While PRM emphasises on the importance of policies

and procedures that deal with conflicts, which should be driven by organisational leadership, hence signifying the importance it attaches to conflict resolution. However, KM has not addressed this in detail.

5.5.6 Role as a function of work boundary and objectives, and the extent of access to resource control and decision-making power

Apart from the 'appropriate support to meet objectives' factor in PWE, which cuts across all KM themes, the role of individuals is one area which PRM and KM have identified as vital to the operation of an organisation. In agreement with the 'role in organisation' dimension in PWE, KM has established the importance of having clarity of roles and responsibilities in an organisation (Conley & Zheng, 2009). KM advocates that to achieve this, there is a need to have people who can lead such programmes (Kulkarni, 2006; ISO, 2017). This is useful in assigning roles to people, while equally holding them accountable for the contributions they make towards organisational objectives.

In addition, one would expect that role assignment gives the employee specific ideas of their function within the organisation, thereby creating certain expectations to the owners of the business. Similarly, establishing roles and responsibilities give a definitive boundary to employees regarding information such as the degree of resource control or decision-making powers they possess (Tseng, 2010). In retrospect, the more control or decision-making powers an individual has, the more likely they can accomplish their responsibilities with less difficulties. As earlier ascertained however, apart from a documented description of the job, an individual's role could also be a function of their position or skill in the organisation (Ndlela & du Toit, 2001).

5.5.7 Value creation, technological and reward systems as catalysts for acquiring skills for career development and organisational learning

The importance of ‘meaningful work’ in the PWE have been addressed in the ‘job content’ dimension which addressed value creation. Regarding career development, it is clear to see that for employees to achieve career growth, their work must be of value in attaining intended organisational objectives. While there is no clear affirmation of this in studies 1 and 2 of this thesis, the case-study analysis in Study 3 aims to investigate this.

Although the PWE associates the ‘development of skills and performance’ as a factor required for career development (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017), the KM frameworks reviewed in Chapter 4 have identified activities such as training, communication, and communities of practice as the means through which organisations learn (Akhavan & Pezeshkan 2014; Anggia, 2013; Karami, Alvani, Zare, & Kheirandish, 2015; Lin, 2013; Shrafat, 2018; Zaki & Soliman, 2017). While this may be the case, it is important to draw the connection between the relevant KM theme and the PWE factor. Although the PWE discusses the ‘development of skills and performance’ in terms of career development of individuals, a presumption that these same criteria will result in organisational learning is not farfetched. As people improve their skills and performance, ultimately, the organisation benefits from this by having individuals who have more expertise in what they do (Jashapara, 2011; Jasinskas et al., 2015).

Also, through the opportunity that technological systems offer, the organisation can codify the skills and processes that lead to performance, for re-use (Debowski, 2006). The link between the two themes are obvious as career development focuses on the individual, while organisational learning is attained from the combined skills and performances of employees (Choi et al., 2010; Shaabani et al., 2012; Zaied, 2012).

Both PRM and KM acknowledge that rewards have a role to play regarding motivating people to acquire the skills that will improve their performance (Yahya & Goh, 2002). In line with PWE's reference to 'effort reward balance' (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) which suggested compensation to the employee based on the evaluation of work done, KM uses reward as a means of distinguishing people who have contributed to the processes involved in knowledge exchange (Handzic, 2010; Hsieh & Chen, 2003; Siemsen et al., 2007). KM however takes it a step further by introducing incentive systems which are intended to encourage people to become involved in the knowledge sharing process (Kulkarni, 2006).

This method was referred to as the pull and push reward system. Du Plessis (2007) explained that the push reward could use performance appraisals to reward individuals based on their participation in the KM programme. On the other hand, the author stated that the pull reward system provides incentive for people by giving them an opportunity to showcase their ideas on an innovative platform put in place by an organisation. One could surmise that the 'effort reward balance' theme in the PWE would have to investigate how to incorporate the 'pull' approach in its reward and incentive system. Ultimately, the aim of any form of motivation is to facilitate the involvement of people in a process.

5.5.8 Further observations

Subject to investigations, there was no clear evidence that KM have considered the 'workload and work pace' dimension in the PWE which consists of the following factors: appropriate level of workload, appropriate work pace, sensible and achievable deadlines which are identified as potential factors that could result in risk in the workplace, if not properly handled (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017; WHO, 2010). KM have equally not shown enough evidence of coverage of 'work schedule' dimension as a main KM theme. Factors covered in this PWE dimension relate to: sensible shifts and reasonable working hours to maintain work-life balance, and flexible working practices. Furthermore, the home-work interface dimension

with factors including: work-life balance, supportive organisational policies and practices to achieve ‘life balance’ would require further review in terms of their existence in KM.

Alternately, sub-themes relating to sustainability which is a process of evaluating the impact of KM and locating areas for improvement and the storage of knowledge for re-use, was not expressly captured in the PWE. However, the cyclical design of the PRM framework model (European Framework for Psychosocial Risk Management – PRIMA-EF) at the enterprise level (Leka et al. (2008) demonstrates the consideration for continuous and sustainable management of the psychosocial work environment by the authors. There were no obvious factors in the PWE that addressed ‘integrative social and technological systems’ as is the case in KM. However, the interaction between social and technological systems in itself could be the basis for a risk assessment. Two other KM sub-themes under ‘organisational learning’ discusses the ‘expectations and intentions of the recipient and sharer of knowledge’, and another focused on the ‘use of knowledge enabled through transfer systems’ for usage by the organisation, are not explicitly indicated in the PWE dimensions. To discountenance this submissions, the mentioned KM themes could well fall under the purview of ‘meaningful work’ factor in the ‘job content’ dimension and the ‘appropriate support for problem solving’ factor in the ‘organisational culture and function’ dimension in the PWE, depending on the scope of the research description.

These seemingly obvious differences could be further investigated by assessing how they are managed in a real-life organisations. A case-study approach will explore the creation, transfer and use of KM-related themes by managers to improve working conditions and organisation. This research will further establish a basis to recommend KM in managing working conditions and organisation while complementing PRM.

5.6 Conclusion

Having established the complementarity between KM themes and the PWE factors, the next chapter will analyse how knowledge is being used within an organisation. To achieve this, a case study analysis will be conducted.

Findings and analysis in Chapter 6 will further determine what knowledge-related themes exist in organisations and how the existence or absence of these themes may improve or disrupt working conditions and organisation of work respectively. Consequently, this thesis will further establish the link between KM themes and the management of the PWE factors. This will then inform the evidence to support the adoption of KM in promoting PRM in managing the PWE. This justification should further intensify discussions on the benefits of a knowledge risk management approach to managing the psychosocial work environment.

Chapter 6 Exploring the potential of KM in promoting PRM to improve working conditions and maximise organisational performance

6.1 Introduction

The presence of KM in organisations has led to improvement in work organisation and management (Jashapara, 2011; Debowski, 2006). Equally, the absence of KM in organisations leads to less than optimal productivity and performance due to increased number of employees experiencing stress and work-related accidents. More importantly, the changing work environment because of new forms of work have increased discussions around managing the work environment (Burgard et al. 2012; Leka & Sinclair, 2014) (see Chapter 1). This involves exchanges between job content, work organisation and management, and other organisational and environmental factors. This is necessitated because of the potential exposure of employees' to 'harmful' work-related experiences and factors which may impact negatively on the well-being of employees (ILO, 2016; ISO, 2017), whilst negatively influencing productivity and performance in an organisation.

On this premise, this chapter aims to complement study 2 by exploring the understanding and use of knowledge by managers in the working environment and examine how the management of knowledge can improve working conditions and maximise organisational performance. This investigation explores what knowledge themes exists in an organisation and how they are used in managing work and the work environment. Consequently, the chapter will identify priorities for action at the enterprise level. Having confirmed the similarities in KM themes and the PWE factors in Study 2, this study will further verify the complementarity between KM themes and the PWE factors in practice. Since KM themes and the PWE factors complement each other, and Psychosocial Risk Management (PRM) is used in managing the PWE, analysing how KM helps in promoting

psychosocial factors in a real-life organisation would further promote discussions in favour of including KM in risk management and thereby promote PRM.

Adopting a case study approach, this chapter uses both documentary and interview data to interpret and analyse how a multi-national Fast-Moving-Consumer-Goods (FMCG) organisation can create, store and utilise knowledge in achieving people and organisational objectives.

6.2 A Fast-Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) manufacturing multi-national company in Nigeria

Despite the multi-national presence of the selected company, its employees in Nigeria are mostly indigenous people representing over 99% of its workforce as explained by Human Resource managers. This will suggest the tendency for the exhibition of inherent traits regarding people-related issues in the organisation resulting from existing societal norms and values known to the African culture (Amoako-Agyei, 2009). In this organisation, the hierarchical system of management is synonymous with centralisation of power. This makes the ideal manager a benevolent autocrat that subordinates look up to for instructions. However, the current injection of young career-driven people into its workforce could be 'forcing' the organisation towards a more decentralised approach to management.

In addition, the 'collectivist' nature of the wider Nigerian culture which fosters strong relationships tends to assign responsibilities to everyone within the organisation. However, this may not necessarily translate into decision-making privileges because loyalty is a paramount part of Nigerian's culture. Therefore, it could be expected that respect to authority may yet be an essential part of relationships in the organisation, despite the drive for personal career goals. The autocratic tendencies and expected loyalty to authority drives the "live in order to work" approach where managers are expected to be decisive and assertive. In most Nigerian organisations, there

is emphasis on equity, competition and performance, while conflicts are generally resolved in unconventional ways.

The generally laid-back approach towards the avoidance of potential future risks, mostly based on the notion that the future cannot be known could impact on the management style adopted by this organisation compared to its branches in other parts of the world. This could also inform the culture of an organisation in Nigeria at relying on tested and proven management styles, therefore staying normative, rather than being pragmatic by preparing for the future. This cultural stance could be caused by the nature of people in this Nigerian-based organisation to act on impulses and a positive attitude and a tendency towards optimism. Therefore, without having to worry about 'tomorrow' they can act leisurely and indulge themselves in living for each day.

This case-study is centred around a multi-national company which was incorporated in the United Kingdom in 1884 and in Nigeria in 1948 and became a public company quoted on the London Stock Exchange (LSE) in 1953 where it had its principal activity as general merchant in the West African coast since 1899 (Company website, 2018). The organisation's interest now includes businesses in Nigeria, Ghana, Kenya, Indonesia, Thailand, Australia, the UK, Poland, Greece and the Middle East. The Company's range of products include personal care, food and nutrition, home care and electrical all of which are distributed throughout Nigeria. To narrow the focus of the management and operation teams along product categories and hence improve efficiency, the organisation introduced Strategic Business Units (SBUs) as presented in Figure 6.1.

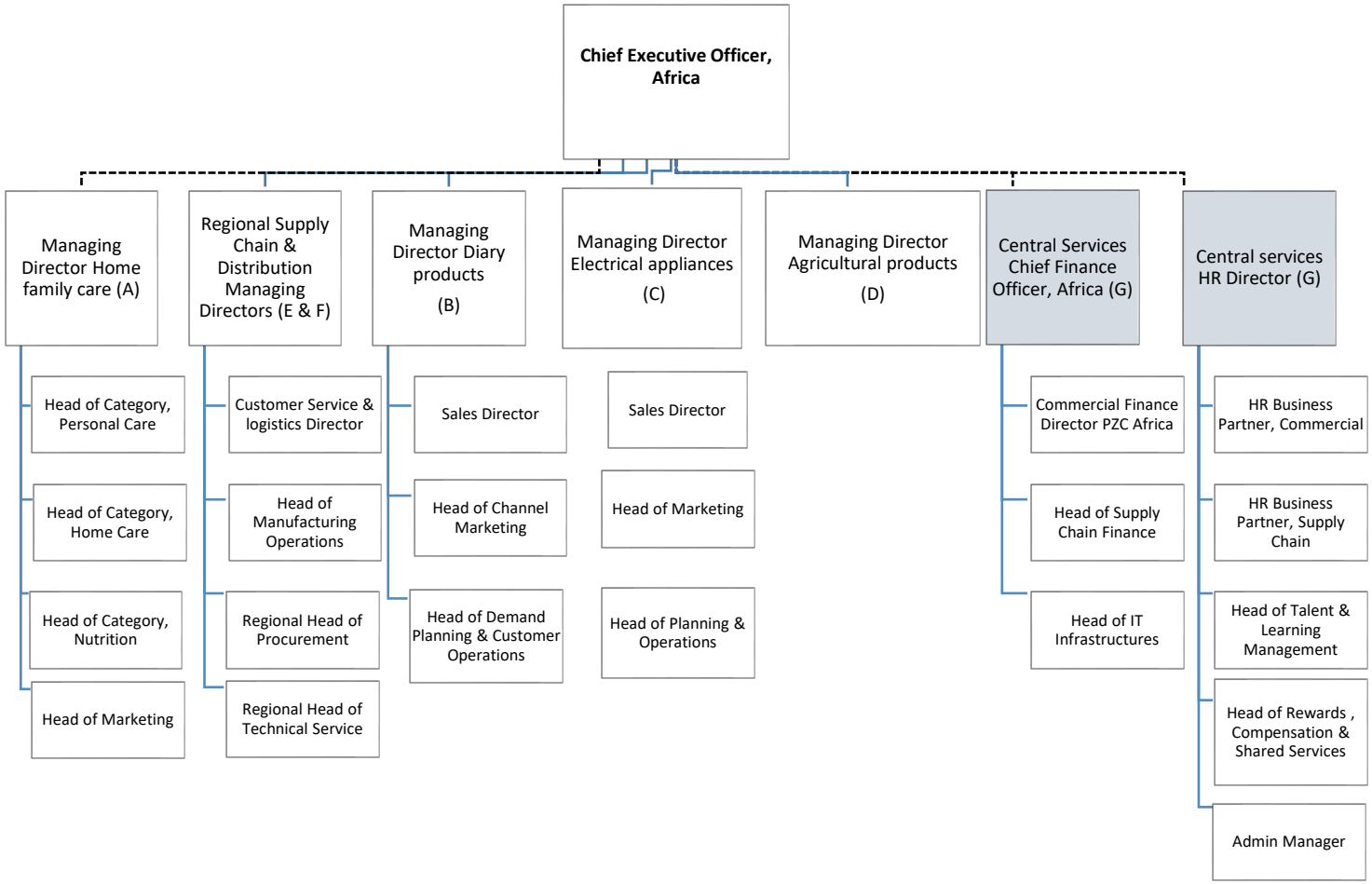


Figure 6.1: Simplified organisational chart showing Strategic Business Units (SBUs)

The modified organisational chart reflects the relationship between the managerial levels in the organisation. The Chief Executive Officer (CEO) is level 0. Managing Directors (MDs) are level 1; Directors are level 2, General Managers/Heads of department are level 3, Regional heads/Senior Executives are level 4, while Junior Executives are level 5; and Managers are level 6. Each of its 6 SBUs and the Central services unit have independence of action (Company website, 2018). Its official website also stated that with over 3,500 people in the organisation's workforce, each SBU has full control and responsibility over its sales and costs. Its management team is fully responsible and accountable for its results.

Consequently, the identification of factors that may influence KM outcomes in this type of organisation can potentially lead to huge payoffs (Alavi, 2006). This explains why the organisation has been selected for this research due to the significant opportunities and challenges that can be associated with KM and activities related to the management of the PWE in large companies.

Secondly, large scale and systematic KM and PWE initiatives are mostly encountered in large organisations considering the high levels of organisational resources required for the implementation of such systems. As a result, the quantum of interest sought in this investigation could only be derived in the context of a large company with a track record in managing knowledge-based projects in a complex work environment. Also, the degree of accessibility of the researcher to attain required documents for investigative purposes and having access to managers within the company facilitated the recruitment of this company as a case-study site.

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Case study research

Despite the tendency for researchers to choose the single most appropriate source of evidence, Yin (2014, p. 119) stated that “using one source of evidence in case study research is not recommended”.

Therefore, this research is adopting two sources of evidence, documentary data and semi-structured interviews, in its case study design. Understanding that there might be differences in word connotation and denotation in the analysis of documents, the study will use interviews as another source of evidence that will provide insightful explanation of meanings and views to help confirm or disprove inferences from the documentary analysis. The use of interviews as an additional method of data collection also enables a targeted focus on the research questions which need to be answered, rather than solely relying on documents that were “written for some specific purpose and audience other than those of the case-study being done” (Yin, 2014). Furthermore, the fluidity of the case-study interview (Rubin & Rubin, 2011), described as “intensive” or “in-depth” interview by Weiss, (1994, p. 207 - 208) will enable this research to pursue a line of enquiry that reflects the research objectives.

By adopting the use of both documentary and interview evidence in a single-case design (Yin, 2014), this research hopes to reduce the bias or inaccuracies that using only one method may cause, as the researcher anticipates using one method as a check to the other, to help arrive at outcomes that best addresses the research questions. The single case of asking developers and users of KM to reveal the main considerations in managing knowledge will explore a stakeholder’s view on the role of PRM and KM and priorities for action at the enterprise level.

6.3.2 Documentary evidence

As noted in Chapter 3 documents form a part of our everyday life and are useful in our social processes (Jain et. al., 2014). In an organisational context, the use of documents is irreplaceable in the way businesses use written policies and procedures to influence intra-organisation relations to foster performance. Furthermore, the difficulties that may be encountered while attempting to access these documents gives credibility to such protected documents. Therefore, the strength of using documents as data lies in the unbiased view of authors in its creation and purpose. The validity of these documents is further accentuated since they were not created with the researcher in mind.

Policies are captured and expressed through texts, practices, symbols and discourses that define and deliver values that could have positive or negative attributes (Schneider & Ingram, 1997) from time to time. These policies are not static even when they are imbedded in laws and regulations, but rather continually change based on policy decisions made by people implementing them.

Notwithstanding, from a social science standpoint, the focus of this research is to adopt a policy analysis approach in scrutinising the contributions of organisational policy towards examining whether psychosocial work and work environment factors are appropriately represented in modern KM initiatives with the aim to fostering people and organisational performance, and organisational learning. Furthermore, the research will investigate organisational practices and drivers that may affect effective implementation of policies. This analysis will form part of the framework that will include key policy-related factors that are critical to the promotion of people, organisational performance and organisational learning.

On this basis, this research has identified and extracted documents that addresses people practices, organisational learning and performance,

and management from the standpoint of managers. This will enable the investigation and recognition of people-related themes that are considered important by the organisation. The twelve policies adopted all addresses various targets and expectations of the organisation in terms of the people that will work or are working within it. For instance, some policies focus on getting the 'right' people (policy 1); measuring and improving employee performance (policies 2 – 5, 8, 9); employee well-being (policies 5 – 7); career development and role clarity (policies 10 – 11); and resolving social issues within the organisation (policy 12) (see Table 6.1).

Documents excluded were those that do not focus on people-related procedures or guidelines in organising and managing work. For instance, company vehicle and machine maintenance policies were excluded due to their focus on operational processes rather than the operator. Whereas, the occupational health and safety policy of the company was included due to its primary focus on the wellbeing of those who drive the vehicles or maintain the machines.

These policies will allow an evaluation which is high on people orientation by assessing probable practical constraints that policy practitioners could encounter while implementing policies that directly impact on people, and how employees might be affected positively or otherwise. Despite Weimer and Vining's (1992) statement that policy analysis has little academic interest, this study would affirm that documentary analysis is necessary at an organisational level to fully determine the challenges that could be encountered by policy users in the effective implementation of policy documents leading to the enhancement of knowledge usage by employees.

Therefore, to fully understand the importance of policies and procedures in shaping how work is organised and managed in the workplace and its influence on employees', a documentary data analysis gives clear meanings to aspects of policy documents and procedures which

could be tailored to address the psychological, social and physical needs of employees.

This research embarked on a rigorous review of the company documents using thematic analysis to analyse them. At the same time, a reflexive approach was used when analysing the contents of the documents to remain impartial to the 'politics' that surround documentary data sources.

6.3.2.1 Data Collection

The documents in Table 6.1 were selected based on their potential to determine the drivers for people and organisational performance and learning from a KM and PRM perspective.

Table 6.1: List of relevant company policies and procedures

Policies and procedures reviewed	**Purpose**	**Number allocation**
Global Policy and Procedure for Recruitment	To establish a fair, consistent and effective method for attracting and recruiting suitably qualified people with the skills, knowledge, experience and behaviour required to deliver business strategy. To ensure attraction and recruitment activities are compliant with local employment legislation. To enhance reputation as an employer of choice and a great place to work	1
Global Policy and Procedure for Managing performance	Support employees in performing their role to the best of their ability, maximising their engagement and their contribution to business objectives. Highlight the potential that each must develop within their current or towards a future position. Establish a fair, consistent and effective method for measuring and defining the performance required to achieve objectives, demonstration of competencies and their alignment to organisational values	2
Global Policy and Procedure for Managing Under - performance	To support and encourage employees to achieve and maintain high standards of performance, behaviour and skills in their role. To establish a fair, consistent and effective approach for managing areas of under-performance providing employees with every opportunity to improve their performance, behaviour and skills. To provide clarity on	3

	where a performance issue should be dealt with using informal process, capability process or disciplinary process	
Learning and development procedure	To ensure that as an organisation, employees are developed to gain requisite competencies, knowledge, technical skills and attitude required to carry out their jobs effectively both now and, in the future, to achieve business objectives.	4
Occupational Health and Safety Management manual	It encourages staff to prevent unsafe acts, perceived risks, correcting and preventing accidents, and developing a mind-set, which constantly seeks a better way of doing things	5
Senior staff handbook	To communicate rules, regulations and procedures specific to senior staff	6
Junior staff handbook	To communicate rules, regulations and procedures specific to junior staff	7
Global Leadership and talent development	To help the organisation support, underpin and align strategic pillar for people in order to attract, engage and develop CANDO people	8
Graduate trainee procedure	Aimed at attracting highly motivated and dynamic University graduates with potentials to excel as future leaders. It serves as a supply of high potentials for the talent pipeline	9
Career path guidelines	To help employees navigate their career path within the organisation. A key driver for employee attraction, engagement and retention. It fosters internal mobility and addresses the needs of the broader employee population. It shifts employee's mind-set from a focus on vertical progression to horizontal progression (Employee value proposition)	10
Role profile guidelines	To determine the following: job purpose, reporting relationships, dimensions, principal accountabilities, internal and external relationships, knowledge, skills and experience needed, skills and competencies, and job context and special features	11
Workplace grievance procedure	A platform for employees who believe that they have been unjustly and unfairly treated to have the opportunity to submit their grievance for examination without fear or victimisation	12

6.3.2.2 Analysis

Using thematic analysis to analyse the documentary data collected, according to Braun and Clarke's (2006) guidelines (see Chapter 3), a systematic review and re-reading of the above policies was carried out to identify, acquaint, infer and record interesting and re-current themes and ideas (Gee, 2011; Rapley, 2007). During the first reading, markings and comments were made on various areas of interest. On the second reading, key words within policy documents were compared, leading to the generation of initial codes. These codes where then grouped to determine themes which were then reviewed and applied to the documentary data. The emergence of themes was based on the active mapping, description and interpretation of the main features within reviewed documents.

Subsequently, some of the identified themes were renamed, expanded or modified to accommodate the taxonomies found in the company's policy documents, relating to how knowledge and work environment is being organised and managed. To attain a comprehensive and equally realistic level of theme classification, the coding exercise was carried out on three occasions. Originally, there were 9 first order themes and 24 second order themes. However, after two further reviews which involved the re-alignment, modification, combination and removal of themes, the final 6 first order themes and 16 second order themes were achieved with detailed descriptors (see Table 6.3). To enable easy traceability and authenticate the sources of these themes and sub-themes, Table 6.3 highlights the documents (policies and procedures) where themes originated from.

6.3.3 Interviews

A semi-structured interview approach is adopted which gives the interviewer and the interviewee an opportunity to pursue an idea or give response in more detail (Gill et al., 2008, p. 291) respectively. Thirteen semi-structured interview questions were developed (see appendix 1) to

comprehensively investigate the drivers to people and organisational performance and learning which influences work organisation and management. Irrespective of challenges in conducting interviews, the development of a suitable interview guide and the interviewer's skills facilitated an increase in the quality of the interview data collected and the attainment of satisfactory conclusions from it.

The interview guide (see Appendix 1) was developed by considering the key factors involved in the organisation and management of work by managers and people's involvement. Prior to the final guide, experts in Human Resource field both in academia and practice were consulted to review the guide and offer their professional opinion on relevant questions regarding improving organisational performance objectives through people functions. These questions were structured in a manner that does not give interview participants an insight into the psychosocial risk aspect of the research. This approach was taken due to the disposition of African people to be evasive or give biased response when discussing issues relating to their psychological, social and state of wellbeing. Therefore, the interview questions were set to ask questions about everyday roles and functions of people in the organisation. This further validated the reliability of data collected, analysed and compared with key themes in KM and PRM.

6.3.3.1 Procedure

Prior to the interview, participants received a research consent form, information sheet, and a copy of the interview questions. This helped participants to make an informed decision to take part in the study, while also providing them with adequate time for preparation and seek clarification to questions they may have. To provide a true account of professional viewpoints and to avoid misinterpretation of data, interviews were audio recorded and transcribed with the participants' written consent (see sample in Appendix 1). Participants were assured of the confidentiality of the research data, through access restriction and secured storage, in line with the Data Protection Act (1998).

6.3.3.2 Data collection

The study had a sample size of 42 managers representing 40% of managers in the organisation. These managers are spread across 6 SBUs and 1 Central Unit of the organisation with 6 managerial category levels as explained earlier on. As illustrated in Table 6.2 below, 4 of these SBUs makes and sells varieties of products like personal and home care products, dairy products, assembling electrical products, agricultural products, while supply chain and distribution SBUs are process-based. The central unit interacts with the 6 other SBUs by providing vital activities and support ranging from recruitment, training, learning and development, policy implementation and roll-out and research and development (R&D) to mention a few. For the ease of discussing the findings of the interview, each of these SBUs is represented by alphabets A to G as shown in the SBU column in Table 6.2 below.

In addition, the table cover the years of service of managers and a diverse range of functional roles they occupy within the business. The table also captures the ratio of male to female managers that were interviewed. This table depicts the depth and scope of data collected in terms of adequacy, conciseness and manageability to get the best possible results. All the managers interviewed manage and use knowledge within their SBUs. Each interview lasted for approximately 50 to 70 minutes per respondent and were conducted over a 90-day period (July to September 2017). All the interviews were recorded via Skype and then transcribed on word document for data analysis.

Table 6.2 Diverse functional and operational role of respondents across the SBUs

SBU	Respondents code	Gender	Function	Managerial Level	Number of years in role
	T12	M	Strategic Business Unit management (SBM)	2	14

Home Family Care (A)	T2	F	Human resource management (HRM)	4	8
	T5	M	Product development management (PDM)	3	9
	T7	M	Quality assurance management (QAM)	5	2
	T18	M	Research and Development (R&D)	4	11
	T33	M	Research and Development (R&D)	4	11
	T22	M	Sales management (SM)	4	2
	T24	F	Distribution management (DM)	4	3
	T25	M	Finance planning and customer operations (FPCO)	4	6
	T29	M	Marketing management (MM)	4	3
Dairy Products (B)	T34	M	Human resource management (HRM)	5	2
	T40	M	Trade management (TM)	6	2
	T37	M	Marketing management (MM)	3	8
	T27	M	Sales management (SM)	5	2
	T39	M	Quality assurance management (QAM)	3	9
Electrical Appliances (C)	T30	M	Sales management (SM)	5	4
	T1	F	Human resource management (HRM)	4	8
	T9	M	Sales management (SM)	3	9
	T35	M	Marketing management (MM)	5	4
	T21	M	Sales management (SM)	4	7
	T13	M	Commercial management (CM)	3	11
Agricultural Products (D)	T38	M	Human resource management (HRM)	5	2
	T23	M	Sales management (SM)	5	10
	T31	M	Trade management (TM)	6	1

	T42	M	Customer Service and Traditional trade management (CSTTM)	5	3
	T3	M	Research and Development (R&D)	4	7
Supply Chain (E)	T20	M	Supply Chain management (SCM)	4	2
	T11	M	Human resource management (HRM)	3	-
	T36	M	Factory management (FM)	4	2
	T41	M	Factory management (FM)	5	4
	T26	M	Commercial and trade management (CTM)	6	3
Distribution Services (F)	T14	M	Distribution management (DM)	5	5
	T17	M	Distribution management (DM)	5	6
	T28	M	Customer service management (CSM)	5	5
	T4	M	Logistics management (LM)	6	4
	T32	M	Accounts management (AM)	5	4
Central Services (G)	T19	F	Training management (TM)	3	11
	T6	F	Learning and Development management (L&D)	5	6
	T8	M	Learning and Development management (L&D)	5	5
	T10	M	Human resource management (HRM)	4	4
	T15	F	Training management (TrM)	4	7
	T16	M	Compensation and Benefit management (CBM)	4	8

Data collected was transcribed and read repeatedly with a view to familiarise, extrapolate and comment on various points of interest. Subsequently, interview transcripts were summarised with the purpose of generating initial codes based on identified key discussion areas. The coding phase of analysis entailed identifying and grouping key words emanating from the responses of managers from semi-structured interviews. The emerging codes were then sorted into potential themes by assigning the coded data extracts to themes that best captures their meaning. Initially, there were twelve themes that were colour-coded alongside with the interview question and the answer the respondents have provided. This was done to enable the researcher trace back data to their original source where needed.

Subsequently, these themes were further reviewed in order to: (a) re-allocate some data extracts which do not fit into the current theme based on theme definition; (b) modify the theme definition in order to accommodate a data extract; (c) combine one or more themes to avoid duplication of themes and to ensure a coherent pattern among themes and to broaden the scope of each theme in order to enable an exhaustive coverage of their respective data constituent, (d) conduct further interviews with specific respondents to enable additional clarifications to some aspects of previously given answers to interview questions and; (e) to entirely eliminate data components that are not relevant or that do not fit into any of the themes. The final thematic analysis revealed 5 main themes and 13 sub-themes (Table 6.4). Each of these themes have been extensively defined and a column for data sources have been created to substantiate the identified themes.

6.4 Documentary findings

Findings indicate that organisational activities are embedded in organisational policies which determine the kind of people the organisation wants to employ and how employees are expected to conduct themselves

towards personal performance and organisational performance objectives. The policies of the organisation have expressly stated the objectives for setting them up. Some pertinent findings were made and will be discussed subsequently.

Table 6.3: Themes generated from policy documents and organisational procedures

Themes generated from policy documents and organisational procedures			
Main themes	**Sub-theme**	**Descriptors**	**Policies and procedures**
Management-led initiatives	Establishing organisational standards	Standards for performance, behaviour and skills and establishing directions by setting a clear picture of objectives, practice/goals, commitment of the organisation and the responsibilities of employees	3 (p. 3, 4), 4 (p. 1), 5 (p. 5, 7, 8, 17, 19, 20, 21, 23, 30, 35, 37, 74), 6 (p. 18 – 20, 38 – 67?) 7 (p. 32 – 38)
	Employee engagement	Building relationships by engaging with new employees for integrating them into the team. Reporting peer relationships. Meeting between employee and line manager to agree on objectives for performance and development	**1** (p. 7, 9), **2** (p. 8,9,10), 3(p. 5) 5 (p. 17, 22, 24, 251), 7 (p. 19, 32)
People-focused organisational processes	Organisational value fit	Determining selection method in recruiting employees, and the retention and talent development of existing employees based on technical capabilities and competencies to ensure best fit.	1, 2 (p. 7), 3 (p. 3), 9 (p. 2)
	Evaluating role objective, relevance and requirement*	Evaluating the need for the role, the evolving business priorities, the expertise and experience needed in accomplishing set objectives and the future requirements of the role before committing to vacancy/engagement	1 (p. 5, 9), 6 (p. 22 – 24), 10 (p. 4 - 5), 11 (p. 2 – 4)

	Degree of decision influence - Role in decision making	Determined by the types of decisions the employee is involved in, the nature of employees' role in decision making, the contributions made by other employees, and the guidelines in place to support the decision making	1 (p. 11), 3 (p. 5), 8 (p. 14),
	Time allocation based on role objectives	Listing the key outputs of the job to consider the percentage of time that should be spent on each task the employee is accountable for.	1 (p. 10, 11), 3 (p.7, 8, 9) 4 (p. 13), 5 (p. 251), 7 (p. 17, 20 - 21)
Learning and development	Capability development	Processes that support management and employees in performing their role, maximising their engagement and contribution to business objectives by highlighting the potential that each individual has to develop	2 (p. 3, 5), 3 (p. 3, 5, 7 -8), 4 (p. 1), 5(p. 37, 40, 41, 89, 94), 6 (p. 15, 25, 37, 38), 7 (p. 16, 17, 23 - 24), 9 (p. 3)
	Team work based on openness and trust	Demonstrating personal leadership roles and effectively motivating others through communicating and presenting information clearly (openness) and successfully, while building and maintaining mutually beneficial and long-term relationships (integrity and trust)	2 (p. 3, 4), 7 (p. 17)
	Locating and evaluating knowledge usefulness	Identifying qualified resource persons and determining the effectiveness of the course for training	4 (p. 6, 7, 10, 13), 5 (p. 25, 91)

Multi-level communication	Social and technological interactions influencing effective communication and clear information presentation	A management attitude which enables communication through various modes to ensure that necessary knowledge gets to the people who need it	5 (p. 6, 24), 6 (p. 38 – 67, 82 – 84)
Employee Empowerment	Employee initiative and drive	Behaviour demonstrating global competence and CANDO values based on role. Displaying a confident and optimistic attitude during stressful situations and responding in a measured and objective manner to changes while embracing progress in business by maintaining the required standards for performance, behaviour and skills	2 (p. 3, 5), 3 (p. 3, 6), 5 (p. 105), 6 (p. 14, 20), 7 (p. 17), 8 (p. 14)
	Work planning and organising	To plan or organise own workload, that of other people, or the allocation and use of resources in a way that guarantees efficiency	1 (p. 11), 5 (p. 105, 201, 202), 8 (p. 14)
Sustaining performance and productivity	Performance improvement initiatives	Establish a fair, consistent and effective method for measuring and defining the performance required to achieve objectives. Having feedback conversation with candidates at the selection stage to provide clarity on their areas of strength and development. Effective performance management through continuous feedback	2 (p. 3,9,10,13,14,16,18,19,20), 8 (p. 14) 3 (p. 3, 5), 5 (p. 6, 18), 6 (p. 25 – 34)

		and coaching to employees on their performance	
	Rewarding performance	Positive or negative rewards solely attributable to employee performance	3 (p. 10), 4 (p. 3), 6 (p. 15, 73 - 82), 7 (p. 21 – 23, 26, 30)
	Well-being and security of employees	Procedures and setting organisational objectives to minimise risk of harm to self and others in the workplace to ensure employee well-being and security	5 (p. 177 & 178), 6 (p. 20, 21, 67 - 73), 7 (p. 16, 38 - 43)
	Ideal work environment	A fit-for-purpose work environment equipped with necessary tools	4 (p. 13), 5 (p. 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 94, 168, 174, 175, 178, 195 - 200), 7 (p. 25 - 26)

6.4.1 Management-led initiatives

6.4.1.1 Establishing organisational standards

Findings indicate that policies (1, 2, and 3) were established with the aim of discovering ways to identify, attract and recruit people with the “skills, knowledge, experience and behaviour” required to achieve business goals (Policy (1), 2015, p. 3). This document revealed the intent of managers in finding the best fit for a role by bench-marking the pre-determined ‘person specification’ to the ‘role profile’ before attracting and/or selecting the candidate that best fits the role. A process of careful selection of employees is carried out with the sole purpose of attaining and maintaining high levels of performance and innovative culture as presented in policy (2), (2012, p. 3) which describes:

“…the activities and standards that are essential for the successful management of performance throughout the organisation”.

This policy is aimed at supporting employees in ensuring great efficiency on the job and maximising their engagement and contributions to the business objectives. To this end, a fair, consistent and effective method for measuring and defining the performance required to achieve objectives has been put in place. Although policy (3), (2012) has a similar constitution to policy (2), a policy review shows that its focus is managing under-performance.

By extension, policy (4), (2012) ensures that employees develop requisite competencies, knowledge, technical skills and attitude necessary to carry out their jobs effectively to achieve set business objectives. The policy indicates that training is expected to align with business needs and strategy by undergoing the required processing, approvals and tracking. To ensure this is done, policy (4) consist of rules which layout the activities to be carried out to enable the authorisation of training programmes. Although employees are given an opportunity to choose a soft skill training which addresses the global competencies and another one that is technical or

functional in nature. However, employee's access to training programmes are found to be largely dependent on budgetary plans within the SBU and subject to the line-manager's approval of the availability of the employee to attend the training programme.

Furthermore, the organisation's policy (5), (2013) provides direction for the organisation in Occupational Health and Safety (OH&S) by covering clear objectives that are appropriate to the scale of the business risks. The manual which has a written procedure on health and safety training for all level of workers, pledges its commitment to continual improvement, and compliance with current OH&S legislations that will be transmitted throughout the organisation with periodic reviews by the people charged with this responsibility.

To achieve its desired target, the policy (5) advises on the need for OH&S training plan that will cater to various categories of workers. This plan is intended to make top managers appreciate the importance and necessity of health and safety to the business and be able to budget for it. Also, the plan should help middle level managers plan their budget and afford them an opportunity to understand the rudiments of health and safety procedures. The OH&S plan for the third category of managers, such as factory managers and HR managers is aimed to equip these managers with knowledge on health and safety to transfer it to others through mentoring, training and practical example.

The intention to integrate safety into their organisation's culture is evident in the setting up of a committee whose purpose is seeking employee co-operation in the prevention of accidents and which serves as one of the main channel of communication and implementation for health and safety matters (5) (2013). This policy provides a clear picture of objectives, goals and the commitment of the organisation to health and safety at work through a consistent application of practices and alignment of standards which are to be implemented through assignment of responsibilities to individuals.

The organisation's 'leadership competency framework' is central to people related processes (6). Policy (6) (2009) makes provision for the competencies required from senior employees to succeed in their careers by achieving role objectives within the organisation. The document identified eleven competencies involving setting and managing resources to achieve desired objectives which are supported by conveying a clear strategic path to all employees in attaining the vision. The handbook emphasises on the importance of tolerance, respect for others and concerns for their welfare as key aspects of building team spirit. It further emphasises on competencies that supports and listens to others, recognises and rewards contributions and shows appreciation and encouragement.

Also, the expectations from the organisation towards the employee that occupy a senior role also highlights principles and value expectations, an ability to gather, analyse and make prompt decisions based on informed judgements. The individual should be able to generate and encourage new ways of doing things by embracing changes that will move the business forward. Other competencies bother on personal qualities that includes the ability to manage people efficiently and being able to deliver results to meet customers' expectations. It should be noted that while all findings in this sub-section are mainly from policy (6), policy (7) solely focused on the procedures, rules and regulations, instructions and other 'dos' and 'don't' which junior employees must observe.

6.4.1.2 Employee engagement

5 of 12 documents reviewed provided information on employee engagement towards building relationships that help achieve performance and development objectives. Policy (1), (2015, p. 7 and 9) referred to building relationships throughout the recruitment process, specifically between the prospective employee's acceptance of the job offer and the actual period they start working in the organisation. Policy 7, (2009, pg. 19) states that the approach allows the line manager to engage with the new employee with the aim of integrating them into the team as quickly as

possible. Page 9 of the same document mentions peer relationships which encourages the new employee to seek help from other people who occupy a similar position to the one they do, and who reports directly to the same manager as they do.

The document affirms that this was to give the new employee the opportunity to identify employees who occupy similar roles which creates an avenue to learn quicker from peers. Policy 2, (2012, p. 8 - 10) describes the procedures for agreeing objectives within the organisation. It states that the line manager and the employee are expected to agree on performance and development objectives for the year bothering on the statement of objectives, the activities and processes required in achieving the objectives, a projection of the results expected to be attained, a specific completion deadline and the percentage degree of contribution to organisational performance.

Furthermore, policy 2 refers to the role of one-to-one feedback and coaching, which encourages good interaction between managers and employees as an effective performance management activity recommended based on its contributions to providing directions on employees' performance, demonstration of competence and alignment to organisational values. It is important to note that the global competencies for the organisation were designed by employees to articulate areas to be good at to achieve business strategy and be competitive.

This also formed the basis for Policy 3, (2012, p. 5) which express a three-way level of engagement between the roles of the HR manager, the line manager and that of the employee. The document puts forward the role of the HR manager as those of providing advice and giving guidance and feedback and the responsibility of managing performance and under-performance alike. This is achieved by conducting regular meetings with employees to review performance, give feedback and coaching where needed to support employees in meeting their overall performance expectations.

From an OH&S perspective, policy (5), (2013, p. 17, 22, 24 and 251) emphasised on the assignment of health and safety responsibilities to individuals. The document elaborates on the duties of employees in taking care of their own health and safety and that of others who may be affected by their own actions or inactions. The OH&S policy suggested that the onus lies on all employees to report unsafe processes and practices or raise health and safety concerns with their managers. Employees are also encouraged to cooperate and be involved in activities like health surveillance, attending H&S committee meetings when designated to do so and take opportunities in attending H&S training programmes.

6.4.2 People-focused organisational processes

6.4.2.1 Organisational value fit

Policy (1) (2015, p. 1) and policy (9) (2013, p. 1) focus on “recruitment, retention and development” of a team of people who can demonstrate the organisation’s values by aligning with its “highly performing and innovative culture”. The documents further affirmed the importance the organisation attaches to the establishment of a consistent and effective method, such as sifting through Curriculum Vitae, and conducting interviews and psychometric assessments (1, p. 6) for attracting and recruiting people with the best fit (p.1). The CANDO (Courage, Accountability, Networking, Drive and Oneness) values (policy 2, pg. 3 and 7) have been ascribed as the framework on which organisational culture is built, hence, defining the qualities required of any prospective employee of the organisation.

6.4.2.2 Evaluating role objective, relevance and requirement

Policy (6) (2013, p. 22) and (11) (2012, p.2) explains= that a job should be created and the current and future responsibilities the individual in the role will perform should be determined based on availability of a vacancy. The policies specified that this assessment show the commitment of the organisation in providing varied and challenging careers to its employees. Prior to the determination of the right fit for the role as the aim,

goal and obligation of a position, in policy (10) (2012, p. 4), the organisation also considers the relevance of the role in the long term. In some cases, decisions are taken to split the role function in order to provide job enrichment for another employee. More importantly, employees are expected to know the progression opportunity vertically or laterally available to them at all points in their career (Policy 10, p.4 and 5). The document however refers to a caveat which states that:

"This is just a guideline for employee career management and development and there is no guarantee or promises made with the content of this material".

This statement clearly goes against the contents of the guideline that gives employees the assurance that they will be aware of opportunities up and across the organisation. This anomaly forms part of a more in-depth discussion later on in this research.

6.4.2.3 Degree of decision influence - Role in decision making

Policy 1 (2015, p.11) identifies the type of decisions a jobholder will have to make or be involved in. It explains the need to determine the capacity the jobholder is expected to perform. This could be in an advisory position or as a direct responsibility to the post held (p.1). The degree of decision making support in terms of policies, procedures and legislations for the jobholder's role serve as yardstick in the determination of the extent of decision influence held by the job role (1).

To empower decision makers adequately, talent development workshops on how to make tough decisions, determine the best course of action, win and influence support have been established under policy (8), (2014, p. 14). Policy (11) unambiguously advocates for planning and organising one's own workload, that of other people, or the allocation and use of resources based on specific criteria (p. 3). The policy also proposes that job holders need to understand their role in decision making against

those to be made by other people and be knowledgeable about the guidelines in place to support decision making.

6.4.2.4 Time allocation based on role objectives

Policy 1, (p. 10 and 11) referred to 'time' as a factor to consider when drawing up a job description. Reference was made on the need to list the responsibilities of a role in order or consider the percentage of time that would be spent on each activity. In the context of managing under-performance (3), the process suggests that employees should be given

"Reasonable time to encourage and support them to improve" (p. 7).

Policy (3) (p. 8 and 9) recommends a need for managers to designate time for meeting employees to discuss and review performance, behaviour and skills pertaining to their jobs. The junior staff handbook (7) refers to 'time' as a valuable asset (p. 17) where it admonishes employees to:

"Develop a high standard of productivity and efficiency and to reduce loss of time to a minimum".

It goes on to demand a total devotion of time, during working hours, to further the interests of the organisation (p. 20 and 21).

6.4.3 Learning and development

6.4.3.1 Capability development

7 out of 12 policies refer to capability development. A statement in policy 7 refers to "capable' employees as an asset in attaining organisational objectives" (p. 16 and 17). Policy 2, (p. 3 and 5), and 3, (p. 3, 5, 7 and 8) discusses provision of support for employees by identifying the skills and competences that must be developed in their current or towards a future role. This can be achieved through the organisation's commitment to help its employees gain the required "knowledge, technical skills and attitude demanded by their jobs" (policy 4, p. 1). Training employees is a priority for the organisation to create and maintain satisfied customers, while equally

expanding as a profitable business (6), (p. 37 & 38) and 7 (p. 23 & 24). For instance, policies 5 and 6 (p. 25) and (9) refer to training as a means to ensure all employees get the support they require in terms of health and safety needs and the internalisation of the organisation's corporate value and culture.

6.4.3.2 Team work based on openness and trust

Policy (2) (p. 3) raises the need for employees to demonstrate leadership roles that will motivate others to work collaboratively and cross-functionally to improve the success of the business while building and maintaining mutually beneficial long-term relationships. This reflects in the core values of the organisation which encourages 'networking' across all functions and geographies in a bid to work towards a common goal (p. 4). Policy (7) (p. 17) expressly describes one of the organisation's human resource policy as follows:

"To encourage teamwork, to promote and develop the co-operative attitude among and between employees and to foster harmonious relations at all levels".

6.4.3.3 Locating knowledge and evaluating knowledge usefulness

Policy (4) (p. 6) and (5) (p. 25) highlighted the importance of recognising qualified resource person from the relevant section of the organisation along with other non-human resources to deliver training based on expertise and pre-determined training objectives (p. 10 & 13) which could be mainly job specific or specialised trainings. Furthermore, post-assessment evaluations are carried out in order to determine the effectiveness of the course and resourcefulness of the instructor for improvement plan (pg. 7). In line with this position, policy 5 mentions the necessity to choose competent people to help ensure that employees are "adequately trained and instructed" (pg. 91)

6.4.4 Multi-level communication

6.4.4.1 Social and technological interactions influencing effective communication and clear information presentation

Policy (5) identified seventeen ways through which communication could be carried out by managers and supervisors within the organisation (p. 21). Six of these modes of communication were via print media, three were through electronic resources while eight involved social interactions. Page 24 of the policy document elaborates on ways in which communication takes place through constituted committees, display of minutes of safety meetings or information sent through technological medium. As clearly stated in policy (6) (p. 38), the organisation ensures that effective communication commences immediately as an employee is engaged by way of informing them of their rights, duties and obligations (p. 39-67 & 82-84).

6.4.5 Empowering employees

6.4.5.1 Employee initiative and drive

Policy (6) (p. 14) emphatically stated that;

“Employees are encouraged to manage and delegate appropriately, to accept responsibility and to recognise that they are both empowered to act and accountable for their actions”.

In light of this, employees are expected to show drive and enthusiasm when they have to work under pressure (p. 20). The policy emphasises the necessity for employees to be proactive, diligent and committed to the organisation by following instructions and projecting a credible image of the company. Policy 2 (p. 3 & 4) expects employees to use their initiative and drive to achieve set objectives by resiliently tackling and overcoming obstacles despite challenging circumstances. Employees are expected to display confident and optimistic attitudes even when facing stressful situations or changes within the organisation. Policies 3 and 5 also

refer to employees being able to attain individual performances set against objectives through personal involvement and responsibility.

6.4.5.2 Work planning and organising

In policy (1), the organisation indicated the importance of job planning and organising in its job description statement which determine job allocation, planning, predictability, reactivity, planning duration, and considerations in planning process. Policy (5) (p. 205) lays out the "assessment procedure for actions common to both dead and live working" which showcases the various stages that the execution of work should go through from a health and safety perspective. In order to ensure that an efficient planning and organisation of work is imbedded in the organisation's culture, Policy (8) was established to help employees develop talents on how to plan and manage projects effectively and to equally manage people by getting them to do what needs to be done.

6.4.6 Sustaining performance and productivity

6.4.6.1 Performance improvement initiatives

Policies (1), (2), (3) and (6) support employees in their performance, behaviour and skills by bringing out the best in them and maximising their engagement and contribution to business objectives to develop employees within their current or towards a future position. In order to achieve this goal, the organisation believes that there is need to set up consistent and effective standards to measure and define the level of performance required for objective achievement, expected competencies and alignment to CANDO values (policy 3, p. 3 & 5; policy 5, p. 6 & 18). The policies established that, "effective performance is driven by regular one-to-one feedback and coaching" (policy 5, p. 9). It further suggested that this should be carried out at least once every two weeks, so as to meet the desired target. Policy (2) (p. 10) places a mid-year appraisal to review employee contribution and refine plans to ensure that employees are able to deliver extraordinary performance and the end-of-year appraisal to review progress

against performance objectives, evaluate demonstration of competency and technical capabilities and value alignment (p. 10 – 13).

Policy 6 (p. 26 – 34) focused on the employees' responsibilities in terms of reviewing achievements against performance objectives and any personal development activity undertaken vis-à-vis progress made against development achievement. Calibration meetings are carried out so that managers and their peers attend a meeting with senior manager to share the ratings they propose for employees who report to them (2, p. 18 – 20). This process is to ensure that ratings awarded to each employee are applied fairly and consistently. The talent development process policy (8) makes provisions on how to effectively plan and manage performance or under-performance and how employees' current performance standards can be developed. The organisation's recruitment and Graduate trainee policy (9) indicated respectively that feedback conversations and mentoring and coaching are vital;

"To provide clarity on the candidate's areas of strength and need for development, which are revealed during and immediately after the recruitment process" (1, p. 7) and (9, p. 4).

Policy 2 describes the role of line managers as one of continuous feedback and coaching to employees to give better direction on employees' performances. This position was equally affirmed in policy (3) (p. 5 – 9) which emphasised on the importance of discussions and continuous feedbacks and coaching from line managers to enable effective performance monitoring. Policy 3 referred to steps regarding the 'performance improvement meetings' to be taken where the feedback and coaching process has failed. These improvement meetings involve setting up performance improvement plans which outline the areas where an employee has not met the standard of performance expected.

6.4.6.2 Rewarding performance

Findings show that rewarding an employee's performance can be positive or negative depending on whether performance is adjudged as good or bad by organisational performance management processes. Policy 6 indicated a fair and merit-based remuneration package, leaves, allowances, appointments, promotional vacancies and training and development (7, p 21 – 23 and 26 - 30), that compares favourably with those of competitors, irrespective of the position or length of time an employee has been in the organisation's employment. Ultimately, the reward procedure is designed to help and encourage employees', through a:

"Consistent and fair process, to achieve and maintain high standards of conduct, attendance and job performance" (6, p. 73).

However, poor performance could attract a 'written warning, termination through compromised exit or dismissal' in accordance with the organisations disciplinary policy and the local employment law (policies 3, p. 10, 4 & 6, p. 74 – 82).

6.4.6.3 Well-being and security of employees

Policies 5, 6, (p. 67 – 73) and 7, (p. 38 – 43) focused on physical risk of injury emanating from manual handling. These policies gave consideration to the personal limitations of the employee to age, body weight and physical fitness and capability in terms of carrying physical weight. It refers to exemptions being made for employees with 'genuine' physical or clinical challenges and pregnant women being subjected to undertake tasks related with carrying objects. In addition, the policies specified that prior to an employee being assigned a task, there should be sufficient knowledge and understanding through proper training instructions and information given on the work to be done to reduce the risk of injury.

It suffices to say that policies 6 and 7 suggest that the organisation will ensure employee well-being and security while workers are expected to show loyalty, devotion, honesty, efficiency and initiative which are tied to

organisational success. Policy 6 (p. 20 & 21) and Policy 7 (p. 16) refer to giving equal opportunities for engagement and promotion on merit basis, preventing discrimination, and giving all employees the chance to prove their ability in order to chart a career path for themselves. The policy also stated the importance of providing security, fair wages and good conditions of service, rewarding honesty, loyalty and integrity to the organisation. It advocated for the provision of a safe working environment that helps employees maintain safety and good health at work as an enabling environment for free association that provides employees the opportunity to improve skills and knowledge for increased efficiency in preparation for higher job roles.

6.4.6.4 Ideal work environment

The organisation gives emphasis to the physical suitability of its work environment and the provision and maintenance of safe work systems to suit intended purposes (5, p. 94, 168, 175, and 178). Policy 4 emphasises the need to have appropriate location for training purposes, while policy 5 focuses on the importance of having regular building inspections to determine the reliability of the buildings. Policy (5) also emphasises on the importance of promoting safe and healthy work environment by ensuring that “noise, temperature, ventilation and lighting levels are adequate” (p. 27). Page 29 of the same document states the organisation’s commitment towards protecting employees’ from working in confined spaces, where avoidable. In cases where this is not possible, the organisation’s policy mandates that a risk assessment be carried out with the purpose of establishing a safe system of work. The document further affirms that employees’ who work in confined spaces must be trained to do so. However, there were no clear indication on procedures towards the resolution of psychosocial risks.

6.5 Interview findings

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 42 managers, who occupy various functions and levels within the organisation. Findings shows

the key themes as: leadership's support towards goal attainment; role distribution based on employees' competencies; enhancing employee performance; employee cooperation and accessibility to senior colleagues; and employee motivators.

Table 6.4: Summary of findings

Themes generated from managers' interviews			
Themes	**Sub-themes**	**Definition**	**Data sources**
Leadership's support towards goal attainment	Cascading organisational goals to different categories of employees (top to bottom)	Disseminating organisation visions/objectives in a manner that employees will understand and imbibe in order to attain set goals enabled through business planning processes. This includes decision making to clarify grey areas of goal communication.	T1, T2, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T14, T15, T16, T17, T18, T19, T20, T3, T4, T21, T22, T24, T25, T26, T28, T29, T31, T32
	Management-led objective setting based on employee input, competences and reviewed performances	Setting achievable objectives centred on employees' competencies, experiences and input, the provision of the required support to ensure objective accomplishment and a review of organisation's past performances	T6, T8, T13, T17, T20, T21, T22, T23, T25, T27, T28, T30, T32
Role distribution based on employees' competencies	Role definition	Providing a written document that clearly instructs, states and breaks down activities into smaller bits of what is expected from both new and old employees' in the roles they occupy.	T1, T3, T4, T6, T7, T9, T10, T12, T13, T20, T23, T24, T25, T26, T30, T31
	Employee role-fit	Determining employees' role suitability based on skills needs assessments, performance objectives, work experience & organisational culture alignment (values, behavioural competence and right attitude to work).	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T14, T15, T16, T18, T19, T20, T21, T22, T23, T25, T26, T27, T28, T30, T31

Enhancing employee performance	Establishing role-related soft training & re-training plan	Establishing formal & informal training programmes based on the organisation's training objectives for the year, training needs analysis or relating to the hard and soft functions required for improving performance in different roles which is set by the line manager with the input (feedback) of the employee.	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T14, T16, T17, T18, T19, T20, T21, T22, T23, T24, T25, T26, T27, T28, T29, T30, T31, T32
	Coaching and mentoring - Employee- line-manager collaboration	Assigning a function-related superior to guide an employee on the job towards improved performance. Frequent interactions with managers and employees to ensure role alignment through objective setting, tracking and measurement, solving problems – encouraging an open (trusting) culture of giving constant feedback and support to employee.	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T9, T10, T11, T12, T13, T14, T16, T18, T19, T20, T21, T23, T24, T25, T26, T27, T28, T30
	Self-development	Employees' own development through personal assessments of own needs and how to get help through internal programmes, external activities (reading) and programmes (self-sponsored study)	T9, T24, T31
Employee cooperation and accessibility to senior colleagues	Nature of work design	Designing work in a way that there is a level of inter-dependence between tasks to guarantee completion which help fosters relationships between teams and to help bridge the communication gap, if any, between managers and employees in order to facilitate easier oversight functions by managers, and the accessibility of managers to employees.	T1, T2, T3, T4, T5 T6, T7, T8, T9, T10, T12, T14, T15, T16, T17, T18, T19, T20, T22, T24, T25, T27, T28, T29, T30, T32
	Leading by example	Leaders communicating the importance of teamwork down the hierarchy through their own actions. Employees' experiences differ based on the people management style of the person in charge of the unit or the level of 'trust' between employees and managers	T2, T4, T6 T10, T15, T16, T17, T19, T20, T22, T23, T24, T25, T28, T30, T31, T32

	Conflict avoidance and resolution	Understanding individual differences. Creating an awareness within team members for each individual to know, understand and appreciate the differences in others (maturity). These diversities in personality should be seen as an asset for improved team performance rather than a liability.	T1, T3, T4, T5, T7, T8, T9, T11, T12, T13, T18, T19, T20, T21, T23, T26, T31
	Prompt dispute resolution	Escalating any knowledge of conflict to the appropriate personnel for prompt resolution to avoid any friction which may result to communication	T3, T6, T8, T10, T12, T13, T14, T16, T17, T18, T20, T21, T23, T24, T26, T28, T31, T32
Employee motivators	Recognition for good performance - Motivation	Employee's track record in terms of performance is kept for future reference in times of promotion or consideration for higher responsibilities, career progression, higher benefits and awards (monetary and non-monetary) and increased authority	T2, T3, T4, T5, T6, T7, T8, T10, T12, T13, T14, T15, T16, T17, T18, T19, T20, T3, T4, T21, T22, T24, T25, T26, T27, T28, T29, T30, T31, T32
	Decision making capabilities	The degree of decision is bound to the level of authority the employee wields as a result of his position and/or the weight of the decision to be made. Though the organisational value encourages the use of initiatives and being accountable, employees' are mandated to carry their superiors along in processes beyond their designation	T2, T5, T6, T7, T8, T10, T11, T12, T15, T16, T17, T18, T19, T20, T3, T4, T21, T22, T23, T24, T25, T26, T27, T28, T30, T31

6.5.1 Leadership's support towards goal attainment

6.5.1.1 Cascading organisational goals to different categories of employees

35 out of 42 respondents (84%) across functions and SBUs were of the opinion that organisational objective setting and dissemination lies with the leadership team as stated by these managers (T7, QAM, "A"; T8, L&D, "G"; T12, SBM, "A"; T14, DM, "F"; T19, TrM, "G"; T26, CTM, "E"; T29, MM, "A"; & T31, TM, "D" SBU). Of these, 26 managers which form 61% of total respondents believe that goal setting is entirely the function of the top executives at the headquarters', that is, the CEO and managing directors of each SBU known as the Leadership Team (T13, CM, "C"; T4, LM, "F"). Respondent (T13) indicated that:

"Oh yes, essentially your role defines your involvement in setting the objectives".

The manager provided a caveat that decision-takers in top management get input from their respective teams. The manager claimed that this ultimately forms the basis for decisions made at top-level management. This aligned with the opinions of managers T10, HRM, "G" and T5, PDM, "A". Further analysis indicated that some respondents believe that 'lower level management' makes some contribution towards organisation's objectives by submitting performance-based results to top management. This is assumed to be used in deliberations regarding the setting of future objectives as reflected in the thoughts of manager T13, CM, "C"):

"…of course, the top-level management would have gotten inputs from the lower level management"

Managers T6, L&D, "G"; T17, DM, "F" and T21, SM, "C"; T23, SM, "D" indicated that objective setting is based on the review of past performances. Managers T17, T21, T23 and T28, CSM, "F" stated that this

is measured in percentages in order to quantify previous achievement by using trend analysis as mentioned by T9, T23, T30, and T32 who work in the sales departments across the SBUs, with the exception of T32 who is in account management in “F” SBU. This trend analysis is benchmarked against intended goals of the organisation in the near future as proposed by T1, HRM, “C” and corroborated by T6, L&D, “G” SBU as follows:

“I know that the major goal of [the company] is to be on FTSE 100 [sic] you know, to be among the first…first 100 companies on London Stock Exchange, which is their major goal, their long-term goal”

Managers T6 and T28, CSM, “F” reiterated that this goal drives the objectives set from one year to another. Contrary to the proposition by T6 that past performances play a role in objective setting, another respondent from the same business unit T8 was of the view that the organisation rather evaluates economic trends and degree of competitiveness in determining its objectives. Respondent T8, L&D, “G” explains that:

“Some strategic reasons seem to pitch their ‘tent’ more in the Northern part of Nigeria, just to avoid the competition from companies like Unilever, Procter & Gamble, [sic] who are more trending in the south”

The analogy suggests that the respondent is of the opinion that cost of doing business is a significant consideration in drawing up the organisation’s objectives based on calculated projections.

6.5.1.2 Management-led objective setting based on employee input, competences and reviewed performances.

Regarding leadership’s consideration of employee competencies, some managers assume this forms part of leaders’ deliberations for organisational objective decision-making processes. T15, TrM, “G” and T17, DM, “F” stated that:

"Objective setting is not based on the knowledge or the competencies of the available people. They make it based on what they want, and they expect that employees will work towards achieving it and have to grow into it" (T15)

"They don't take into account the level of [sic] or competencies of employees [sic] before they come up with their objectives" (T17)

Although the viewpoint aligns with other managers who believe that top management does not necessarily consider the capabilities of their employees as one of the yardsticks in setting objectives (T16, CBM, "G"; T18, R&D, "A"; and T28, CSM, "F"), therefore contradicting the view of respondent T11, HRM, "E" who stated that:

"The organisation considers the competency of its employees' as not doing so would have led to the failure of its goals and vision".

This rationale was supported by respondent T16 who specified that:

"Employees always rise up to the occasion and where they are short of skill, the business spends some money to invest in giving those set of skills to the employees to actually be able to deliver on the things the business needs to deliver on".

Though initially opposing this observation, T17 clarified that a situation has never occurred where the organisation has *'burdened'* employees with too many objectives, but rather, the organisation focused on providing an 'enabling environment'.

T17 said that employees should meet objectives or targets because the organisation has provided an enabling environment. Feedback from T3, R&D, "D" suggested that there is a form of contribution to goal-setting from 'lower management'. The manager suggested that this notion seems to stem mainly from employees in the sales division who assume that leadership's decisions on objectives to be achieved for a period are based

on figures and numbers provided by the sales department in terms of previous performance figures (T30 & T32). These sales managers T30 and T32 in SBUs “C” and “F” respectively had the impression that objectives are built bottom-up through the contribution of sales figures on which future projections are based, followed by subsequent discussions at the top level of the hierarchy were decisions are made. This submission was opposed by another colleague T24, DM, “A” who had the understanding that:

“The employee doesn’t have any input, you just have to align with it based on what you have to do. The thing is that most of the time they just expect you [sic] that this is what we want to achieve, and you have to fall in line, we will support it, and the language is we will support you”.

It is important to note that ‘lower management’ to some managers include positions as high as ‘managing directors’ or ‘regional managers’ based on their comparison of these positions against the group executives or the CEO. This view differs from T20, SCM, “E” that referred to the Board of Directors and the leadership team as higher and lower level management respectively, while respondent T10, HRM, “C” suggested that managing directors of SBUs are part of the leadership team. It is however unclear whether these top managers, that is MDs, are included in T20’s reference to group executives as part of decision takers. In addition, T20 opined that the leadership team (lower management) recommends decisions to be made by the organisation, and it is the Board of Directors (top management) that makes the final decisions.

The manager stated that objective decisions made at the top level is filtered down to those at the lower level management. This differs from the opinion of some other managers who saw leadership team positions as part of top management (T22, SM, “A”). Despite the differences of opinion on ‘lower level management’ classification and its organisational objective inputs, over 90% of managers who referred to the role leadership plays in goal-setting agreed that final communication of objectives across the

organisation emanates from the leadership team. As T23 “D” SBU affirms as follows:

“I was involved in somehow setting of these targets and goals, as the case may be [sic] setting of the goals and targets, it cuts across all departments, for me, for sales, under sales we have the commercial planning, we have the trade marketing, they all make up the sales team. So, there is information gathering among all of us and it helps to set the target”.

The manager submitted that the CEO is given a target from the ‘global office’ which he brings to the leadership team who then goes ahead to deliberate on achieving the targets based on the information each departmental head had gathered through their respective teams. This manager’s interpretation aligns with T25, FPCO, “A” and T27, SM, “B” who thought that objective setting flows top to bottom and bottom up. They argued that while the top management gives the overall objectives as earlier indicated by T6, the functional and operational heads disseminates these objectives to their teams to find solutions to achieving them.

Further interpretations revealed a consensus among most managers on the role of the organisation’s leadership in the setting and dissemination of objectives. There were no obvious connections between the respondents who claimed that lower-level management and employees contribute to objective setting. 7 out of 8 managers who stated that goal setting was determined by past performance evaluation and trend analysis were level 5 managers whose job function relate to sales. This was also the managerial level of the 8th respondent from the central service “G” SBU.

There were indications that T15, TrM, “G”, and T11, HRM, “E” whose job functions relate to personnel matters had opposing views on whether management considers employees’ competencies and input when setting objectives. The findings however suggest that these managers might be saying the same thing in different ways. While T15 argues that management expects employees to step up to given responsibilities, which suggests that

management is willing to provide required training programmes to give the employees the required skills for doing their job. This manner of explanation aligns with those of T11 who indicated that management invested in building the capability of its people to meet the business needs.

6.5.2 Role distribution based on employees' competencies

6.5.2.1 Role definition

Managers associated the organisation's ability to match competencies with role distribution through a job description (JD) document that lays out what is expected from any individual assigned to a role. At least 16 managers associated a JD to a statement of rules and responsibilities, accountabilities and a *'yardstick'* (T19, TrM, "G") for standardising a job function. By extension however, 2 managers suggested that drawing up a JD by the organisation is tied to the organisation's Business Planning Process (T1, HRM "C") and wider business objectives (T3, R&D, "D"). In contrast, T24, DM, "A" puts forward the notion that employees' draw up their own job description when she stated that:

"…… it is you that write your own job descriptions [sic] for example, as a warehouse manager there is no HR document that says these are the duties of the warehouse manager".

This manager suggested that personal role objectives are *"pulled out"* from JD by employees themselves. After a follow-up question, the manager stated that new employees now have job descriptions given to them. This opposes the earlier view of T24, and T4, LM, "F" who indicated that:

"……we have different functions and these roles are based on specific requirements. This involves job description. Basically, we have job descriptors telling the employees exactly what is expected of them".

In comparison to the opinion of T24 that JDs are written by the employee, T4's submission suggests that a JD is provided by someone else other than the employee themselves. Consequently, was observed that some managers use the term 'JD' and 'performance objectives' interchangeably. As observed when interviewing T6, L&D, "G" when asked *"How do employees know what is expected of them on the job?*, she explains that:

"They have their objectives and these objectives are broken down into the different departments [sic] they now determine the objectives as in what is required of each role".

15 managers (T7, T9, T10, T12, T13, T16, T18, T19, T20, T22, T23, T24, T25, T26, & T30) with roles cutting across functions and SBUs all refer to the use of JD as a document that lays out the *'rules and responsibilities'* (T16, CBM, "G"; and T17, DM, "F") of a role therefore enabling a 'skills need assessment' for employees' to receive the right training (T7, QAM, "A"; & T23, SM, "D"). T9, SM, "C" advocated that employees are not expected to operate solely within the confines of a JD but are rather expected to work in accordance with the 'performance objective' for the period. T10, HRM, "G" noted that an employee occupying a new role has to undertake an induction programme that introduces the employee to the team and the tools they will be working with. The job expectations (T22, SM, "A"), or 'Key Result Area' as stated (T15, TrM, "G") that would be appraised in subsequent months will be discussed formally with a line manager and afterwards:

"HR will give you a formal job description that describes your day to day activities" (T22) or "your line manager" (T25, FPCO, "A").

To draw up a JD, T12, SBM, "A"; and T20, SCM, "E" refer to the need for role evaluation. This notion was backed up by T18, R&D, "A" who stated that it is fundamental to the recruitment process to have a detailed description of a role to explicitly inform the would-be occupier of the role about the expectations of the organisation once they take up the role.

6.5.2.2 Employee role-fit

"Employee role-fit" was expressed by some managers as another competency-related consideration through which the organisation assigns roles to people (T6, L&D, "G"; T13, CM, "C"; T14, DM, "F"; T20, SCM, "E"). There were various facets of what constituted this particular theme as defined in Table 6.4 above. T1, HRM, "C" and T3, R&D, "D" revealed that role fitness for an employee is determined by the organisations value set, that is, CANDO values (Courage, Accountability, Networking, Drive, and Oneness) and the cultural fit of the prospective employee at the recruitment stage (T10, HRM, "G"; T12, SBM, "A"; T13, CM, "C"; T23, SM, "D") which T8, L&D t, "G" referred to as:

"A set of values, we call them CANDO values, and these are more like traits we expect to have from every person, whether they are new entrants or an old staff"

In addition, functional expertise (T2, HRM, "A"; and T27, SM, "B"), technical or managerial expertise and skills of the employee, past performance competences (T21, SM, "C"; T30, SM, "C"; and T31, TM, "D"), competencies required to be able to deliver on specific responsibilities (T15, TrM, "G"; T18, R&D, "A"), years of relative experience (T21, SM, "C"; T28, CSM, "F"), and a clear understanding of the expectations of the employee occupying the role (T11, HRM, "E") have been described as conditions for job evaluation which evolves into job description development which explains the competencies that is required of the individual to be assigned the role. However, behavioural competency was said to have a 50% consideration when determining the right individual for a role (T2, HRM, "A"). In addition, T4, LM, "F"; T10, HRM, "G"; and T25, FPCO, "A" indicated that it is the responsibility of HR to match employee competency to the job description as expressed in a statement by T5, PDM, "A" as follows:

“Obviously, from the onset, the human resource [sic] function would have helped to ensure that the people with the right skill set are brought into the organisation at the beginning”.

Participants T7, QAM, “A”; T12, SBM, “A”; and T13, CM, “C” established that because different roles require different skill set the organisation carries out a ‘skills need assessment’ to determine the competencies required for a role (T19, TrM, “G”; and T30, SM, “C”). It also determines whether these competencies should be re-defined to locate the suitable person for the role and to ascertain the expectations required of the individual occupying the role. However, there was constant reference to the role of training in helping employees’ build their competencies to the level demanded by the job roles (T26, CTM, “E”). ‘Training’ will be discussed as a sub-theme in improving employee competence in the next heading.

Generally, it was observed that the managers who identified employee role fit were from 4 different SBUs at different managerial levels and functions with years of experience ranging from 2 to 11 years. This was also the case with managers who identified the organisation’s value set as a way through which employees are allocated to roles. Observations also show that managers who referred to past performance as a consideration for employee fit were all from sales and trade management functions. The managers who indicated that competence for a role is a determinant for role assignment where found to be both on level 4 from the central services “G” SBU, and the “A” SBU which is the largest Unit in the company.

6.5.3 Enhancing employee performance

6.5.3.1 Establishing role-related soft training and re-training plan

All managers interviewed agreed that training enables employees’ knowledge and skills improvement within their organisation. Despite the mutual consensus, findings indicate that training is regarded as a

performance inducing tool was from three perspectives. 16% of managers referred to behavioural, functional and non-functional training as 3 types of training activities conducted by the company. 41% of managers discussed training methods in terms of formal (classroom-based), and informal (on-the-job), while 84% of managers mentioned training initiators as organisational-led, line-manager-led, employee-led, and peer-led training programmes as presented in the table below:

Table 6.5: Training Dimension

<table>
<tr><th>Categories</th><th colspan="2">Sub-categories</th><th>Response (%)</th></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Types of training</td><td colspan="2">Functional</td><td rowspan="2">16%</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Non-functional</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="3">Training methods</td><td rowspan="2">Formal (Classroom-based)</td><td>Internal</td><td rowspan="3">41%</td></tr>
<tr><td>External</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Informal (on-the-job)</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Training initiators</td><td colspan="2">Company initiative</td><td rowspan="4">84%</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Line-manager led</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Employee-led</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Peer-led</td></tr>
</table>

I. Training types

Findings show that training new and old employees was an essential part of the organisation's activity in achieving its set goals (T10, HRM, "G"; T16, CBM, "G"; and T21, SM, "C"). The organisation provides both functional and non-functional forms of training to cater to diverse needs of its employee's subject to 'training needs analyses', which identify gaps in the level of an employee's competency for the role (T11, HRM, "E"). For instance, a manager (T8, L&D, "G") mentioned the need for behavioural training for staff that have been newly employed or old employees with team engagement issues. These non-functional trainings were established based

on the organisation's intention to align the attitude, behaviour or disposition expressed by its employees to its own values.

The functional form of training, as identified by T8 focuses on assisting the employee towards meeting their assigned objectives for a financial year or period for which their performance will be measured. These trainings were targeted at addressing the variances between expected and actual performance observed by the company, or the managers and employees themselves. T2, HRM, "A" noted that there are also talent-related trainings for employees that management have identified with potentials to become future leaders of the company.

II. Training methods

Investigations revealed that employees are trained in both formal and informal ways as observed by T19 (TrM, "G"). The formal training refers to classroom-based training programmes (T1, HRM, "C"; T7, QAM, "A"; T9, SM, "C"; T26, CTM, "E"; T27, SM, "B") which are conducted by internal facilitators (T16, CBM, "G"; T17, DM, "F") or external consultants (T17; T18, R&D, "A"; and T20, SCM, "E"). This involves employees' undertaking an evaluation to affirm their understanding of what has been thought and getting certified for the training. On the other hand, the informal method of training could be market launches and semi-formal meetings (T29, MM, "A") or a mode of learning on-the-job as T26 and T27 stated. In agreement, T1, HRM, "C" support their view by stating that;

"70% of your learning opportunity and real learning happens through experiences, on the job experience"

It involves practical hands-on demonstrations where the employee may have a senior colleague monitoring what is being done to ensure the employee executes the task correctly. At other times, employees are rather made to observe how an activity is being carried out to enable them to replicate the same within their role.

III. Training initiators

As seen in the table above, the need for training could be orchestrated in four different ways. Some managers affirm that training needs analysis for employees are usually carried out at mid-year reviews (T18, R&D, “A”) and the end of a financial year (T11, HRM, “E” & T18) to identify gaps in performance and determine what form of training will enhance employees’ performances. These decisions are made at the corporate level (T19, TrM, “G”) which evaluates training needs through the training department based on managers’ recommendations (T15, TrM, “G”; T30, SM, “C”; and T32, AM, “F”).

The organisation also decides whether there is a need for role change (T15). T3 (R&D, “D”), T7 (QAM, “A”) and T14 (DM, “F”) suggested that HR department has a role to play in training employees by organising training programmes (T3, TM “D”). Nevertheless, T11 and T31 agree that line-managers can input in training decisions unless it is a mandatory company-wide training programme as T5 (PDM, “A”) stated;

“…umm in some cases the company or the [sic] have a set of training for that year for different functions”

Although this is a company-wide training initiative, manager T5 alluded that the permission to attend a training programme must be signed off by the employee’s line manager (T24, DM, “A”; T25, FPCO, “A”). There are indications that line-managers work closely with the members of their team, therefore have a first-hand understanding of what their training needs are (T27), after deliberations with employees (T11, HRM, “E”; T12, SBM, “A”; T14, DM, “F”; T17, DM, “F”; and T23, SM, “D”). These line-managers are able to identify and request for training programmes for their team members to enable such individuals meet their objectives (T6, L&D, “G”). T20, SCM, “E” saw this from a slightly different perspective by stating that:

“Typically at the start of each financial year, the business sends out the list to managers in each unit and says okay tell us what training you think your employees are needing to be able to perform to their responsibilities in this financial year so the manager takes this list and they put down the training, they feel their subordinates should get and then the business makes that happen”.

The above idea suggests that the organisation gives the line-managers control over what training programmes they would like their team members to undertake. This was corroborated by T25; T28, CSM, “F”; and T22, SM, “A”) were T25 emphatically indicated that:

“You also have the learning and development department who work in consonance with the head of departments or line managers to agree on training”.

T6, L&D, “G” also indicated that employees were also found to be able to request for training based on their self-assessment of their training needs (T20, SCM, “E”). According to manager T6:

“You too as an employee, you can walk up to your line manager and make him understand that oh, I think I need this training”

Most managers claim that training requests initiated by employees must be with the understanding and agreement from the employee’s line-manager. According to T13, peers and colleagues can suggest relevant training programmes that will increase a colleague’s level of performance. It was however generally agreed that an employee’s accessibility to training is dependent on the amount of financial commitment the company is willing to undertake at a particular time period.

6.5.3.2 Coaching and mentoring - Employee- line-manager collaboration

Coaching and mentoring are two ways through which the organisation tries to improve the performance standards of its employees (T2, HRM, “A”; and T4, LM, “F”). Coaches could be internal or external (T1, HRM, “C”) particularly when it relates to attitudinal training (T16, CBM, “G”). Managers affirmed that training with internal coaches could be formal or informal based on the assessment of the employee’s performance improvement needs. These trainings could have varying length of time or period, depending on the training objective to be achieved as opposed to those of the external coaches which usually takes place in classroom settings with limited specified period. Although T13 (CM, “C”) includes a caveat that suggested employees could be coaches to each other by stating that:

“Even your coach does not have all the knowledge. An employee can get support from everybody; from your line manager, from a subordinate, or from colleagues”

In addition, investigations show that internal coaches are usually supervisors or line managers (T19, TrM, “G”; T30, SM, “C”) who have knowledge of, and are able to check what their subordinates are doing (T7, QAM , “A”; & T8, L&D, “G”) to ensure that a member of their team can improve based on, on-the-job assessment of the employee in question (T10, HRM, “G”; T16, CBM, “G”). T8, L&D, “G” added that line-managers are incentivised to coach their team members because the achievement of the team members’ responsibilities will have an impact on the line-manager’s own objectives. The coaching and mentoring scheme initiated by the company further encourages and allows employees to seek for other senior colleagues in other departments as mentors. T6 (L&D, “G”) reiterated that:

“They allow people to mentor you. They can give you a special project, some people go on secondment. It’s just, you know, to learn on the job to develop to become the best that you can be…yeah”

The company expects the employee or the HR department to choose a coach or mentor who can help the employee in both a functional and personal capacity (T11, HRM, “E” & T30, SM, “C”). This coach or mentor will be officially registered against the employee’s name and both parties will have a meeting to discuss the latter’s objectives for the year and how it is to be achieved as recounted by managers T4 (LM, “F”) and T11 who expressed that:

“You must seek out for somebody through which you can always seek for help when there are issues on your job. We let you have the opportunity to have a coach and come and register him or her and then once it’s [sic] you will have to arrange a meeting and have discussions with your coach on your objectives for that year”.

Furthermore, T7, QAM, “A” SBU; T18, R&D, “A”; and T19, TrM, “G” indicated that coaching may involve the coach having to show the employee the task to be performed, while expecting them to ask questions and also giving them an opportunity to demonstrate their knowledge through practice (T27, SM, “B”). Any skill gap identified by the coach, who is usually the line-manager, will be discussed with the employee and the appropriate training, coaching or mentorship programme will be prescribed (T16).

6.5.3.3 Self-development

Employees engaged in self-development programmes to boost their personal capabilities to better perform on the job. In the words of respondent T9, SM, “C”:

“I personally believe that self-development is very key, and you cannot get it all from your employer”.

This opinion was echoed by other managers who suggested that self-training is an integral part of the employee's own input towards becoming a well-rounded individual in accomplishing assigned organisational objectives. For instance, T24 (DM, "A") indicated that:

"If they feel there's no need for it, the person might not go for it, so you find out that people train themselves, you see a training and HR cannot fund it, you might either go on your own"

T24 believed there are times when the organisation does not see the relevance of a training programme put forward by the employee. At other times, the organisation may not be able to accommodate the training expenses in the budget for that financial year, since most training programmes for the year are already pre-scheduled. There was however no indication that the organisation makes it mandatory for its employees to undertake self-sponsored training or studies. However, the feedback by T31 (TM, "D") shows that monies spent on such training programmes are refunded to employees once the relevance and the successful completion of the study has been ascertained.

6.5.4 Employee cooperation and accessibility to senior colleagues

6.5.4.1 Nature of work design

The nature of work design has been structured in a way that heightens the degree of cooperation among employees and accessibility to senior colleagues. These work processes have been instituted on three main pillars as follows:

i. *Imbedded in organisation's core values* – The company's CANDO (Courage, Accountability, Networking, Drive, and Oneness) are values which employees need to adhere to because they emphasise the importance of networking and oneness as qualities demanded from individuals engaged by the organisation (T12, SBM, "A"; T15,

TrM, “G”; T27, SM, “B”; T28, CSM, “F”; and T29, MM, “A”). To demonstrate the level of importance attached to these values, the company integrated it into its employee performance assessment scheme as stated by T2 (HRM, “A”):

“We measure how well you work, how well you get on through working with other people. We also have what we call the ineffectiveness section that we've got all forms for reporting at least once for a year just to ensure that they are well bounded as a team”

This approach requires individuals to explain their contribution and participation within the team. There are also mandatory forums where employees are expected to approach colleagues and line-managers to discuss ideas or issues arising. Also, the organisation designed work process in a way that team output is a vital input to another team in accomplishing their duties as affirmed by T7 (QAM, “A”); T16 (CBM, “G”); and T17 (DM, “F”). To this end T7 stated that:

“…. because the nature of the job is such that, the guy before you need to perform his task before you can do your own successfully well. So, our operation is dependent on the ‘guy’ before you so every person touching the product before the next person needs to do the right thing”.

Furthermore, T7 confirmed that this work design was established to foster better relationship among employees’ as result achievement is dependent on each other’s input (T17; T24, DM, “A”; T25, FPCO, “A”; and T28, CSM, “F”). On the other hand, the work set-up also facilitates close relationship between subordinates and line-managers as the organisation has ensured the role objectives of the subordinates are imbedded in the line-manager’s and vice versa (T17; and T30, SM, “C”). This is to ensure constant communication between these parties to align objectives. Equally, managers claimed that this arrangement has fostered trust, improved relationships, and team cohesion within the business. T3 (R&D, “D”) epitomises the views of many managers when he stated that:

"One thing I've been able to build in my team is the trust and confidence for employees' to do their job. Delegation of responsibility to subordinates. Attending training on managing, mentoring and guiding people".

Similarly, improved communication plays an essential role in the ability of employees to network (T2, HRM, "A") because organisational management understands that the importance of close communication between employees to prevent information distortion while enabling goal attainment (T7, QAM, "A"). Various databases enable the organisation to keep useful knowledge and practices for future use by employees. To take advantage of these data banks, the workforce has been given the authorisation and training in the use of software programmes. Technologically-based modes of communication which include information via email, virtual training platforms and online chat forums have encouraged cooperation among employees and accessibility to managers.

Despite these observations, investigation also revealed that face-to-face communication such as general meetings, brainstorming sessions and classroom trainings are means of deliberating and discussing a diverse range of matters relating to the organisational objectives since the organisation's work design is more 'collective' than 'individualistic' as reported by T20 (SCM, "E"). These forms of communication take place among peers, line-managers and subordinates (T4, LM, "F"). Order than face-to-face communication the use of technology-based interacting platforms is more obvious among administrative employees than those in operations. Managers suggested that this anomaly is because of the work mode in factories involving a lot of movement and therefore the inability to take advantage of computer-based software. Consequently, wall postal, notice boards and information dissemination through line managers are regarded as more effective way to ensure cooperation among workers while circumventing the length and lack of time it takes to process or retrieve information by individuals in this department. Brain-storming sessions and

meeting were predominant with mid and top-level managers because they need to make constant decisions which determines the direction of the SBU.

ii. *Physical attributes* – The managers interviewed affirmed that the Company introduced an open-office set up to promote interactions between employees occupying various levels of management (T5, PDM, “A”; T7, QAM, “A”; T18, R&D, “A”; T19, TrM, “G”; T27, SM, “B”; and T32, AM, “F”). Prior to this, managerial level employees had the sole use of secluded office spaces, which prevented easy access from other employees. In the words of T5:

“The company used to be the type that we have the managers seated in the [sic] in rooms alone with doors shut and things like that and in the bid to make the company more unified, the open-door type policy was introduced, where there is a subordinate-manager relationship. The walls were brought down”.

The current arrangement allows individuals from the same unit to sit in clusters for easy interactions, while other units could also sit within vicinity. This physical work design enabled teams to communicate freely (intra-team) and across functions (Inter-team). T7 suggested that this had led to improvements in quality assurance as employees have easier access to their line-managers.

iii. *Interventions* – The role of HRBPs and line-managers (T5; and T8, L&D, “G”) in building trust and relationship leading to delegation of authority by managers (T3, R&D, “D”) led to credibility in the work environment and amongst teams respectively. This influenced workers towards amiable relationships between each other without the belief or perception that they are being authorised. T5 (PDM, “A”) remembers about 9 years ago when:

“As ‘funny’ as it might seem, we had the junior managers bathrooms separate from the senior managers”

T5 however confirmed that this regulation had since been abolished to encourage interaction among employees' irrespective of their position. Where there are unavoidable conflict situations, the HRBP are equipped to diffuse conflicts from escalating beyond irreparable levels. This is achievable through various training and mentoring programmes.

T15, TM, "G" claimed that the inaccessibility and poor relationship between managers and younger colleagues is because of the former's unwillingness to share information with the team to remain 'relevant' to the business based on the knowledge acquired over many years. These submissions are echoed in the views of T22 (SM, "A") stating that:

"I won't say that we've gotten to that level where every department sees that team work the way it's supposed to be, but I will say we are slightly above average..."

T30 (SM, "C") suggested that teamwork between departments is a lot better than cross-departmental interactions because of competition between departments leading to the trading of blames.

6.5.4.2 Leading by example

Some managers indicated that leadership style is a factor that determines the extent of cooperation that exists in a unit and the ease of access to senior colleagues. According to T2 (HRM, "A"):

"I will say that it depends on the leadership style of the line manager, so if for instance, if I am very autocratic in my leadership style while another leader allows more participation the level of involvement of employees' will be different in both scenarios".

According to the manager the type of work 'atmosphere' created by leadership and the definition of interaction between senior and junior employees determine the magnitude of teamwork or communication that

will occur in the organisation (5, PDM, “A”). This view was evident in the words of T4 (LM, “F”) who stated that:

“You should be able to talk to line manager when you have problems, or you reach out to colleagues that are occupying similar roles. I should be able to do networking. Otherwise, the first point of call should be your line manager”

Generally, managers specified that it is impossible to have one style of leadership in a big organisation suggesting that managers in different units have leadership styles peculiar to them. In other instances, the level of trust, freedom, collaborative behaviour and willingness to share information have been attributed to the extent of cohesion displayed by a team based on the unit leader’s encouragement. Whereas, some managers believe that the attitude of the entire team, and not just the leader’s, play a role in team dynamics. Therefore, there is a process of profiling employees for leadership positions and established leadership development programmes are also in place to shape leadership attitude (T2).

In spite of the organisation’s effort in embedding a style of leadership that exhibits traits that match the kind of culture it wants to build, T6 (L&D, “G”); and T10 (HRM, “G”) unequivocally stated that they acknowledge that there are ‘good’ leaders who are ready to engage with individuals within their teams, while some lead their teams with a ‘divide and rule’ approach (T6). Managers T20 (SCM, “E”) and T22 (SM, “A”) believe different personalities handle things differently. In their view, the interaction between the different attitudes of employees and managers influences or shapes the ideal way of doing things. Another manager (T16, CBM, “G”) was certain that messages reinforced by the organisation and work design makes collaboration among employees inevitable.

6.5.4.3 Encouraging attitude change to improve team cohesion

As mentioned earlier, managers attribute the degree of team unity to the attitude of each member of the team. 53% of managers, believe that cooperation among employees and accessibility to senior colleagues involves a culture of communication and tolerance. In the words of T4 (LM, “F”):

“…. employees must be willing to understand each other in order to get the best possible solution in achieving the objective”

This statement suggests that employees believe in finding amicable solutions by ensuring that personal grouse does not get in the way of business objectives at any point in time (T1, HRM, “C”; T3, R&D, “D”; T19, TrM, “G”; T31, TM, “D”; T35, MM, “C”; T38, HRM, “D”; and T41, FM, “E”). Investigation shows that parties involved quell their differences as soon as they can, to move towards completing the pre-determined task. On the business end, the policies are clear on the attitude condoned at work and this guides the behaviour displayed by individuals at work (T7, QAM, “A”). Also, some managers ascribe improved team collaboration to a culture that allows freedom of ideas and expressions from employees (T9, SM, “C”; T11, HRM, “E”; and T40, TM, “B”). This submission acclaims that team members understand that disagreements are sometimes a useful tool towards achieving set tasks. In the words of T5, PDM, “A”:

“When we argue and we debate sometimes out of passion and as you rightly said, out of so much passion, people tend to [sic] cross the line [sic] sometimes [sic] okay [sic] but I think that what happens most of the time, which I think is being driven by the values, people come together later to [sic] to talk things through and [sic] I mean, we all understand that it’s business and just out of passion so try not to take things personal”

Despite this notion of an organisational culture that allows people to disagree to later agree, managers felt that there are “lines” that team members are not to cross, which may be punishable by the assailant losing their job as instituted in the organisation’s policy (T12, SBM, “A”; T13, CM, “C”; T23, SM, “D”; and T38, HRM, “D”).

6.5.4.4 Prompt dispute resolution

In using “official intervention” in settling disputes, 56% of managers referred to resolution from higher authorities as one way of ensuring that disagreements do not get out of hand (T13, CM, “C”; T14, DM, “F”; T33 R&D, “A”; and T35, MM, “C”). For instance, the Human Resource Business Partner (HRBP), who oversees all people-related issues in a particular Strategic Business Unit (SBU), are said to be the usual first point of call when employees have any problems that need resolution. Reports could be made by the warring parties or by a third party who could be kept anonymous by the arbitrators (T3, R&D, “D”).

According to managers, on rare occasions where the brewing conflict cannot be resolved by the line managers or HRBP for the unit, such matters could be referred to a special panel, the appropriate operational or functional director, the Managing director (MD), or the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) in that order, depending on the complexities and the degree of effect such a discord may have on the attainment of business objectives (T6, L&D, “G”; T8, L&D, “G”; T16 CBM, “G”; T17, DM, “F”; T18, R&D, “A”; T20, SCM, “E”; T24; DM, “A”; and T32, AM, “F”). It was also noted that the organisation has an accessible grievance procedure in place (T11). To buttress this view, respondent T10, HRM, “G” expressed that:

“You will definitely have conflict in the organisation but what is most important is how you want to manage it. The company has put in place conflict resolution procedures and for your information, we are highly unionised, so we don’t take issues of conflict with a pinch of salt”.

Despite this feedback, managers advocated that conflicts are mostly resolved through “communication and dialogue” without escalation (T21, SM, “C”); (T23, SM, “D”). In support T12 (SBM, “A”) said:

“It’s only when your misunderstanding is affecting the job then that’s when it becomes a business issue”.

Few managers differentiated between conflicts that occur between colleagues on the same level and those between line manager and a subordinate. Findings indicated that, while employees on the same level are able to resolve conflicts in an amicable way, the manager-subordinate conflict resolutions usually tilt in favour of the manager because as one participant stated:

“…. managers are a lot more difficult to replace based on their experience and expertise, while their reports are not”.

Though some managers mentioned the organisation’s support for employees through trainings on emotional intelligence, however, T18 (R&D, “A”); T20 (SCM, “E”); and T36 (FM, “E”) admit that there are few times when conflicts were resolved by the established grievance procedure. There were indications from T6 (L&D, “G”) and T21 (SM, “C”) that junior employees mostly lose conflict resolution initiatives because of power distance and a tendency for bias in favour of those in top management. In the views of T21, conflict resolution between a manager and a subordinate occurs when the subordinate apologises to their manager. T6 was more emphatic by stating that:

“When people have issues with their line managers, most of the time, it usually leads to, from my experience, the exit of the employee”.

6.5.5 Employees' motivators

6.5.5.1 Recognition for good performance

Investigation show that while good or exceptional performances do not immediately translate into promotions or the assignment of higher responsibilities, it could mean additional responsibilities to an employee (T3, R&D, "D"; and T30, SM, "C"). This could also lead to increased contributions to decision making (T15, TrM, "G"). A consistently good performance however places the employee in pole position for the next available advanced role (T2, HRM, "A"; T5, PDM, "A"; T7, QAM, "A"; T8, L&D, "G"; T10, HRM, "G"; T14, DM, "F"; T19, TrM, "G"; T21, SM, "C"; T25, FPCO, "A"; T26, CTM, "E";). To further buttress this position, respondent T8, L&D, "G" explained that:

"If the employee has been a consistent performer, it could mean and there's an indicator that that employee is ready for the next available opportunity, either more challenging assignments, promotions……and so on".

On the other hand, monetary reward is an immediate means of gratifying employees as confirmed by managers across diverse functional roles (T10, HRM, "G"; T15, TrM, "G"; T16, CBM, "G"; T17, DM, "F"; T18, R&D, "A"; T19, TM, "G"). Though monetized reward can be an immediate means of compensating good performance, the percentage increment received is based on your basic salary and the category of performance achieved based on the organisation's own performance calibration process (T2, HRM, "A"; T17, DM, "F"; and T28, CSM, "F"). Other forms of reward identified were non-monetary in nature and included awards and special recognitions, such as the "Extended Leadership Scheme" which identifies and prepares exceptionally performing employees' for future vacant leadership positions, or compensations that includes attending both local and international conferences and trainings (T7, QAM, "A"; T15, TrM, "G"; T26, CTM, "E"; and T31, TM, "D").

While clarifying the reason why every exceptional performance does not effectively lead to promotion, respondent T20 and T2 explains that:

“Promotions are based on role vacancy as opposed to a recognition of an employee’s current performance”.

The argument is that promotions without actual role availability will lead to a disruption of organisational and pay structure as captured in the statement of T2 (HRM, “A”) who said:

“…….to promote someone that do well every time means at some point, he or she will be on a CEO’s grade while there will still be no changes in their job role”.

To affirm this submission, the organisation chose to conduct an examination for candidates selected for promotion as stated by T24, DM, “A”; T31, TM, “D”; and T32, AM, “F”. The managers further emphasised that this is a means through which the organisation ensures that promotion processes are controlled. In order words, it does not suffice for any employee to have performed excellently on the job, but the candidate will have to pass an examination too (T5, PDM, “A”). T24 explained that:

“To get promoted you have to pass a test, even if you are due for promotion and you fail that test 10 times, you will not be promoted”.

When asked why this method have been adopted by the company, T24 (DM, “A”) stated that;

“You know what happens in Nigeria businesses, so may be its [sic] because they cannot afford to pay, they will put a test and make it seem like we are the ones who does not want to be promoted because we fail, so you feel bad but at least you were considered for promotion but you failed”.

There is a consensus that the competency of an employee in taking on the responsibilities of a new role is non-negotiable where the individual is being considered for an advanced role. The implication according to

managers is that the individual will not be assigned to the advanced role having met all other requirements but shows to be incapable of handling the challenges of the new role. T12 (SBM, “A”) captures this as follows:

“If you are performing a role and you are meeting the objectives of that role, and you are performing on that role so the chances of you being promoted is high, unfortunately, you will be disappointed because promotion is not only based on your performance on the current role but on your ability to take a higher role”.

6.5.5.2 Decision making capabilities

Managers generally believe that increased responsibilities come along with more decision-making powers for the employee to get the job done. Conversely, this means at any time employees are restricted to executing decisions based on their role (T10, HRM, “G”). Although managers pointed out that being “accountable” for actions taken is one of the core values of the company, the authority to take decisions is very limited in cases where a decision might have huge financial implication to the organisation (T2, HRM, “A”). According to T3, R&D, “D”; T4, LM, “F”; T5, PDM, “A”; T7, QAM, “A”; T8, L&D, “G” and T24, DM, “A”, employees rather channel their thoughts or ideas to senior colleagues who have been mandated to make such decisions on behalf of the organisation. According to T6 (L&D, “G”), T19 (TrM, “G”) and T22 (SM, “A”):

“…. line managers are really empowered…most of the time they have the final say. Even though they will say oh, we are to challenge conventions, we are to do this...you can suggest, you can recommend…”

“You can’t take decisions on your own, it’s something you need to run by your team lead”

“I believe that [redacted] runs a very centralized system of control and approval system so it depends on how quickly you get the system to work for you”.

When asked how employees' know what their decision powers are, most managers stated that this is imbedded in the job descriptions and organisational policies (T2, HRM, "A"; T8, L&D, "G"; and T17, DM, "F") which explains an employee's decision making authority (T11, HRM, "E" and T18, R&D, "A"). One could deduce that everyone is involved in making decisions but only to the extent of authorisation assigned to the role occupied by the individual. Other decision making beyond the jurisprudence of the employee has to be referred to a superior as respondent T25 (FPCO, "A") claimed.

Despite the views above, one manager believed that unique skills and expertise could lead to increase in employees' ability to take decisions which could otherwise have been beyond their level of authorisation (T12, SBM, "A"). Another manager identified that the degree of delegation of decisions from a superior to a junior employee depended on the style of leadership (T16, CBM, "G"), and on the level of trust the manager has in the subordinate to make the right decisions. In both instances however, managers suggested that this could attract high levels of supervision or oversight from senior colleagues to ensure that proper decisions are being made.

6.6 Discussion

This section will address issues that emanated from the review of policies and procedures and interviews conducted with managers in the organisation. This will create an avenue to determine the current challenges in managing the KM and PWE and raise questions on processes and practices that should be considered by KM and PRM in promoting a positive work environment and maximising performance. Hopefully, this should generate a valid argument for the full adoption of KM and promotion of a positive PWE through PRM.

6.6.1 Conflicting views on employees' inputs in setting overall organisational objectives.

Emphasis on the importance of institutionalising organisational goals and objectives have been a recurring theme across the 3 studies. However, there are divergent views from managers on whether goal setting is the prerogative of top management or everyone within the organisation. Many KM frameworks and studies agree that managers are fully involved in objective setting for their organisations (Debowski, 2006; Donate & Sánchez de Pablo, 2014; ISO, 2017, p. 7; Kulkarni, 2006; Liebowitz, & Megbolugbe, 2003; Tseng & Lee, 2014; Rosing et al., 2011).

Nevertheless, there are still misconceptions on the level of involvement of some managers because of their grade level or position in the organisation. Most managers from the sales department believe lower level managers equally make input in objective-setting through the writing and submission of reports, forecasts evidences (Sharawy et al., 2017) which influence the objectives and decisions of the organisation. If this was the case, one could assume that top management will not 'blindly' set unachievable objectives having seen previous performance reports which could help them set more realistic goals.

Sales managers in particular believes that reports form a vital part of the decision-making process in forecasting for a new financial year. While this line of thought seems logical, the managers do not have a clear indication of knowing if this is the case. In agreement, various authors (Hasanali, 2002; Nonaka, Toyama & Konno, 2000; Wong, 2005; Zaki & Soliman, 2017) have established that any top-level manager who plans to achieve specific goals would provide the necessary support to their workers to facilitate the achievement of such an objective irrespective of whether they sought the inputs of lower managers and employees' or not. However, the viewpoint of T11 that the lack of consideration for employees' competencies will lead to unachieved and failure of organisational goals is understandable. Rather, some manager's perception that people are

competent and skilled enough to achieve assigned responsibilities emanate from organisational goals having been met in the past. Such managers do not think it matters to consider the possible effects of allocating work to individuals without assessing their level of competency to do the job.

However, managers who occupy administrative positions tend to believe that setting organisational objectives is at the discretion of top management. This view aligns with ISO (2017). Though these categories of managers did not provide a clear basis for their assumption, some suggested that management adopts various economic yardsticks which may include but are not limited to industry sector analysis, competitor analysis, and company's own forecast, where these reports might be helpful in decision making.

From a PRM viewpoint, the lack of understanding of employees' role or level of involvement in setting organisational objectives might lead to role ambiguity and conflict. 'Role ambiguity' and 'role conflict' are potential psychosocial hazards (Leka et. al., 2017; Ingersoll, et. al., 1999) associated with lower job satisfaction, incidents of work-related tension, and feelings of futility and lower levels of self-confidence (ILO, 2016). This could lead to lack of trust and collaboration and team work among colleagues (Zaki & Soliman, 2017). It has also been connected with increase in blood pressure and high pulse rates, symptoms of depression, low job motivation and intention to leave a job (Leka & Jain, 2010). On the other hand, role conflict causes cardio-vascular ill health and coronary disease (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1980; Shirom et al., 1973). These hazards could be caused by people's unwillingness to share valuable knowledge that could help resolve individual's problems, and therefore organisational issues (Karami et al, 2015). Understanding that there are possibilities of potentially negative outcomes due to role ambiguity and role conflict, the organisation must address this current situation.

In a nutshell, there are currently variant views from the managers of what operates in terms of the influence of workers in the determination of

company objectives. This will have to be looked into in order to ensure that while some employees have a sense of engagement within the organisation, others do not feel left out. It is also important for all employees to identify their role and contribution towards objective setting in the organisation. Unfortunately, there are currently no organisational policies that clearly lay out the contributions of individual roles to the organisation's overall objective.

This current scenario may be a fundamental characteristics of many African organisations. With a top management dominated by Nigerians, there is a higher likelihood towards an authoritarian, controlling and paternalistic approach to decision-making and management (Kiggundu, 1989). Also, the deference to authority by the African management system creates a situation where surbodinates do not challenge top management on the clarification of their contributions to organisational goals. Despite this, top management understands that earning the respect of surbodinates through humility and commitment to communal value is required to have legitimate authority. Where organisational leadership is able to 'earn' authority, employees are willing to follow leadership's guidance regarding the organisation's goals. Employees' submission to management is further cemented through a culture that thrives in collective achievements rather than individualism, hence the readiness of African employees to sacrifice their right for the collective good of the organisation.

6.6.2 Unclear definition of job descriptions and performance objectives in appraisal.

The dilemma in the interchangeable use of the terms 'job description' and 'performance objective' has created diverse interpretations among managers. There is a need for workers to have a clearer understanding of these terms to function appropriately within the work environment. The organisation's policies (2, 3, & 11) shows that objectives are for the wider organisation, while job descriptions are for specific roles. However, the alternate use of these terms by individuals is confusing. Managers in the

factory, sales and marketing functions mostly use these terms interchangeably, but much less so with their colleagues in HR and training units.

Also, it is difficult to determine whether employee competencies are solely based on the documented description of a job or on its performance objectives, or both. For instance, employees in sales and distribution management SBUs place performance objectives over job description. Employees in these groups believes that meeting or surpassing set objectives is the priority of the organisation even if that translates to acting beyond the official description of your role or deviating from your job description. Further investigations from HR personnel in the organisation revealed that performance objectives are usually set within the boundaries of the job description. Therefore, the claim by some managers of focusing on the performance objectives at the expense of the job description can be questioned.

Therefore, it is worthwhile to investigate the relationship between an employee's performance objective and their job description (Gruman and Saks, 2010, p. 129). It was notable that managers who earlier rebuffed the argument that employees are involved with the setting of objectives seem to agree on the contributions of employees' in setting their personal performance objectives with their line manager. Other managers advocated that the individual objectives are carved out of the overall company objective as supported by KM (ISO, 2017, p. 1 & 2; Liebowitz & Megbolugbe, 2003; Tseng & Lee, 2014). Conley and Zheng (2009) and ISO (2017) admit that individuals do have a role to play in its formulation. Some managers countered this line of argument by explaining that job description precedes the writing-up of an objective.

Whatever the case may be, it is evident that clear description of job and performance objectives are important based on its coverage by KM in the discussions above. In addition, PRM prioritises 'clear job descriptions' as one of the key factors in a well-designed work (Leka et. al., 2008). The

authors established that by doing so, “a good employer designs and manages work in a way that avoids psychosocial hazards and prevents foreseeable problems” (Leka et al. 2008, p. 10). The positive factors of the PWE such as the determination of meaningful work, appropriate use of skills, appropriate workload and other factors across the ten dimensions (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) further affirms the relevance of having well developed job description and performance objectives.

From a cultural point of view, the dilemma with defining jobs and performance objectives are not farfetched. The emphasis of the African management style on rules and procedures and control mechanisms at the expense of performance (Blunt & Jones, 1997) may be the root cause. The context-dependent nature of organisations in developing countries have been identified as a contributing factor to the prioritisation of encumbrance’s of rules and control over performance (Montgomery, 1987). This culture promotes decision-making based on relationships rather than application of explicit rules.

6.6.3 Challenges with targeted training programmes and policies

Training enables knowledge sharing, employee engagement and capacity development as acknowledged by KM frameworks and studies (Choy et al, 2005; Conley & Zheng, 2009; Jones, 2009; Karami et. al., 2015). With all company documents reviewed referring to capability development through training programmes (ISO, 2017, p. 16; Naquin & Holton, 2003), it is indicative that the organisation prioritises people training initiatives. Again, grey areas which require further investigation bothers on how the organisation identifies the training needs of employees occupying diverse operational and functional roles; and how it determines the form of training and the resource personnel that will be most impactful in achieving intended objectives, considering the multi-faceted channels of engagement accessible to the organisation.

Managers suggestions that the method of training adopted at any time is based on the role an employee occupies may not be the yardstick for deciding on training type and method. For instance, managers in the sales, marketing, distribution and commercial and trade departments were generally inclined towards on-the-job training or sharing training experiences (Hao et al., 2015; ISO 2017, p. 10). This could be related to the high level of engagement with organisation's clientele and machine operations these individuals are involved with. In their case, learning occurs through practical learning.

On the other hand, employees' who have administrative roles tend to have more classroom-based trainings which fits into their general job function and minimal on face-to-face client engagement. This does not mean that such individuals are not missing out on the benefits of alternative types and methods of training because they also need to engage with internal and occasionally with external clients too. Therefore, the organisation will be expected to have clear indicators in determining the type and method of training to adopt at any particular time. As noted earlier, there are other factors that must be considered from an individual point of view in setting up training courses.

Another grey area in the organisation's policy pertains to the availability of employee training based on budgetary plans. The limitation of training programmes to budget would adversely affect employee performance through no fault of the employee. Hence, Lin's (2007) argued in favour of the allocation for training budget to encourage knowledge transfer. While Lin's argument in favour of financial budgets for training programmes is tenable, it does not indicate what happens to employee training were designated budgetary allocation have been expended already.

Furthermore, there were no indications of clear rules about self-developmental trainings as they are very dependent on whether monies have been set aside for reimbursement of such training programmes, or if the employee's line-manager will approve it. Though evidence show that

employees are able to have a say in the trainings to undertake, the “chain of approval” stated by policy (4), (2012) gives an impression that while employees’ intentions have been registered, there are no assurances that they will get the training requested for. This approach contradicts Lin (2013) and Majeed (2009) who established that training should be rooted in the KM strategy process as a vital KM adoption factor. More importantly, this approach does not portray that employees’ have any form of control over their own training schedule.

Having said this, the availability of funds or discretionary powers of line-managers should not influence accessibility of people to training. For instance, lower-level managers in the operational arm of the business referred to the lack of sponsored training programmes as a reason for self-training by some individuals. Further investigations will have to determine the category of employees that are mostly affected, as it is indicative to mention that while most of the managers interviewed are aware of the opportunity to engage in self-developmental programmes, this initiative is mostly taken up by lower level managers.

The importance of training is well articulated within the purview of PRM. PRM supports the use of learning generally for continuous improvements and specifically for sharing knowledge that could be used in risk management, but also in the design of work organisation and management. One way to achieve this is through training, and encouraging people to share such knowledge with others in the organisation as discussed and referenced by multiple KM studies and Standard in this section. The knowledge obtained from the expertise or experience of others could help in the prevention of repeating the same mistakes at work.

A stumbling block to achieving this objective could be the disposition of African organisations towards training. The post-colonial management style which imposes control due to lack of trust in people has caused a focus on the supply side instead of the demand side of capacity building (Carlsson, 1998; Dia, 1996). This poor access to training have resulted in

the lack of capacity utilisation in African organisations. The outcome is a management style which is devoid of objective direction and avoids all forms of risk (Kiggundu, 1989). To deal effectively with this trend, this organisation will have to address the issues relating to training that were raised in this study.

6.6.4 Coaching and mentoring as a prerogative of top management which could cause knowledge hoarding

Similar to the role of training programmes, coaching and mentoring was a capability development initiative employed by the organisation as a viable way to improve work performances amongst employees (ISO, 2017, p. 10). While most participants supported the idea of having HR and training managers or line-managers as champions of this scheme, there are issues relating to the poor attitude of some individuals who are meant to be coaches or mentors. This can lead to lack of trust, openness and cooperation which are factors that must be present between parties involved in this process as evidenced in KM and the management of the PWE (Karami et al., 2015; Leka et. al., 2017; Shrafat, 2018; Zaki & Soliman, 2017) to benefit from the coaching or mentoring initiative.

It is true that leaders can influence their immediate environment to a large extent when leading by example and because of their decision-making mandate (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018). However, concerns was raised by some managers about the willingness of some top managers to coach or mentor unreservedly due to their tendency to hold back information in order to maintain their relevance to the organisation. Others queried the general impression that coaching, or mentoring should be the prerogative of top managers rather than being based on the competency of an individual irrespective of their position within the organisation.

As already stated in the section above, the prerogative of PRM and KM is ensuring the free-flow of information from its holders to those who need it. Doing this will entail the transfer of knowledge through training as

indicated by ISO (2017) and other KM research, which creates organisational learning as evidenced by Leka et al. (2008). This emphasises the importance of free knowledge flow across the organisation to avoid negative work-related outcomes.

Once again, the African management style is supportive of knowledge residing with top management. The trust reposed in leaders' places them in a position to acquire and use knowledge for decision-making purposes. This makes it the prerogative of management to determine what information to share. Also, the knowledge obtained by the subordinate through coaching and mentoring initiatives may not be useful where the individual does not have the authority to use it. Rather, people in top management usually take on paternalistic position (Jackson, 2002) where loyalty by the subordinate is rewarded with some form of mentoring from the manager. This is usually done when a manager wants to groom the subordinate as a potential successor for their position. Despite the fact that this organisation is a multi-national organisation, its high ratio of indigenous workers at the top and low levels of management is crucial to its adoption of coaching and mentoring techniques.

6.6.5 Challenges in managing communication tools and systems to facilitate effective usage

The organisation has adopted the use of multiple communication systems (policy 5), some of which are technology-driven, while others are socially inspired. Although the organisation provided for technologically-driven tools, these are mainly to store various vital organisational information, policies and procedures (Lindner & Wald, 2011).

The use of multi-level communication systems in the organisation calls for vast learning and re-learning of the operations of these systems by employees. This process takes physical time away from employees' who could be productive in other areas of the business. Similarly, depending on the degree of complexities involved in acquiring the required skills with a

new system, workers may find the learning curve a bit daunting as they try to gain knowledge while attending to their daily activities simultaneously. There is also the challenge of the time it takes to get everyone on board when the new or modified communication system is being introduced. Depending on the level of complexities, workers may be reluctant to adopt such systems. There were no policy guidelines on how issues relating to communication systems are addressed in the organisation.

Although the inclusion of its communication system in the OHS policy depicts the level of importance the organisation attaches to communication, yet, there is an obvious focus on physical risk (5) (2013) in comparison with the psychological or social risks that employees' might be equally exposed to. The obvious reason for the focus on communicating physical risk could be due to the nature of business (manufacturing) which the organisation is engaged in. Even though the company lays emphasis on the communication of health and safety in the operation of its machineries or the avoidance of accidents in its work place, the danger posed by psychosocial risk need to be factored in its OHS policies if the organisation is looking towards a robust and all-encompassing OHS policy.

Clearly entrenching specific rules into the organisation's policies will demonstrate its focus on good performance and avoidance of physical risk through communication. Likewise, the company's procedures draw from its understanding of the diversity of its people which may indicate peculiar needs with how they acquire and use information. While the organisation's main focus seems to be on the reduction of physical injuries as aforementioned, there was one mention of equality, discrimination avoidance, merit, job security, fair remuneration, freedom of association amongst other factors (policy 5) (ISO, 2017, p. 5 & 9; Tummala & Schoenherr, 2011) as a necessity towards building a unified workplace.

Poor communication of psychological or social risks has the potential to cause harm within the organisational culture (EU-OSHA, 2000). Studies show that higher levels of communication is significantly correlated with

higher levels of job satisfaction (Blegen, 1993). Therefore, issues regarding multiple interpretation or misinterpretation of documents and policies by individuals must be addressed. Some of the factors relating to communication involves clarifying organisational objectives and people's role as discussed in the previous section, ensuring support for individuals and teams and improving working organisation and management, working conditions and environment (ESENER, 2012). These factors are comprehensively covered in PRM (Leka et al., 2017) and KM initiatives (ISO, 2017) as evidenced in Chapter 5.

Notwithstanding, the company demonstrated the degree of importance it attaches to communication by capturing this in its OHS (policy 5) that exhaustively discussed the modes of communication it has adopted. In hindsight, the company realises the impact which a breakdown in communication might have regarding the health and safety of employees (Politis, 2003) that work within its factory, hence, the realisation to invest in and create multiple forum of engagement for workers to interact. While this may be the case, an interesting observation was that, although the organisation laid out some of the process or procedure for communication, there was no mention of the medium through which communication and knowledge is being shared or disseminated by any of the interview participants'. Similarly, the criteria for choosing a particular channel of communication was not discussed in the organisation's policies or by the participants.

6.6.6 Employee empowerment and motivation misinterpreted and restricted by the lack of decision making capabilities

The framework proposed by Karami et al., (2015) referred to employee empowerment as an essential factor in organisational strategy. This was equally referenced in multiple policies (3, 5, 6, 7, and 8) of the organisation. However, there are strong indications that the extent of empowerment is actually limited to the organisation's expectation from its employees. In essence, employees are being told how they are expected to

behave and react to work-related situations, rather than being given the required support to handle and resolve work-related problems as they deem fit. It is difficult to regard the use of phrases like “drive and enthusiasm under pressure”, “diligence and commitment to organisation”, “using initiative and drive to achieve set objectives”, and “resiliently tackling and overcoming obstacles despite challenging circumstances” as actual empowerment.

By suggesting that employees should display a confident, calm, composed and optimistic attitude even when facing stressful situations or when dealing with change within the organisation (policy 2) further affirms the pre-disposition of the organisation in expressing the attitude it expects from its employees. Hence, it is quite ominous that the company policies describe the above expressions as employee empowerment when the reality is that employees are rather being told the minimum level of performance expected from them. Without gainsaying, policy 1 suggest that employee empowerment is a function of certain measures. One way to determine an employee who is empowered involves evaluating whether or not the worker have any control over the volume of work he or she has to do within a certain period (Jain et. al., 2014; Leka & Jain, 2010). In a situation where the individual has no control over workload, it can be presumed that such an employee will find it difficult to engage in any form of planning or organising that suits them in accomplishing their objectives. There are indications of discrepancies between policies 1 and 2.

In addition, the findings of this research show that higher positions are synonymous with decision making responsibilities (Conley & Zheng, 2009). In effect, employees tend to be subjected to the instructions given by their managers without the assurance that they will assume a role with clear authority to make decisions in the near future. The policies suggest that the structure of the organisation makes it difficult to use own initiative and ideas, while it also portrays the restrictions in decision making and control subject to an employee’s position within the company. Policies 1 and 3 also provides a perspective that clearly suggest that the amount of time to be

spent on a specific task or setting task priorities also helps in evaluating the actual decision-making powers assigned to a role (Lindner & Wald, 2011). In this organisation's case, the documentary evidence do not reveal how this process works.

PRM identifies decision latitude and control as important issues in job design and work organisation (Leka & Jain, 2010). The experience of low control or loss of control and low decision latitude has been associated with experience of anxiety, stress, exhaustion and low self-esteem (Karasek & Theorell, 1990; Sauter et al. 1989). To this end, Cox (1990) and Warr (1992) suggested that people should be empowered to plan and control their work and workloads, and make decisions regarding how work should be executed. However, control can be two-edged where making choices are part of controlling situations which can be a source of stress in themselves.

From a cultural perspective, employee empowerment can be a slow process due to the gradual building of trust in a high context-dependent culture (Mbigi, 1997). Therefore, the commitment to support one another through relationships built on communal network of obligations may go against the degree of empowerment being pondered in this study. To reiterate, the link between empowerment and authority are too close in the African management context and therefore difficult to separate. As already stated, authority and control lies with top management. This does suggest that they are empowered, while others trust their decisions based on shared values and mutual respect. However, the involvement of people in ensuring that leaders uphold communal values provides a great deal of empowerment for those at the lower level in overseeing the activities of those at the top. This approach could further facilitate the entrenchment of power in the hands of organisational leaders, unless the organisation consciously gravitate towards a western system of management.

6.6.7 Misaligned reward system due to differentiated employees' expectations

Using reward systems as motivators, the organisation is sending contradicting information to its employees on its policy relating to promotion or career progression. Although the organisation understands that most employees who have been consistently meeting or exceeding performance will not be promoted where there are no vacant positions, yet, its policies seem to be in contradiction by stating a path for employee progression (policy 1) but also expressing that progression is not guaranteed (policy 6 & 10) suggesting that it is a mere guideline (policy 11, p. 3). Interview participants further affirm that irrespective of the career path outlook the organisation provides to its employees', there is a very limited chance that such individuals will attain these positions.

Understanding the unlikely prospects that every employee who meets expected levels of performance will get promoted, the organisation provided an outlet that provides workers with immediate financial rewards, recognition and awards which are tied to their performance and grade level (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018). However, this does not seem to address the issues emanating around the organisation's reward system. Most of the managers advocated that workers preferred a clear path towards career development than other forms of reward. However, financial form of reward have been widely accepted in most western and African organisations. This approach has been labelled as a scheme which encourages a constricted set of skills and prevents extensive initiatives from people (Dia, 1996).

With pay as a major form of reward therefore, some managers voiced their disapproval about disproportionate pay for employees who have similar work responsibilities, even though pay has been adjudged as a vital reward factor for work done (Siemsen et. al., 2007). This is another factor that the organisation may have to re-assess to ensure considerable fairness. As earlier established in the findings in this chapter, financial reward may not be a motivating factor for every employee (Schaufeli and

Salanova, 2010; Mueller, 2015). Maslow, (1943) and his “hierarchy of needs” concept, alongside other theorist have found that motivation and pay have many facets which includes equity, expectancy and social concepts which could further create a discord between employers’ and employees’, where there are variances in expectations.

Likewise, apart from tying rewards to employees’ overall performance at the end of a financial year, the company policies have failed to initiate a reward system which compensates and motivates its workers at every stage of performance as many studies have advocated (Conley & Zheng, 2009; Handzic, 2010; Hsieh & Chen, 2003; Kulkarni, 2006; Zaki & Soliman, 2017). While the organisation seems to have adopted Du Plessis, (2007) suggestion of the push reward system in terms of using performance appraisals to reward the employees’ participation in performance objectives, there are no indications that the pull reward system which incentivises the sharing of innovative ideas (Jones, 2009) generated by employees have been considered. The organisation is presently missing out on a fertile source of employee empowerment enabled by provision of incentives to the knowledge bearer. Lin, (2007) indicated that enjoyment in helping others, which could be motivated by incentives, was strongly associated with employee willingness to share.

Despite its efforts, the organisation should consider the impact that the lack of expected career development as a cause of stress in organisations, such as the organisation investigated, which associates career development to employee competence (Leka & Jain, 2010). The misrepresentation of information regarding career advancement can result in fears of job insecurity and redundancy which are associated with adverse psychological effects and poor physical health (ILO, 2016). With employees’ health and organisational productivity as main outcomes of the PRM framework, the focus of the organisation in designing a reward system that meets employee’s expectation cannot be over-emphasised.

Table 6.6: Table shows a comparative evaluation between themes identified within the documentary and interview analysis.

Case Study Approach				
Interviews			**Documentary analysis**	
Theme	**Sub-theme**	**Description**	**Theme**	**Description**
Leadership's support towards goal attainment	Cascading organisational goals to different categories of employees (top to bottom)	Disseminating organisation visions/objectives in a manner that employees will understand and imbibe to attain set goals enabled through business planning processes. This includes decision making to clarify grey areas of goal communication.	Management-led initiatives - Establishing organisational standards	Standards for performance, behaviour and skills and establishing directions by setting a clear picture of objectives, practice/goals, commitment of the organisation and the responsibilities of employees
	Management-led objective setting based on employees input, competences and reviewed performances	Setting achievable objectives centred on employees' competencies, experiences and input, the provision of the required support to ensure objective accomplishment and a review of organisation's past performances	Learning and development - Capability development	Processes that support management and employees in performing their role, maximising their engagement and contribution to business objectives by highlighting the potential that each individual has to develop
Role distribution based on employees' competencies	Role definition	Providing a written document that clearly instructs, states and breaks down activities into smaller bits of what is expected from both new and old employees' in the roles they occupy.	People-focused organisational processes -Evaluating role objective, relevance and requirement.	Evaluating the need for the role, the evolving business priorities, the expertise and experience needed in accomplishing set objectives and the future requirements of the role before committing to vacancy/engagement

Enhancing employee performance	Establishing role-related & soft training & re-training plan	Establishing formal & informal training programmes based on the organisation's training objectives for the year, training needs analysis or relating to the hard and soft functions required for improving performance in different roles which is set by the line manager with the input (feedback) of the employee.	Learning and development - Capability development	Processes that support management and employees in performing their role, maximising their engagement and contribution to business objectives by highlighting the potential that each individual has to develop
Employee cooperation and accessibility to senior colleagues	Nature of work design	Designing work in a way that there is a level of inter-dependence between tasks to guarantee completion which help fosters relationships between teams and to help bridge the communication gap, if any, between managers and employees in order to facilitate easier oversight functions by managers, and the accessibility of managers to employees.	Multi-level communication - Influencing effective communication and clear information presentation through social and technologic means.	A management attitude which enables communication through various modes to ensure that necessary knowledge gets to the people who need it
			Sustaining performance and productivity - Ideal work environment – systems of work.	A fit-for-purpose work environment equipped with necessary tools
	Encouraging attitude change to improve team cohesion	Understanding individual differences. Creating an awareness within team members for each individual to know, understand and appreciate the differences in others (maturity). These	Learning and development - Team work based on openness and trust.	Demonstrating personal leadership roles and effectively motivating others through communicating and presenting information clearly (openness) and successfully, while building and maintaining mutually beneficial and

		diversities in personality should be an asset for improved team performance rather than a liability.		long-term relationships (integrity and trust)
Employees' motivators	Recognition for good performance - Motivation	Employee's track record in terms of performance is kept for future reference in times of promotion or consideration for higher responsibilities, career progression, higher benefits and awards (monetary and non-monetary) and increased authority	Sustaining performance and productivity - Rewarding performance.	Positive or negative rewards solely attributable to employee performance
	Decision making capabilities	The degree of decision is bound to the level of authority the employee wields as a result of his position and/or the weight of the decision to be made. Though the organisational value encourages the use of initiatives and being accountable, employees are mandated to carry their superiors along in processes beyond their designation	People-focused organisational processes - Degree of decision influence - Role in decision making.	Determined by the types of decisions the employee is involved in, the nature of employee's role in decision making, the contributions made by other employees, and the guidelines in place to support the decision making

6.7 Conclusion

The finding and discussion above have clearly established the overlaps in themes in the documentary evidence and interviews analysed as shown in Table 6.6 above. Also, this study has established some relationships between work organisation and management, and working conditions that affects KM and PRM in managing the psychosocial work environment. This will form the basis for recommendations and conclusions in the next chapter.

Nevertheless, the case study analysis itself have shown the web of relationships and interactions which exist from the creation of knowledge, through other knowledge activities through to knowledge utilisation. The role technology plays as the conduit through which knowledge travels from its source, that is, knowledge in people's heads stored in knowledge systems and made available to the recipient to use. These interactions are found to be facilitated by the leadership of the organisation who tries to ensure that the culture of the organisation promotes the level of trust and willingness to share knowledge through social networks and user-friendly systems. The study also affirms the function and challenges top management encounters in motivating and rewarding employees for effective knowledge sharing and knowledge use. Ultimately, the study found that there is the need for organisations to carefully choose its resources to ensure that they are the right fit for the attainment of organisational objectives.

These observations set the tone for the need to build and put forward a holistic recommendation on how the integration of findings and analysis from studies in Chapter 4 , Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 could help shape or provide a more lasting solution to how knowledge themes can be organised, managed and used in managing the work environment in order to improve general working conditions by promoting PRM.

Chapter 7 Knowledge Management and Psychosocial Risk Management: Discussion and recommendations

7.1 Introduction

KM has been described as the process involved in the learning of intellectual assets, which are vital for an organisation's long-term performance (Debowski, 2006). Also, KM frameworks are tools that can be used in improving working conditions and organisation. This thesis has been able to establish that KM could assist in the promotion of working conditions, work organisation and management. Knowledge conversion and transfer plays a vital part in the transformation of risk assessment into actionable plans by organisation. Ultimately, through knowledge protection, an organisation could learn from the outcomes of knowledge application and use this as a tool to advance knowledge use to achieve set organisational objectives, which includes the management of psychosocial risks.

Despite arguments in favour of using KM as a tool to promote PRM through its application to risk management (RM) (Karadsheh et al., 2008), it is still evident that KM and RM need to better integrate to promote the management of psychosocial factors. The complementarity between KM themes and the psychosocial factors further makes the need for Knowledge Risk Management (KRM) more tenable. In addition, the similarities between KM and RM regarding their attributes and typologies (see Chapters 1 & 2) also affirms the relationship between both concepts.

Therefore, one could surmise that the application of KM processes and drivers in promoting RM has the potential of mitigating the probability of risk occurrence by raising the probability of successful RM execution (Fuller et al., 2008). For this to happen, it is important that the organisation prioritises knowledge infusion into RM. As Massingham (2010) observed KRM is an emerging field which suggests proffering solutions to the problems connected with conventional RM methods or even complementing them as being prescribed in this thesis.

Accordingly, this chapter recommends improved interaction between KM and PRM in managing the psychosocial work environment (working conditions and work organisation). This will bring significant improvement to people and organisational performance and promote well-being at work. Table 7.1 shows a comparison of key themes/factors from Studies 1 to 3 to emphasise KM and the case-study investigation in managing psychosocial factors, and therefore managing potential hazards.

Table 7.1: A comparative evaluation between the case study analysis, the KM framework analysis, psychosocial factors

Case study					**Knowledge Management**		**PWE**	
Interview themes	**Sub-themes**	**Description**	**Documentary themes**	**Description**	**Theme**	**Description**	**Dimensions**	**Factors**
Leadership's support towards goal attainment	Cascading organisational goals to different categories of employees (top to bottom)	Disseminating organisation visions/objectives in a manner that employees will understand and imbibe in order to attain set goals enabled through business planning processes. This includes decision making to clarify grey areas of goal communication.	**Management-led initiatives** - Establishing organisational standards	Standards for performance, behaviour and skills and establishing directions by setting a clear picture of objectives, practice/goals, commitment of the organisation and the responsibilities of employees	**Leadership commitment** - Articulating and implementing KM visions and strategies	Setting up policies & establishing objectives based on decisions made as a way to control workforce towards the attainment of KM goals.	Organisational culture & function	Clear organisational objectives
	Management-led objective setting based on	Setting achievable objectives centred on	**Learning and development** -	Processes that support management and employees in	**Leadership commitment** -	Instilling consciousness in employees	Organisational culture & function	Personal development & good

	employees input, competences and reviewed performances	employees' competencies, experiences and input, the provision of the required support to ensure objective accomplishment and a review of organisation's past performances	Capability development	performing their role, maximising their engagement and contribution to business objectives by highlighting the potential that each individual has to develop	Workforce engagement	about their responsibilities in KM initiatives		communication processes
Role distribution based on employees' competencies	Role definition	Providing a written document that clearly instructs, states and breaks down activities into smaller bits of what is expected from both new and old employees' in the roles they occupy.	**People-focused organisational processes** - Evaluating role objective, relevance and requirement*	Evaluating the need for the role, the evolving business priorities, the expertise and experience needed in accomplishing set objectives and the future requirements of the role before committing to vacancy/engagement	**Organisational culture** - Roles and responsibilities	Standardising the "collective ideals of engagement" to empower & encourage employees in knowledge sharing in order to ensure that employees know what is expected of them across organisational	Role in organisation	Clear roles and responsibilities

						& geographical boundaries		
Enhancing employee performance	Establishing role-related & soft training & re-training plan	Establishing formal & informal training programmes based on the organisation's training objectives for the year, training needs analysis or relating to the hard and soft functions required for improving performance in different roles which is set by the line manager with the input (feedback) of the employee.	**Learning and development** - Capability development	Processes that support management and employees in performing their role, maximising their engagement and contribution to business objectives by highlighting the potential that each individual has to develop	**Organisational Learning** - Improving skills and competencies	Attainable through training, communication networks, networks of peers and communities of practice in ensuring the capabilities of employees are relatively consistent to accomplish their work & realise the desired values	Organisational culture & function	Personal development & good communication processes

Employee cooperation and accessibility to senior colleagues	Nature of work design	Designing work in a way that there is a level of inter-dependence between tasks to guarantee completion which help fosters relationships between teams and to help bridge the communication gap, if any, between managers and employees in order to facilitate easier oversight functions by managers, and the accessibility of managers to employees.	**Multi-level communication** - Influencing effective communication and clear information presentation through social and technologic means	A management attitude which enables communication through various modes to ensure that necessary knowledge gets to the people who need it	Socio-technical capabilities - Work systems	Enabling employees to understand the merits of interactions between creating time for locating & sharing knowledge through social relationships and knowledge retrieval from databases or communicated via internet, intranet, emails or other technological systems towards the attainment of desired organisational effectiveness	Interpersonal relationships at work	Social support

			Sustaining performance and productivity - Ideal work environment – systems of work	A fit-for-purpose work environment equipped with necessary tools	Socio-technical capabilities - Physical design	Physical work space arrangements that facilitates free-knowledge flow amongst group members	Environment & equipment	Good physical working conditions according to good practice guidance
	Encouraging attitude change to improve team cohesion	Understanding individual differences. Creating an awareness within team members for each individual to know, understand and appreciate the differences in others (maturity). These diversities in personality should be seen as an asset for improved team	**Learning and development** - Team work based on openness and trust	Demonstrating personal leadership roles and effectively motivating others through communicating and presenting information clearly (openness) and successfully , while building and maintaining mutually beneficial and long term relationships (integrity and trust)	Organisational culture - Trust	Creating a willingness & behaviour of openness by employees & management, which facilitates and encourages collaborative values that increases the propensity of employees & teams to share relevant knowledge.	Interpersonal relationships at work	Good relationships at work

		performance rather than a liability.						
Employees' motivators	Recognition for good performance - Motivation	Employee's track record in terms of performance is kept for future reference in times of promotion or consideration for higher responsibilities, career progression, higher benefits and awards (monetary and non-monetary) and increased authority	Sustaining performance and productivity - Rewarding performance	Positive or negative rewards solely attributable to employee performance	Organisational culture - Motivation	Recognising individuals based on knowledge sharing, cooperation and teamwork using rewards and incentives	Career development	effort reward balance
	Decision making capabilities	The degree of decision is bound to the level of authority the employee wields as a	**People-focused organisational processes** - Degree of decision	Determined by the types of decisions the employee is involved in, the nature of employees role in	Stakeholder participation & cooperation - Degree of knowledge influence	The degree of knowledge influence facilitated by the level of authority,	Control	Participation in decision making, control at work

		result of his position and/or the weight of the decision to be made. Though the organisational value encourages the use of initiatives and being accountable, employees' are mandated to carry their superiors along in processes beyond their designation	influence - Role in decision making	decision making, the contributions made by other employees, and the guidelines in place to support the decision making	facilitated by the level of authority	which causes people with higher authority to share information amongst their peers while employees with lower authority tend to direct information to those with superior authority, based on the capability of the latter to put knowledge to effective use.		

7.2 Recommendation

Recommendations are based on the consideration of themes generated and analysed, and compared with psychosocial factors in this thesis as presented in Table 7.1. The Table clearly shows that if an organisation manages knowledge well, it will automatically manage/promote the psychosocial work environment due to the complementarity between KM themes and the psychosocial factors. In other words, if an organisation does KM well, it does PRM too, and in turn, if an organisation implements PRM, it promotes KM too. The following recommendation attest to this submission.

7.2.1 Objective-setting based on contributions from management and employees

Although there is uniformity in all three studies on the importance of instituting organisational objectives and goals, goal setting is the prerogative of top management as Donate and Sánchez de Pablo (2014); Rosing et. Al. (2011); and Debowski (2006) describes knowledge leaders as the executor of the knowledge agenda through a clear definition of approach with distinct task requirement (ISO, 2017 p. 7 and 8). Despite this, there are conflicting views about who is involved setting organisational objectives.

KM however elucidates on the relevance of KM processes that will ensure that *'everyone'* understands the organisation's *"intentions and directions"* based on the commitment of the leadership team (DeTienne et al. 2004; Yahya and Goh, 2002). It is quite obvious that while one cannot rule out the important role of top management in coordinating these KM resources and processes, employee involvement is particularly important towards the attainment of company objectives (Birasnav, Rangnekar, and Dalpati, 2010). This is made evident in the 'organisational objective' psychosocial factor (Jain et al., 2014) which emphasises on how objectives are met by managers in designing, implementing and monitoring

organisational strategies in order to spread knowledge to diverse human processes.

Employees participation in decision-making (objective setting) is one way of motivating people, but it also creates a platform for people to be involved in decision-making processes which eliminates feelings of stress, anxiety, exhaustion or low self-esteem (Garcia et al, 2014) associated with issues relating to work organisation and management, and deciding on organisational objectives in this case. Hence, to ensure an effective approach to goal-setting, an organisation must establish clear standards and policies that can be effectively communicated throughout the organisation while top management seeks the contribution of its employees in the development of such objectives. This will promote people's understanding of their roles and responsibilities and the avoidance of issues relating to role ambiguity and conflict (Leo, et al., 2015; Schmidt et al., 2014), but rather revealing areas for employees' capacity building (training) to increase their decision-making latitude and control over work.

7.2.2 Defining roles based on purpose, expertise and experience required, current and future demands and employee development

To improve on a role definition or description (purpose), KM and managers recommends the standardisation of expectations regarding responsibilities from the holder of such a position. This can be achieved through the constitution of documents that provides a step-by-step approach to role description. It is also recommended that roles assignment should be based on the degree of expertise and experience demonstrated by a prospective candidate being considered for a position (ISO, 2017; Shrafat, 2018). The case-study analysis also recommends the consideration of the current and future demands of any role for designing employees' development pathway.

From a PRM perspective, these recommendations will create role clarity and therefore better control over work by the employee. This will prevent the potential hazardous aspects of work relating to role overload or insufficiency, or stress associated with lack of control. Going forward, the recommendation also provides a pathway to future role demands thereby preventing psychosocial hazards such as job insecurity, redundancy, under promotion or lack of career progression. Inadvertently, this will prevent adverse psychological or poor physical health that could be associated with these hazards (Leka & Jain. 2010; ILO, 2016).

7.2.3 Improving employee performance through functions of social interaction, technological infrastructure, and culture and environment

KM has proven the social and technological aspects of work as enhancers of employee performance by facilitating the “knowledge process” (ISO, 2017 p. 6 & 7; Chen and Huang, 2011 p.267). KM frameworks suggests that it is imperative to build a knowledge-sharing culture based on values that ensures profitability of the business through the value it places on employees for what they know (Davenport et al., 1998; Lee and Choi, 2003). To achieve this, KM lays emphasis that social interaction fostered by trust and incentive to share knowledge and the use of technology must be the bedrock of an organisation’s philosophy.

It is recommended that organisations must integrate building social interaction and technology into a culture that promotes knowledge sharing (Holsapple and Wu, 2011) which must be well harnessed in a learning organisation. Training and processes that supports management/employee performance is recommended based on study comparisons. These trainings should take formal or informal forms through social or technology driven approaches (communication networks, communities of practice and so on). This will ensure that people are able to access the knowledge they require in accomplishing their work. Based on investigations, it is also recommended that employees should have input in initiatives that are meant

to improve their performance. This should be carried out based on the skill or competence the individual requires in accomplishing tasks.

This recommendation addresses probable hazards that could emanate from an organisation that is poor as a task environment, as a problem-solving environment and a development environment (Khamisa et al., 2015). People who work in such environment are susceptible to increased levels of stress (Leka & Jain, 2010). Whereas, an organisation which is good in these aspects as earlier suggested is able to attenuate the relationship between individuals' experience of stress and reports regarding symptoms of ill-health.

7.2.4 Employee cooperation fostered by systems of work design that encourages communication, teamwork and attitude change.

Inter-personal relationships and all forms of social interaction at work are enabled by many factors. The socio-technological interaction are essential in triggering cooperation among employees (ISO, 2017). KM advocates that this happens when people appreciate and create time for building relationships, and engagement through communication systems and databases (Kulkarni, 2006). This attitude can be encouraged where management is disposed to utilising human and IT resources to get required knowledge to people who need it. The channel of continuous communication and knowledge exchange creates a network of people working together to achieve similar objectives.

The role of good physical working conditions cannot be overlooked as a contributor to employee cooperation either. A well-equipped and strategically arranged work space facilitates freer flow of information through easier accessibility to knowledge centres (ISO, 2017). An ideal work system and work environment allows people to work as a team or community which brings about continuity in terms of sustainable organisational performance. In essence, the nature of work design, be it,

socially, technologically, or as channels of communication an organisation adopts, contributes towards good interpersonal support at work (Handzic, 2010).

Therefore, good relationships among people is important for individual and organisational health (Eurofound, 2015). The recommendation above will prevent stress-related illnesses that are associated with the lack of support in the workplace (ILO, 2016). For instance, risk factors like emotional exhaustion, job tension and high anxiety are devoid in a work environment where people and technology provide support and knowledge exchange as at when needed. This actions naturally brings people to work together and build trust and openness over time. This eradicates the probable occurrence of risk incidents that are linked to the lack of teamwork in an organisation. Sustaining a work environment where interpersonal relationship thrives, involves a positive attitude towards change imbedded in organisational culture.

7.2.5 Career development, rewards, decision making and control capabilities as motivators of employee performance

Regarding effort reward balance as a factor in the career development dimension, KM recommends proactive outlook where people are rewarded based on their willingness and capability to share knowledge and teamwork. On the other hand, case-study analysis reflects a reactive outlook to reward. In the organisation, rewards and incentives are based on a track record of performances of an individual. The case-study shows that the reward can come as monetary rewards, promotions and recognition for good work. In fact, documentary evidence recommends that reward should be double-edged. It recommended punishment for individuals who are under-performing. This view is quite different from the perspective through which KM has addressed this issue.

From a decision-making or control viewpoint, KM recommends that knowledge should be shared among people who can use it. Taking it a step

further, KM indicates that knowledge should flow upwards from people with lower authority to those with greater authority because they are able to put such knowledge to better use (Lin, 2013). Though in agreement to the aforementioned, the case-study evidence further recommends that the decision latitude of the individual is limited by the type of decisions they are allowed to make, and their role or contribution to decision making compared to others.

The investigation outcomes in this thesis identified top managers as people who generally have decision-making capabilities and control. However, it does not seem to have clearly addressed how people can be empowered. This leaves control entirely at the doorstep of top managers (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018). Since decision taking and control is tied to the position of the individual in the organisation, and promotion is only one method of reward, and therefore not accessible to everyone, this could be a dilemma in an organisation. This is particularly so because the lack of decision-making capabilities and control have been found to increase stress levels, anxiety and low self-esteem (Schwarzer, 2014; Beiter et al., 2015) despite their importance in job design and work organisation (Leka & Jain, 2010).

Therefore, KM's view regarding individuals being rewarded for knowledge sharing could improve the feeling of control by individuals who are not in position of authority. KM believes that know-how, skills acquisition, expertise and competence levels of an employee gives them a feeling of control over their job (Lin, 2007). Hence, while authority may be bound to people's position in an organisation, the creation and dissemination of knowledge would empower people in achieving the level of expertise and competence they require on the job. Ultimately, this will reduce stress, eliminate anxiety and low self-esteem (ILO, 2016; Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017) but rather boost the chances of an employee being promoted and attaining greater decision-latitude and control over work.

7.3 Implications in practice

7.3.1 Clarity in setting objectives

Many studies agree that managers are fully involved in objective setting for their organisations (ISO, 2017, p. 7; Kulkarni, 2006; Liebowitz & Megbolugbe, 2003; Tseng & Lee, 2014). Leaders have been described not just as goal setters but also as executors of the knowledge agenda through a clear definition of approach (Debowski, 2006; Donate and Sánchez de Pablo, 2014; Rosing et al., 2011). In furtherance of this line of argument, any top level manager who plans to achieve specific goals should provide their workers with the necessary support to facilitate the achievement of such objectives (Hasanali, 2002; Nonaka et al., 2000; Wong, 2005; Zaki & Soliman 2017).

In pursuance of an all-encompassing objective setting initiative, it is important and therefore recommended that the organisation creates a flowchart that show the process of objective setting and the contribution of each department/individual towards its attainment. Likewise, employees' should be informed about the role their work plays in the organisation's decision making process. Doing so will facilitate employees' knowledge on how objectives/decisions are made, and what their personal input is, despite the fact that they may not be physically present when objectives are being set. Therefore, the argument in respect to the competency or skill of decision makers in the organisation may not be of so much importance in the determination of how objectives are set after all. While this research agrees that the degree of an individual's involvement in objective setting and decision making are directly linked with higher positions (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Kumar et al., 2013), there should be a realisation that the organisation need to promote the awareness of the contributions of everyone towards organisational goals.

Based on the misconceptions of managers about people and processes involved in setting organisational policies and objectives, it is

important to identify and clearly define the contributors to policies and objectives development. This can be achieved when leadership or designated knowledge champions are able to unambiguously articulate policy and strategy 'intention' and 'direction' (ISO, 2017; Kim & Hancer, 2010; Kulkarni, 2006; Ndlela & Toit, 2001). This is particularly important because middle level managers should have a role to play in bridging the differences that may exist in the expectation between top managers who may have a pre-determined mind set of what they would like to achieve, and the front-line employees who are confronted with the reality of whether these expectations are practicable or not.

There is an urgent need for the organisation to synchronise the views of its workforce, and further institute leadership-led policies that are fit for organisational purpose (Conley & Zheng, 2009; ISO, 2017; Jones, 2009; Liebowitz & Megbolugbe, 2003; Sharawy & Abdelghaffar, 2017). It is expected that to achieve specific goals the organisation would be willing to provide necessary support to workers to facilitate objective accomplishment.

On the part of lower level managers, they should be allowed by top management to lend their voice to decision making processes through the preparation and provision of policies that would help shape and guide organisational objectives. A clear reporting line that promotes initiative and a suitable strategy that enables dissemination of information to appropriate individuals (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Shrafat, 2018) can be expressly presented in the organisation's policy and made accessible to all employees' in the organisation. Although this policy document may exist in the form of an organisational chart, there is yet a need to make it easily accessible to all workers for them to know their degree of contribution towards organisational goals.

In addition, the ability of employees' to identify and understand people and processes involved in the organisation's objectives setting and decision making is important in recognising the time-lag that exists between

task initiation and completion. It equally gives people an opportunity to identify individuals occupying roles that shape policy objectives of the business. Again, this gives the workforce an opportunity to know the chain of communication, while having a clearer understanding of their position and contribution to objective setting. As previously determined in Chapters 4 and 5, this creates the feeling of trust and openness, and shows the meaningfulness of the employee's work within the organisation.

In a nutshell, this approach will resolve the current variant views of managers of what operates in terms of the influence of workers in determining company objectives. This clarification will ensure that some individuals do not feel left out, when others have a sense of engagement within the organisation because they fully understand their role. Even more importantly, role ambiguity or role conflict is prevented through an organisational objective-setting process that gives people an opportunity make contributions, whilst having a clear understanding of their role towards achieving the objectives. Preventing the occurrence of these hazards will provide employees with better job satisfaction, greater sense of value to organisation, reduced work tension due to role clarity, and increased self-confidence. These are all psychosocial factors which an organisation requires to effectively manage its psychosocial work environment (Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017). This approach would prevent the incidence of depression, low job motivation, or intention to leave job (Leka &Jain, 2010) and rather, it will increase trust, collaboration and teamwork among colleagues (Zaki & Soliman, 2017) which are equally essential to improving working conditions and the work environment (Jain, Dediu, Zwetsloot & Leka, 2017).

7.3.2 Role evaluation

As earlier mentioned, to ensure role clarity, there should not be any misconception in the interchangeable use of job description and performance objectives particularly among junior managers. The organisation should create an awareness on the purposes of these

documents. Managers must understand that job description encompasses the duties and responsibilities relating to a job, while performance objective are usually the expected outcome of job description within a pre-defined period (Manjula et al. 2016). This implies that job description and organisational objectives are intertwined. This awareness can be created among workers' through knowledge sharing (Karami et al., 2015 and Zaki & Soliman, 2017) as a way of improving employees' skills and competencies (refer to Chapter 4).

Therefore, describing the function of a role should inform and drive what its objectives are. The organisation should ensure that this is the case. Furthermore, the ability of junior managers to make a distinction between these terms would help them focus on engaging with the processes that are vital to organisation's goals. On the contrary, the greater the degree of deviation between people understanding of job description and performance objective, the more likely that employees will not cope with the rigours of the job because of unmet expectations resulting from unclear roles and responsibilities. This could bring about negative psychosocial factors such as meaningless work, under use of skills, work overload or underload and other hazards as highlighted by Leka et al. (2017). Meaningless work and under use of skills (work underload) have been associated with negative psychosocial risk experiences of boredom, anxiety, resentment and poor psychological health (ILO, 2016; Leka & Jain, 2010). Also, work overload results in fatigue and psychosomatic symptoms due to sustained long hours of working.

Therefore, there is need for a concerted effort on the part of training and HR managers to educate workers on how roles are defined (Anggia, 2013; Jones, 2009; Wong et al. 2004). To prevent the current conundrum in the interpretation of these terms in the Sales department for instance, it is pertinent to have a written document that explains role deliverables (ISO, 2017). It is also indicative to note that employee's performance objectives and measurement should be derived from the job description (Gruman &

Saks, 2010 p. 129) based on agreement between line-managers and employees.

Similarly, the organisation's policies should show the criteria for recruitment or filling a role (Jung et al. 2007; Cristina, 2009), hence, a need for effective communication by leadership. Also, it is important for individuals occupying a role to have an expectation of what the position involves. The ISO (2017) advocate that top management must establish this in organisational policies with respect to the use of work systems and building a culture that values knowledge. Therefore, the degree of deviation between the actual job description and the employee's responsibilities should be closely aligned to avoid situations where there are significant differences between expected and actual responsibilities for a role.

One way to limit this difference is by providing a system that appraises workers solely on the objectives to be met. More importantly, there should be on-going training for line-managers that educates them on handling the performance review of employees solely on role objectives. These line managers should be closely monitored by senior colleagues who can provide oversight to ensure that employees are being evaluated based on the appropriate objectives. Kulkarni (17), (2006) supports this idea by advocating for people in leadership roles within the organisation to spearhead such projects. This may also involve the enactment of a comprehensive conflict and grievance policy that lay out an unbiased guideline which all employees should follow, where there are variances in expectations between the appraiser and appraisee.

Equally, a holistic 'Skills need assessment' programme would comprehensively define the qualities required of a person suitable to occupy a role (ISO, 2017, p. 4). The would-be occupier should be thoroughly assessed to ensure that they fit the role. Also, the type of organisational measures used in assessing one role to another may differ depending on the role function. Despite this, it should be established in the organisational procedure that any individual given a role should have the right attitude and

competence that matches the given responsibilities. Through these steps, the clear meaning of work will be established and individuals who have the appropriate skills can be targeted. It will also enable managers to organise and manage employees' workload. In effect, the psychosocial hazards will be prevented from becoming psychosocial risks through KM themes that advocate for clarity of roles and responsibilities which helps in workload distribution and appropriate assignment of personnel with the right skills to execute the job. Once again, this explains the similarity in KM and PRM in managing psychosocial factors in the work environment.

7.3.3 Recruiting and training employees for organisational learning

Despite the complex phases of training pertaining to its types, methods and initiators, the organisation can be adjudged to have performed quite well in this regard. There is an obvious recognition of the types of training suitable for various individuals/groups within the organisation. It is evident that top management understands the need to train its people on ways to improve on their core skills, therefore improving expertise across the organisation. It is also important to note that management equally realises the role of employee attitudes, behaviours and dispositions in the ability of its workers to meet set objectives. The preference for hands-on demonstrations and observations in the factories is particularly laudable since most of the activities by employees in this part of the organisation involves the operation of heavy machines.

One aspect of training which the organisation needs to address is the decision of individuals to embark on self-development training programmes, and the reimbursement of the cost of such programmes to the recipient of such trainings. Since the policies of the organisation can only fund training programmes up to a specified budgeted amount in a financial year, it is recommended that employees should be given more flexibility to go on developmental programmes that will enhance their performance, while such monies expended on training programmes should be refunded by the

organisation over a specified period. To avoid discrimination towards qualifications obtained through self-sponsored study, the organisation could draw a list of approved or accepted qualification for specialised roles. However, the non-approval of training programmes due to financially-related reasons should not be the case.

Although it is quite understandable that resource availability is always limited, what should be determined is how the company prioritises its training programmes. Consequently, it could be a positive approach for the organisation to prioritise the training of its employees based on various measures such as, how strategic their role is in terms of income generation, degree of exposure to risk factors, position occupied, and other factors. Even more importantly, training is a way through which employees are empowered and it is only when acquired that people are able to share knowledge (Yahya and Goh, 2002). Furthermore, as already established in Chapter 4, the knowledge transfer process brings about improved skills, competency and performance to an organisation (Karami et al., 2015; Zaki & Soliman, 2017).

Also, the organisation's leadership must constantly assess its recruitment policy (Liebowitz & Megbolugbe, 2003), a process which Manjula et al., (2016) claim is necessary for the evaluation of worker's knowledge, skills and abilities to improve the quality of working life, and to ensure individuals who are offered employment meet the demands of the job. The requirement of such roles should be stated in the job description document which should also be subjected to periodic review. This is required because of the continuous changes in the work environment (Debowski, 2006; Jasphara, 2011).

Furthermore, new recruits should be evaluated to determine the variances, if any, in their expectation prior to being employed in comparison to actual experience on the job. This process will give the organisation a better perspective about their employees at the early stage of recruitment. This approach will facilitate an opportunity for the organisation to detect

individuals who may not be at the same wavelength with the organisation's ambitions. This presents an opportunity for providing quicker prevention/intervention programmes including training. It is recommended that alongside the probationary period in place to monitor and assess new recruits, or people moved to new roles, the learning and development department should also continually assess the suitability of the employee within the first few months after the probationary period.

More importantly, this research advocates for capability development of workers through increased social interaction. Research evidences have shown that people are willing to share knowledge because of the pleasurable feeling they experience because of helping others (Lin, 2007; Witherspoon et al., 2013). It is recommended that the organisation should consider the "feel good" factor in providing or setting up capacity enhancing programmes for its employees. Creating an enabling environment which accommodates unrestricted interaction among workers should result into having a happier workforce and willingness to help others (Lindner & Wald, 2011) and promote well-being (Jain et al., 2017), hence, improvement in competency levels of individuals due to knowledge sharing (Hau et al., 2013; Malhotra, 2005).

Though admittedly, people have preferred mode of learning, this thesis is of the view that the onus lies on the organisation to provide a variety of approaches to learning. Arguing in favour of the organisation in question, there is already a lot going on in terms of formal and informal training initiatives. The next phase of capacity development should however focus on evaluating individuals specifically to find the capacity building technique that best suits them (Cress & Kimmerle, 2008). Although this may be an expensive initiative, the benefit will outweigh the cost if properly implemented.

Finally, there should be training programmes that focus on both physical risk and psychological and social risks that employees' might be exposed to. The obvious reason for the focus on physical risk in the

organisation is because of the nature of business (manufacturing) which the organisation is engaged in. Even though the organisation lays emphasis on the provision of health and safety in the operation of its plants or the avoidance of accidents in its factories (Occupational Health and Safety Management manual – Policy 5), the dangers posed by psychological risks need to be addressed within its Occupational Health and Safety (OHS) policy if the organisation is looking towards robust performance from its employees (Hohnen et al., 2014; Jain et. al., 2014; Jespersen et al., 2016; Leka & Jain, 2014).

With 7 out of the 10 PWE dimensions referring to 'appropriate support', 'good practice guidance', 'social support', 'support to meet objectives', and 'supportive practices' (Leka et al. 2017), the role of training and other knowledge sharing platforms cannot be discountenanced. The use of training as a learning tool in work organisation and management which includes managing psychosocial factors emphasises the contributions of training in promoting organisational learning which helps in the avoidance of mistakes which could include people's exposure to psychosocial hazards.

7.3.4 Person qualification in coaching and mentoring

Coaching and mentoring as affiliates to training should be championed by experts (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Kulkarni, 2006; Shrafat, 2018). The leaders of this scheme should be people who have been trained to understand the required style of leadership that the organisation demands. The implication of this recommendation is that, individual qualities, rather than official roles could be considered as the basis for choosing coaches and mentors. People could be assigned to coaches/mentors based on aspects of their career they wish to develop. It is advised that the organisation should be in control of this process by having a more structured approach that helps employees locate coaches/mentors who will best suit their needs. This should not be left

entirely for individual employees to determine despite the contrary proposition of Conley and Zheng (2009) (see Chapter 4).

Undoubtedly, Coaching and mentoring is a viable way to improve communication among employees (Goh, 2002; ISO, 2017). Through coaching and mentoring, the organisation can address workers issues more directly. Again, using this approach gives individuals an opportunity not only to address issues which may arise directly from an employee's role, but equally from problems relating to the alignment of the employee's personal behaviour to organisational culture. By encouraging coaching and mentoring as mandatory activities, the organisation is further cementing its values which emphasises a specific set of expectations from its employees as the bedrock on which the attainment of organisational objectives is built (Robinson et al., 2004).

Therefore, this initiative can facilitate interpersonal relationships at work which reduces the occurrence of social or physical isolation, interpersonal conflicts and violence which has the potential to cause harm (BSI, 2011; ILO, 2016). Psychosocial risks like high anxiety, emotional exhaustion and job tension can be prevented through coaching and mentoring which provides a support channel for people through relationships with other individuals who can help in resolving work-related problems. According to Leka and Jain (2010), these forms of relationships has very positive effects on employees' well-being and performance

7.3.5 Communication systems

To ensure cooperation among people and accessibility of information, the organisation should not solely depend on communication tools which have facilitated better engagement among workers, but in addition, it has to harmonise these tools to fit into its work design and its value proposition as an organisation that understands the need for free flow of information, relationship building and trust among its workers (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Andreeva & Sergeeva, 2016).

Trust plays a crucial part in the success of the work design in any organisation (Singh, 2008). Its presence is vital in the use of technological systems which serve as storage for information and serves as a mode through which communication and instructions are carried out, as it enables employees to rely on these systems for information when executing their job (Argote et. al. 2000; Boumarafi & Jabnoun, 2008; Mills & Smith, 2011). Similarly, human interaction enabled by a physical environment which have been set up in a manner that encourages easier face-to-face interaction among employees have been found to improve employee engagement (Claxton et al., 2014). Hence, the organisation's open-office policy which fosters improved communication and team cohesion is a welcomed development.

Since the use of technology as a channel for communication is inevitable in the modern organisation (Conley & Zheng, 2009; ISO, 2017, pg. 7 & 10), it can also be two-edged. A company must find ways to avoid the 'noise' interference that communication tools may cause and the lack of relationship building that technology could bring between employees resulting from lack of social or physical interaction. Technology could equally encourage people to interact by providing multiple sources of interactions. A culture of social interaction should also be pursued by the organisation in order not to miss out on the role of social networking as an enabler of employee collaboration and willingness to share knowledge (Sharawy et al., 2013; Hau et al., 2013). One way out of this conundrum will be to give managers the responsibility to identify and mentor employees who have the qualities to become leaders, and who can foster the ideal relationship between people in the work place or better still incorporate values which encourages physical and social interactions into the culture of the organisation.

From a health and safety perspective, while the organisation's main focus seem to be on the adoption of communication platforms to help reduce physical injuries in the workplace, its recognition of possible factors

relating to equality, discrimination avoidance, merit, job security, fair remuneration, freedom of association, amongst other factors, should be backed up with clear initiatives to ensure that preventive practices are put in place. The coverage of these factors by KM and PRM (ISO, 2017, p. 5 & 9; Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017; Tummala & Schoenherr, 2011) in Chapter 5, provides a justification for building an all-inclusive OHS certified workplace. Although the presence of these factors implies that the organisation is trying to ensure the psychosocial well-being of employees, yet, there is a need for a comprehensive policy document that addresses all issues related to occupational health and safety or specifically psychosocial risk management. Effective communication is a vital tool in work organisation and management in the modern organisation (EU-OSHA, 2007; ILO, 2016; Kompier, 2006; Leka et al., 2017).

7.3.6 Balance between employee empowerment, degree of control and the use of reward

The organisation must have clear-cut policies which differentiates between the provision of policies regarding the minimum standard expected from its employees, as indicated in its policies (see Chapter 6), and actual people empowerment policies. Rather than referring to management's expectations from employees as empowerment, the organisation should understand that attributes like self-efficacy, which have been identified as a contributor to self-believe in employees (Xanthopoulou et al., 2007) should be the focus of policies that address the empowerment of workers. Furthermore, Joshi and Sodhi (2011) and Wong (2005) referred to effective empowerment in terms of the capability of a leader to express behaviours which encourages the active participation of others within the organisation in the decision-making process.

According to the managers interviewed, the extent of control an individual has over their own workload or work pace would determine the belief they have in their capabilities to produce a certain measure of performance within the organisation. From this claim, one may deduce that

individuals who have control over their work are better able to plan and organise their task in a way that best suites them in accomplishing set objectives within the parameters of the organisation's policy. It will be appropriate to imply that individuals who do not control over work volume will have problems regarding work management or other hazards associated to high workload and work pace as identified by Leka, Jain and Lerouge, (2017). Bearing this in mind, the organisation should consistently evaluate its work design to ensure that it gives employees a leeway in terms of control over work load and pace.

Apart from an individual's control over work, it should be noted that other considerations of empowerment can be measured through the time allocated to tasks (Anggia, 2013; Du Plessis, 2007; Holsapple & Joshi, 2001). Two factors that may influence this are the ready accessibility of factors required for work planning, and the predictability of work. These factors would suggest that empowered individuals have easier access to tools to execute their job because they have lesser or no form of approval needed to get the support required to do their job. However, this may not be the case in terms of work predictability. These set of managers tend to have dynamic responsibilities depending on the circumstances of the organisation within a period. This high unpredictability of work could cause the existence of psychosocial hazards relating to work schedule (Benach et al., 2013). The opposite is usually the case with individuals with lower authority or decision-making capability.

The benefits of employees' having work control to facilitate planning and organising work is unarguable. Although this research recommends reasonable control over own workload, it also recognises that personalised work approach might not align with organisational design which has been created in a way to encourage inter-dependency between work processes (Becerra-Fernandez & Sabherwal, 2014). Therefore, the organisation should work on the modalities for improving its work system which allow individual work approach to fit into its work design. Flexibility to work

planning and organising is strongly advocated to encourage the creative and innovative skill of workers.

As earlier recommended, to guarantee sustainable performance, the organisation need to provide a platform where people can express their skills and potentials. This must be done within the parameters of the organisation's regulations, which could be restrictive in itself. However, one way to achieve this, is the full integration of every one of its employees into its objectives (Choy et al., 2005; Mueller, 2015; Schaufeli & Salanova, 2010). Building a culture where individuals see themselves not just as employees, but as part of the success story of the company and as part of the team that will move the organisation into the next phase. This is an approach which could retain the interest of workers' willingness to maximise their engagement for the long term (Claxton et al. 2014).

Discussions in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4 of this thesis have ascertained that empowerment is usually synonymous with position occupied in an organisation. Since, every employee is not guaranteed promotion, the organisation should use various forms of rewards to incentivise and motivate people to perform. Although, it has adopted a reward system that is both financial (Hau et al., 2013; Patil & Kant, 2012) and non-financial (Zaki & Soliman, 2017), the organisation needs to identify and align its reward system to factors that motivate different categories of individuals to perform. For instance, research shows that the reward preferences of employees could yet be based on their role or position within the organisation (Karami et al., 2015).

In spite of arguments that some activities like training and development, annual leave, allowances, appointments and promotional vacancies as stated by Senior & Junior staff handbooks should be the obligation of the organisation to its employees (ISO, 2017, p. 10; Jones, 2009), rather than a mode of reward, other schools of thought would contend that some of these activities are privileges which an organisation may or may not make available to its employees. However, bearing in mind

that the lack of these opportunities could lead to increased turnover of skilled and competent workers, the organisation must identify the range of reward schemes that would attract and retain the interest of its workforce to perform at the required level.

Lastly, this study advocates for increased level of trust, competency and relationship building among workers as this encourages managers to willingly delegate authority to subordinates. From experience, the more the line-manager is able to trust the employee to make good decisions, the more likely the manager will delegate more authority (Graham et al., 2015; Petrakis & Kostis, 2015). At the onset, such delegations might be subject to close supervision, but this slowly eases as the person to whom the authority is given proves their capability to handle it. Whatever the case may be, it is quite important that all employees' have the belief that their contributions are taken on board as part of the decision making considerations by top management. This promotes an atmosphere of togetherness which is essential to employee performance. To avoid the unpleasant experience of stress, anxiety, exhaustion and low self-belief (ILO, 2016) among other psychosocial risks, the organisation must take on some of the recommendations that will truly empower its employees.

These recommendations further concretises the way KM can promote PRM through its potential to manage psychosocial factors in the work environment.

7.4 Implications to research

There is an urgent need for researchers to discard the pejorative approach to management systems in Africa and rather focus on treating every case on its merit. It is obvious that the cross-cultural management style in most African countries may not be entirely receptive of imported western-styled management systems. Consequently, there must be strong consideration of values and relationships (context dependence) that drive

African management systems before applying western-focused management practices in this region.

Furthermore, researchers must be able to untangle the web of cultures which can be results of colonisation, regional influences or communal values. Understanding this will go a long way to ensure that researchers fully understand the peculiar nature of management in Africa before any attempt to proffer viable solutions.

Therefore, prior to the blanket application of KM or PRM initiatives in Nigeria, it is important to first evaluate the common factors within a set framework and the management culture of an organisation. Taking this approach will help researchers with providing a tailored approach to issues in the workplace. Doing so will encourage the buy-in of stakeholders who can easily relate to the idea because it aligns with their core values and belief.

7.5 Limitations of study and future research considerations.

In spite of the detailed and informative outcomes of KM in promoting people and organisational performance, the lack of a comprehensive KM framework due to its diverse typologies and combination of elements to suit the purposes and intensions of respective KM authors makes its analysis difficult and too expansive to work on. Regarding complementarity between KM themes and the psychosocial factors in Study 2, the scope and generic nuance of some psychosocial factors like “appropriate support to meet objectives” tend to encapsulate all the themes identified within KM frameworks. It would be more appropriate to have more concise descriptions of such factors to determine which KM theme they particularly fit into.

In spite of the KM themes identified in Study 1 and the obvious complementarity in KM and PWE themes in study 2 (Chapter 5), the aim of knowledge management and those of psychosocial risk management have

to be reconciled as two concepts that can work in tandem to achieve similar objectives in terms of improved organisational performance. Although this thesis has been able to explore the congeniality between these concepts, stakeholders need to determine the best approach to adopt towards integrating KM and PRM to promote employee and organisational performance. It would be beneficial to compare the findings and recommendations of this research with the research outcome of other organisations who have deployed both the KM and PRM concepts fully. This will further establish the divergence or overlap in the challenges being faced by those organisations, compared to the one in this case-study.

Also, it remains to be determined if the findings in Study 3 (Chapter 6) is industry, or region specific. To investigate these scenarios, future case-study research endeavours could compare findings from organisations representing different industries and/or regions. On one hand, organisations operating within the same industry and/or region could also be investigated to determine commonalities in issues encountered and their approach to resolution. On the other hand, comparisons could be made between organisations from various parts of the world to identify the issues and solutions that may be country/region specific, against those problems and solutions that are generally encountered and resolved in similar ways by organisations (International best practices). Making these investigations will shed more light on the peculiarities of the psychosocial factors that various organisations are exposed to depending on based on business type and location. This could encourage the formulation of customised Knowledge Risk Management (KRM) or holistic KRM in promoting people and organisational performance, depending on research findings.

From a methodological standpoint, despite the strong arguments in favour of a qualitative approach (Chapter 3), finding a balance between a constructivist ontological position (Hay, 2002) and a subjective epistemology outlook (Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008) is a tediuos task which probably leaves room for greater margins of error based on influences from

authors own belief, opinion, experience and/or bias. The continuous debate centred on the 'superiority' of quantitative methodologies (Benton & Craib, 2001) over purely qualitative ones is still a divisive issue within academia. Again, this could be a condition for pre-existing bias of the findings of a qualitative-based study, depending on the preference or background of the person reading the document.

7.6 Conclusion and way forward

This thesis has made deductions regarding the objectives of a business as one which intends to build a culture with a unique set of values while also focusing on people-related issues (AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Hameed et al., 2016; Chuang, 2004). Irrespective of how thorough a recruitment process might be, organisations understand that there is a need to give employees the support they may require to improve performance (Al Saifi et al., 2016; Freyens & Martin, 2007; Hao et. al., 2015; ISO, 2017; Jones, 2009; Zaki & Soliman, 2017). It is however clear that ultimately, the measurement of good or bad performance is tied to people performance and the ability of the organisation to achieve its objectives. To achieve the level of performance expected from people, an organisation must put certain measures in place. These themes that were found through the analysis of KM have been identified as equally important in managing psychosocial risks in organisations. Some insights are discussed in the next few paragraphs.

Leadership's responsibility to clarify the contributions and role of employees in setting organisational goals (Joshi & Sodhi, 2011) are a source of empowerment and control for people. Therefore an organisation must take a more precise approach in promoting employee engagement and well-being at all levels to correct any differing views regarding employees' input in setting organisational objectives. Top management should be willing to share and be more transparent about the goal making decision process (Elsawah, 2015; Singh, 2008) to give its employees an

opportunity to better understand the factors that are considered and how final outcomes are achieved.

To empower and allow control, managers' leadership styles and the degree of trust reposed in people through delegation will help facilitate employee empowerment. However, this approach will only be effective where the culture of the organisation permits or supports the delegation of authority and increased freedom in decision making without reproach to the delegator. For employees to be truly empowered, the leadership team will have to unequivocally include this in the company policy (ISO, 2017). As earlier established, empowering the employee should also be done cautiously to safeguard the organisation's objectives which should be at the forefront of the workers' agenda. Apart from the individual targets, the feeling of increased work control and decision latitude are essential in the prevention of psychosocial hazards which leads to devastating psychosocial risks if unchecked (ILO, 2016; Leka, Jain & Lerouge, 2017).

Also, the entrenchment of specific rules focusing on good performance and avoidance of risk is important. Although it is impossible to meet individual preferences on work-related factors, it is important that provisions are made for some form of flexibility in work design. In essence, organisations must be aware that a one-fit-all approach should not be the solution in all cases. Obviously, evaluating the risk which may arise from a job, assessing the vulnerability of the employee to work-related hazards and setting up training programmes which provides an avenue for workers to gain required knowledge and understanding (Al Saifi et al. 2016; Majeed, 2009; Freyens & Martin, 2007) should be key considerations.

To obtain knowledge, collaborations among people can be facilitated through training and other initiatives by managers or appointed individuals who are knowledgeable about particular aspects of work. The learning process including learning on managing risks can fostered through network of peers, communities of practice and harmonising tacit knowledge or social support in the work environment (Alavi, et. al., 2005). Employees' own

initiative, drive and development can be harnessed by organisations by creating a work environment that creates an opportunity for members to express and share their innate strength and knowledge. Moreover, leadership is expected to be good models who should demonstrate the efficacies of teamwork based on trust (ISO, 2017). It is suggested that 'personal' leadership capabilities should be encouraged in all individuals through the way work is organised and managed. This will give individuals the opportunity to work more effectively within the parameters of an adaptable work system. This emphasises the existence of good workplace climate, work retaining employee interest and other psychosocial factors with the PWE (Leka et al. 2017).

As mentioned earlier, training and the role of technology as conduits through which knowledge travels, which is usually knowledge in people's heads being transferred into knowledge systems and made available to recipients have led to knowledge dissemination (ISO, 2017). These interactions are found to be facilitated by the leadership of the organisation who ensures that the culture of the organisation encourages trust and willingness to share knowledge through social networks and user-friendly systems. The function of top management in motivating and rewarding employees for effective knowledge sharing and knowledge use should not be under-emphasised either. Ultimately, an organisation needs to carefully choose its resources, both human and technology, to ensure that they are the right fit for the attainment of its objectives. Once again, PRM identifies the importance of building social relationships and having appropriate work systems in averting work-related risks (ILO, 2016). This further makes the argument in favour of a KRM more tenable.

Communication is a vital too to organisations if used effectively. Effective communication should be orchestrated by leadership (Alipour et al. 2011; Kumar et al., 2013) to improve or avoid the confusion that could emanate from the diverse interpretation of policies and practices by people. Communication, whether socially or technologically driven (Davis et al.,

1989; Kowitlawakul et al., 2015) should be adopted in a way that makes it easier for people to understand their responsibilities. This is particularly important due to the increase in the use of technology as a focal means of communicating, hence, the possibility of 'noisy' interferences. In addition, managers should have continuous engagement with subordinates to ensure that expectations are well understood. In the same instance, management should make sure that organisational procedures and policies are not contradictory and are presented in a manner that does not give room for multiple interpretations. Communication influences workforce and the modern workplace associated with significant changes that have caused emergence of new risks (EU-OSHA, 2014; ILO, 2016). This makes communication an important psychosocial factor in organisational culture and function dimension (Leka et al, 2017) and the PRM framework (Leka & Cox, 2008)

The well-being of employees should not be dependent on devotion or loyalty to work or an organisation. Rather, employees' well-being and performance and indeed organisational health should be based on the provision of processes that will sustain risk prevention. Expectedly, the organisation would get maximum output from its workers through this initiative as the exposure to possible workplace hazard is minimised or eliminated. Without compromise, the role of top management in the smooth running of all work processes and particularly in championing the adoption and compliance of a KRM initiative should be a priority. There must be an intentional drive by the organisation to empower and support every employee in achieving this important target (Akkermans & van Helden, 2002; AlShamsi & Ajal, 2018; Joshi & Sodhi, 2011; Wong, 2005).

In summary, work organisation and psychosocial factors have been the focus of research developments in recent years, including well-being at work (Jain, Dediu, Zwetsloot & Leka, 2017). Risk management guidelines addresses risk as a dynamic process that has the potential to "alleviate negative outcomes and promote positive ones" (Leka, 2016, p. 91). Leka,

Jain & Lerouge (2017) advocates integrated approach which gives attention to both positive and negative aspects of work and well-being. Setting up work systems and environment in a way that motivates people to do good increases positive behaviours (Grant, 2007) because employees influence their environment as much as working conditions do (Parker & Ohly, 2008). The realisation that KM can be effective in managing risk (Alhawari et al., 2012) has been boosted by the similarities in their drivers. Accordingly, this thesis has been able to investigate and justify the need for inclusion of KM in risk management, or more specifically in promoting PRM.

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Appendix 1

Interview Questions

Aim of interview questions: To determine the extent to which the generation and transfer of knowledge in organisations can improve how work is organised and managed.

1. What are the key goals and objectives of the organisation?
    - What are the processes followed to achieve them?
    - What is the role of employees within these processes?
2. How does the organisation determine the qualities/competencies required from employees for specific roles?
    - In what ways does the organisation help its employees attain the required knowledge?
3. How do employees know what is expected of them on the job?
    - Why has the organisation adopted this approach of communicating its expectations to employees?
4. How does the organisation ensure that employees develop their proficiency on the job?
    - How are training and development needs determined?
5. After communicating work responsibilities, how does the employee know if they are going about their duties the right way?
    - Why is this important?
6. To ensure employees are working in line with organisational objectives, how do they get the support required?
    - How would you describe the relationship between employees in carrying out tasks?
    - How would you describe the kind of support received by employees from senior colleagues towards the execution of their duties?
7. How would you generally describe your employees' ability to work well with one another?
    - Why is this important?

- What are the reasons for these outcomes?

8. In cases where there are differences of opinion in solving a problem, how does your organisation manage these situations when they occur?
    - How do the people involved arrive at a resolution?
    - Why is this approach used?
9. After the completion of a set task, how do employees know the details of their next role or responsibility?
    - Why are these details important for the completion of their task?
    - Why is this process used?
10. How do employees know how well they have performed on their duties?
    - How is the assessment carried out?
    - How do employees get feedback?
    - How does employee feedback impact on their role within the organisation?
11. To what extent are managers and employees involved in decision-making within the organisation?
    - What criteria/processes are used to determine, who should be involved in decision making?
    - How frequently does this process occur? How would employees that fall short of these criteria be managed?
12. How does your organisation facilitate effective communication and transfer of information required by employees'?
    - Why has it been set up this way?
    - Can employees easily seek the information that they require?
13. How does the organisation determine if the knowledge possessed by employees and managers, helps the organisation in meeting its objectives?
    - Why is this important?

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PARTICIPANT CONSENT

Division of Psychiatry & Applied Psychology
School of Medicine, Faculty of Medicine & Health Sciences

Project Title: Determining the extent to which the generation and transfer of knowledge can improve how work is organised and managed in an organisation

Researcher: Tolulope Gregory Fadipe e-mail: msxtf@nottingham.ac.uk

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Ethics Reference Number: … *[218]*

- Have you read and understood the Participant Information? **YES**/NO
- I agree to take part in an interview that will be audio-recorded **YES**/NO
- Do you know how to contact the researcher if you have questions about this study? **YES**/NO
- Do you understand that you are free to withdraw at any point during the interview without giving a reason? **YES**/NO
- Do you understand that once you have been interviewed it may not be technically possible to withdraw your data unless requested on the day of the interview? **YES**/NO
- Do you give permission for your data from this study to be shared with other researchers in the future provided that your anonymity is protected? **YES**/NO
- Do you understand that non-identifiable data from this study might be used in academic research reports or publications? **YES**/NO

Signature of the Participant  Date: 7/07/2017

Name (in block capitals) **CHIOMA AKINMADE**

This consent form will be given to the interviewer for safe storage. Your answers will not be identifiable.



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Investigators: Tolulope Fadipe and Professor Stavroula Leka

Title of study: The relationship between the generation and transfer of knowledge in organisations and the organisation of work

Duration of study: Until July 2018

Ethics reference number: 218

Tuesday 28th March 2017

A favourable opinion is given to the above named study on the understanding that the applicants conduct their research as described in the above numbered application, and adhere to all conditions under which the ethical approval has been granted and use only materials and documentation that have been approved. If any amendments to the study are required, an amendment should be submitted to the committee for approval.

David Daley (Professor)

Co-Chair of DPAP Ethics Subcommittee

Amanda Griffiths (Professor)

Appendix 2

List of KM frameworks reviewed

1	Shongwe (2015)
2	Heisig (2009)
3	Hedlund & Nonaka (1994)
4	Karami et al. (2015)
5	Von Krogh & Nonaka (2001)
6	Skandia
7	Demerest (1997)
8	Staunton (1989)
9	OECD (1996)
10	Akhavan and Pezeshkan (2014)
11	King & Zeithaml (2003)
12	Choi et al (2008)
13	Gallagher & Hazlett (2000)
14	Handzic (2007)
15	Kulkarni (2006)
16	Moffett (2002)
17	O'Brien (2013)
18	Lai and Chu (2000)
19	Liebowitz & Megbolugbe (2003)
20	Lin (2007)
21	Lindner and Wald (2011)
22	Burlton (2001)
23	Nissen et al (2000_
24	Stankosky (2001f)
25	Eisner, 2000
26	Stankosky, (2001a)
27	Wieneke and Price, 2003
28	Wieneke and Price, (2003)
29	Zaki and Soliman (2017)
30	Del-Rey-Chamorro
31	et al (2003)
32	Konda (2008)
33	Hsiangchu &
34	Lin (2013)
35	Tsai-Hsin, (2000)
36	Parikh, (2001)
37	Bouthillier & Shearer (2002
38	Alryalat et al., (2008)
39	Sharawy and Abdelghaffar (2017)
40	Lytras & Pouloudi, (2003)
41	Sivan, (2000)
42	Holsapple & Joshi (2000)
43	Von Krogh, 2002
44	Anggia (2013)
45	Ndlela and du Toit (2001)
46	Gold et al., (2001)

47	Kulkarni et al., (2006)
48	Herder et al., (2003)
49	Alavi & Leidner (2001)
50	Alavi & Leidner (2001)
51	Gore & Gore, (1999)
52	Hsieh and Chen (2003)
53	Goh (2002)
54	Armistead, (1999)
55	Huang & Lai (2012)
56	O'Dell, (1999)
57	Baladi, (1999)
58	Wigg, (1997b)
59	Zack, (1999a)
60	Jones (2009)
61	Buniyamin, (2004) Knowledge Lifecycle
62	Keane, (2002a)
63	Jang, (2002)
64	Chuang (2004)
65	Kim, (2003)
66	Holsapple & Singh, (2001)
67	Kim and Hancer (2010)
68	Vail III, (1999b)
69	Eppler, 2001
70	Buniyamin, (2004) Knowledge management framework
71	Buniyamin, (2004) Process Knowledge Acquisition Framework (PKAF) for manufacturing enterprises
72	Konda (2008) Enterprise Knowledge Domain Model EKDM
73	Konda (2008) Integrated Knowledge Management Framework (IKMF)
74	Konda (2008) Knowledge Management process model
75	Konda (2008) Knowledge enablement model
76	Konda (2008) KM Process Model
77	Steenkamp and Konda, (2003) Knowledge Utilization Life Cycle
78	Steenkamp and Konda, (2003) KM System Architecture
79	Burtonshaw-Gunn, (2006)
80	Shrafat (2018) KM model
81	Conley and Zheng (2009)
82	Goh, (2002)
83	Beeby and Booth, 2000
84	Yahya and Goh (2002)
85	Alavi, et al. (2005)
86	Holmqvist, 2003
87	Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) SECI process
88	Nonaka et al. (2000)
89	Gray and Densten (2005)
90	Liebowitz and Megbolugbe (2003)
91	Kumar, (2011)
92	Nonaka and Takeuchi, (1995) SECI Knowledge creation model
93	Szulanski, (2000)
94	Contandriopoulos et al. (2010)
95	AlShamsi and Ajal (2018)
96	Meese and Mcmahon, (2012)

97	Schaucer et al. (2015)
98	Graham, (2003)
99	Handzic (2010)
100	Ipe, (2003)
101	Chalmeta & Grangel, (2008)
102	Rubenstein-Montano et al. (2001a)
103	Amine and Ahmed-Nacer, (2011)
104	Gold & Malhotra (2001)
105	Witherspoon et al. (2013)
106	Samikar and Deokar, (2010)
107	Wang and Noe (2010)
108	Fugate et al.'s (2009)
109	International Organisation for Standardisation (2017)