Structure or Process?
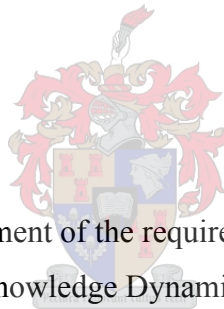
Facilitative Leadership in the context of Knowledge Work – A Practitioners Perspective

by

Rochelle Rabie

Thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Philosophy (Decision-Making, Knowledge Dynamics and Values) at the University of Stellenbosch

Supervisor: Mr. C.H. Maasdorp

March 2013

DECLARATION

By submitting this thesis/dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Date: March 2013

SUMMARY

The thesis examines the notion of facilitative leadership from the perspective of different views of organizational knowledge. Facilitative leadership is a leadership style that is often referred to in the context of knowledge work by practitioners and increasingly appears in organization and management literature. Despite the regularity with which the notion of facilitative leadership is invoked, there has been a lack of critical scrutiny. It is not clear from the current literature what facilitative leadership is supposed to do and how it is supposed to accomplish it. The thesis addresses this lack of reflection by focusing on the object of facilitation in the view of practitioners. This is done by reviewing the literature on leadership in general and facilitative leadership in particular. It is argued that the interest in facilitation is linked to the changing nature of work that requires the enabling of knowledge dynamics in organizations. It is posited that the way in which organizational knowledge is understood will influence what is seen as the object of facilitation. The pluralist epistemology that underpins the mainstream knowledge management literature is reviewed and particular attention is paid to the difference between a view of knowledge as possession and as practice. It is expected that different views of organizational knowledge will not only inform different knowledge management strategies, but also different forms of facilitative leadership. This insight is then tested, by interviewing practitioners that subscribe to a facilitative leadership style. This enquiry comes in the form of a two-phased interview: the first phase involving a set of structured questions aimed at determining the knowledge view held and the second phase consisting of a range of open-ended questions intended to reveal the understanding of facilitation. After the initial hypothesis is tweaked in light of empirical findings, a conclusion is made that practitioners are more nuanced in their understanding of knowledge than the literature gives them credit for. Although empirical results confirm a relationship between knowledge views held and the understanding of facilitative leadership, this link is not as strong as was initially expected. This may is explained by the fact that, in the coalface, most practitioners cannot actually afford to be rigorous and meticulous about exactly how they define organisational knowledge. Also, practitioners all face certain unique constraints and contextual issues which influence their ability and freedom to subscribe to a certain view of knowledge management and facilitation.

OPSOMMING

Hierdie tesis ondersoek fasiliterende leierskap vanuit twee perspektiewe op organisatoriese kennis. Fasiliterende leierskap is 'n leierskapstyl wat dikwels vanuit 'n kennis-konteks na verwys word en die term verskyn toenemend in organisatoriese- en bestuursliteratuur. Ten spyte van die feit dat die term gebruik word, is daar 'n gebrek aan kritiese ondersoek na die aard van fasiliterende leierskap. In bestuursliteratuur word die presiese rol van fasiliterende leierskap, asook hoe hierdie rol vervul moet word, nie duidelik uiteengesit nie. Die tesis spreek hierdie gebrek aan deur die fokus van fasilitering, vanuit die praktisynsoogpunt, te bekyk. Dit word gedoen deur leierskapsliteratuur te hersien en spesifiek te kyk na wat bedoel word met fasiliterende leierskap en die konnotasies daarvan. Daar word geargumenteer dat die toenemende belangstelling in fasilitering gekoppel is aan die veranderde aard van werk in die kennis-era. Hierdie verandering het tot gevolg dat organisaies nou die bevordering van kennis-dinamika as prioriteit ag. Die tesis argumenteer dat die fokus van fasilitering bepaal word deur die manier waarop organisatoriese kennis gekonsepsualiseer word. Daar word ondersoek ingestel na die pluralistiese epistemologie, wat grootendeels onderliggend is aan meeste kennisbestuursliteratuur, met 'n spesifieke fokus op die verskil tussen kennis as 'n besitting en kennis as 'n praktyk. Die hipotese is dat verskillende sienings van organisatoriese kennis nie net verskillende kennisbestuurstrategieë tot gevolg sal hê nie, maar ook verskillende vorme van fasiliterende leierskap. Hierdie insig word dan getoets deur onderhoude te voer met praktisyne wat hulself beskryf as fasiliterende leiers. Die ondersoek bestaan uit 'n twee-fase onderhoud: die eerste fase behels 'n stel gestruktureerde vrae wat daarop gemik is om die kennis-siening te bepaal en die tweede fase bestaan uit 'n stel oop vrae wat probeer om die begrip van fasilitering te ontbloot. Nadat die aanvanklike hipotese hersien is in die lig van empiriese bevindinge, word die gevolgtrekking gemaak dat praktisyne meer genuanseerd is in hul begrip van kennis as wat die literatuur voorstel. Hoewel die empiriese resultate bevestig dat daar 'n verhouding is tussen die siening van kennis en die manier waarop fasiliterende leierskap verstaan word, is hierdie verhouding nie so sterk soos wat aanvanklik verwag is nie. Dit kan verklaar word deur te verwys na die feit dat, in realiteit, meeste praktisyne nie kan bekostig om streng en nougeset te wees oor die wyse waarop hul organisatoriese kennis definieer nie. Daar word ten slotte aangevoer dat alle praktisyne unieke beperkinge en omstandighede het wat hul vermoë en vryheid om 'n bepaalde siening in te neem beïnvloed.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF GRAPHS

1. INTRODUCTION

"Knowledge work" and "knowledge-intensive firms" are terms that have become increasingly common in the management literature. The interest in knowledge workers is rooted in the claim that knowledge, "contained" within these individuals, is the source of value for organisations today and provide firms with competitive advantage. For this reason, the focus in management efforts is on managing knowledge workers in such a way that maximum value is gleaned from knowledge resources. This is what Peter Drucker (1999) has referred to as the most significant contemporary management challenge – boosting the productivity of knowledge workers.

Knowledge workers differ from the preceding worker class, industrial workers, in various ways. Knowledge workers are said to be more creative, professional, hold a more specialised skill set and have the capacity to apply their knowledge in unique ways (Drucker, 1994). Most importantly, however, is the manner in which this new class of workers is perceived by organisations and its implications for management models and styles. Unlike the Taylorist view of employees, workers are not simply seen as cogs in a machine which are easy to control and replace. Knowledge workers are considered to be in possession of the primary means of production for organisations, that is knowledge. Because workers are classified as highly valuable and practically irreplaceable, they are also treated differently than industrial workers by management. Managements' priority is maintaining their expert workforce and they do this by putting various positive incentives in place. These include increased worker autonomy, higher levels of participation and inclusiveness in management of the organisation, favourable social and physical working environments and competitive remuneration packages (Newell, Robertson, Scarborough & Swan: 2009).

Changes in the nature of work can therefore be said to have fundamentally reshaped the assumptions and rules we have traditionally held relating to management of organisations and workers. In fact, the move towards the so-called knowledge era has also resulted in a shift in focus from management to leadership. Generally, the literature on knowledge work and knowledge-intensive firms more often emphasise the role of leadership than it does management (Newell *et al.,* 2009). This can be ascribed to the manner in which the primary challenges and competitive requirements of organisations have changed. The focus is not so much on managerial efforts aimed at efficiently managing tangible assets anymore. Rather, it is on the utilisation of employees, their skills, experiences and ideas and in this regard leadership, not management, is seen as the primary instrument (Dess & Picken, 2000: 18). Consequently, a shift can be seen from management, administration and logistics, which are associated with routine and predictable type challenges, to "softer" elements such as leadership, vision and culture, which fit a business context characterised by uncertainty and unpredictability (Grint, 2005).

Previous management models and their underlying assumptions were built around the proposition that physical capital is the primary production factor. These models are no longer appropriate in the knowledge work context, where social and intellectual capital are considered to be the most important production inputs. The usability and appropriateness of leadership models have thus been influenced by the changing nature of work and the global workforce. From a leadership perspective, the new knowledge intensive work context requires new and amended forms of leading (Newell *et al.*, 2009). Many authors have pointed to the important role leadership can play in effectively managing knowledge work (Bennis, 2000; Dess & Picken, 2000; Srivastava, Bartol & Locke, 2006). However, if leadership is to play a conductive role in the context of knowledge management, the basic assumptions underlying traditional leadership models and strategies have to change in order to fit the knowledge work context. In other words, the changed role that knowledge has started to play in organisations is connected to a transformation in what is seen as appropriate styles of leadership.

This has been reflected in the way dominant leadership theories have systematically changed over the last decades. The ideas behind leadership theories have fundamentally changed, with theories initially being trait- and situation based, later moving to philosophies that were more participative and transformational in nature. Thinking about leadership in the knowledge work context is no longer dominated by top-down, bureaucratic paradigms. Rather, the focus has shifted to ideas such as organic and team-based structures, shared and self-leadership, participative processes and people-centred approaches. These new leadership trends signify a move towards a more facilitative style of leadership. Leadership is nowadays perceived as a subtle, enabling art, requiring managers to facilitate, not control knowledge work and processes (Schwartz, 1996).

Although facilitative approaches have come to be seen by many as the new leadership success recipe and many firms are jumping on the facilitative bandwagon, there is a lack of reflection regarding what facilitation is aimed at. The concept of facilitative leadership as we find it in the literature is vague and often elusive. This relates to the fact that the question about *what* exactly managers aim to be facilitating is rarely addressed. This leads to the research question at hand: What do manager's consider to be facilitative leadership in the context of knowledge work? The focus is on identifying the object of facilitation and the implication thereof for how facilitative leadership is perceived. The aim of this research is therefore to clarify the concept of facilitative leadership in the context of knowledge work. The thesis can broadly be separated into two parts. Part 1 concerns the development of a theoretical foundation whilst part 2 will develop and present a framework for the empirical enquiry aspect of the research, representing and discussing practical findings and comparing these to the theoretical claims.

Part 1 of the thesis, comprising chapters two to four, involves a review of the literature important for the function of this research. The first segment will focus on reviewing the current state of the theory with regards to knowledge management and leadership. The intention of this segment, which will cover the second and third chapters, is to present a broad stroke synopsis of the issues and state of affairs of the fields of knowledge management and leadership (with special reference to facilitative leadership), as we come across it in the

literature. The second segment, comprising chapter four, will explore the connection between facilitative leadership and knowledge management, based on the theory discussed in the preceding chapters. These two sections therefore provide the theoretical backdrop against which research into the topic of facilitative leadership in the context of knowledge work can be undertaken.

Firstly, knowledge management themes will be discussed, with reference to the important and changing role knowledge has come to play in modern organisations. Some of the topics related to this theme will include knowledge work and workers, knowledge-intensive organisations and the practice of knowledge management itself. This section will therefore bring together core issues in the field of knowledge management, illustrating how these are important for the purpose of this research. The general purpose of this part of the chapter is to illustrate how the role of knowledge in organisations have changed from industrial to modern times and how this has fundamentally changed the nature of work, leading to the management of knowledge workers and the resources they hold to become a top priority for most organisations.

The second part of the chapter will provide an in-depth investigation of the topic of leadership, with reference to the different ways in which the source and nature of leadership have been understood by different groups of people. The section will include a discussion of various leadership ontologies, theories, challenges and the emergence of the idea of facilitative leadership. This part of the chapter is thus aimed at providing an all-encompassing look at the different sources of knowledge that have been identified, and more importantly, how the dominant ideas regarding leadership have changed over the years. This discussion will illustrate how the active, influential and formal role of leadership has moderated, leading to the identification and discussion of a new, facilitative style of leadership.

In the third chapter, the nature of organisational knowledge is considered more closely. The chapter attempts to address questions regarding the source, nature and scope of knowledge, by means of an investigation of different theories and models found in the literature. The

chapter reviews the fuzzy nature of organisational knowledge, with its vast selection of understandings and definitions. The core of this section is the presentation of the main theoretical framework: Cook and Brown's distinction between the epistemology of possession and the epistemology of practice. This model provides a broad framework through which different knowledge conceptualisations can be classified into two groups. The chapter explores these two categories in detail, surveying the defining characteristics and categorising different theorists and definitions according to this classification. All understandings or descriptions of knowledge is therefore placed in one of two classes: a category which labels knowledge as mostly objective and contained within the human mind, or a category branding knowledge as a social, context-dependant phenomenon which resides in organisational practices. The implications of this theoretical framework for facilitative leadership are explored in more detail in chapters four and six.

Chapter four involves forming an argument about the relationship between the knowledge views discussed in chapter three and the way in which facilitative leadership is understood and practiced. In this chapter, a closer look is taken at the link between organisational knowledge and facilitative leadership. An investigation is done into the type of leadership focused on enabling knowledge work and its link to different understandings of organisational knowledge. This investigation is carried out based on the knowledge classifications presented by both Cook and Brown (1999) and Nonaka (1994), which is touched upon in chapter three. This examination leads to the forming of a hypothesis that the understanding of knowledge is expected to be related to the knowledge management strategy of an organisation. It is contended that Cook and Brown's two epistemologies inform two broad strategies for knowledge management, and eventually facilitation (which is focused on getting the most out of knowledge resources), in organisations.

The distinction made is between a codification, or technology-focused, strategy and a personalisation, or people-focused strategy. Accordingly, an argument is formed that individuals who focus on knowledge as tacit and objective will tend towards a codification-based knowledge management strategy and, similarly, individuals who believe knowledge to be an entity possessed in the human mind will expectedly be more focused on technology as

key vehicle in their knowledge management endeavours. On the other side of the spectrum, actors who focus more on the tacit component of knowledge, mostly because they believe it to be more valuable, will expectedly base their knowledge management strategy on the principle of personalisation and likewise, individuals who conceive knowledge to be embedded in practice will be inclined to go for people-focused knowledge management initiatives. The chapter also explores the manner in which organisations may also draw on both epistemologies, the result being a mix of technology-based tools and human-focused initiatives.

On the basis of the "knowledge view and consequent knowledge management strategy" argument described above, it is also speculated that the type of individuals who label themselves as facilitative leaders will be the ones who tend towards a personalisation knowledge management strategy and, per implication, subscribe to an epistemology of practice. The hypothesis is therefore made that individuals who promote the idea of facilitative leadership as one reads about it in the literature, will most likely also belong to the group who prefer human-centred knowledge management styles to approaches which are technology-centred. It is reasoned that the essence of this correlation resides in the fact that knowledge management is believed to be more about discovering and utilising that which is embedded and bound up in social relations and practice than it is about merely capturing and codifying information. A range of commonalities between facilitative leadership as we come across it in the literature and people-focused knowledge management is discussed.

Part two of the thesis, represented by chapter five, concerns the description of the empirical portion of the research and the evaluation thereof against the backdrop of the arguments made in chapter four. Firstly, the approach to the empirical research is clarified, stipulating the rules and procedures with which the investigation was conducted. After the methodology is discussed, the findings of the empirical component of the research are presented, both in written and visual style. The structure of the enquiry is described as involving two phases: firstly, a set of structured questions aimed at determining which epistemology of knowledge the given respondent falls under and secondly, a collection of open-ended questions intended to expose exactly what it is the respondent means with facilitation. An approach is therefore

taken where the initial part of the interview is based on a regulated set of questions and possible responses, which are focused on revealing which knowledge management tools respondents consider most important in comparison to others, and the latter part is focused on getting respondents to freely share as much of their experiences and opinions regarding leadership, and particularly facilitative leadership, as possible. After the goals of this approach are discussed, each of the five respondents is introduced and some background information on every individual is provided. After a rundown of the research conditions and participants are given, the chapter goes on to consider the findings of the two-staged interview.

Firstly, with regards to the structured part of the interview, respondents' scores assigned to different initiatives, tools and techniques are listed, compared and discussed in order to illustrate the preference of respondents toward either a technology or human-focused style of knowledge management. Later in the chapter, the second, semi-structured part of the interview is discussed. Firstly, a continuum of knowledge management strategies is presented, with strategies which are strictly focused on technology on the one extreme and approaches which are all about people on the other. In the light of the results of the latter part of the interview and based on the respondents' views on facilitative leadership, each respondent is given a spot on the continuum. After these points are graphically illustrated, the chapter goes on to discuss the reasons for the allocated positions on the continuum. A section is dedicated to each respondent, in which their responses to queries are given and discussed in the light of theory about facilitative leadership and their unique contextual circumstances. Together with presenting the reactions of practitioners, it is thus shown how the particular context shapes the abstract or general connection between knowledge and leadership.

The chapter concludes with a discussion of the overall findings of this component of the research. A comparative synopsis of the respondents' feedback, according to the knowledge view held, indications of a technology-oriented knowledge management strategy and indications of a human-oriented knowledge management strategy, is presented. Together with this, a comparison of the preferred knowledge management initiatives is presented,

highlighting certain trends which are to be discussed in the context of the hypotheses made in chapter four.

Finally, in the conclusion and final chapter of the thesis, the argument made regarding the relationship between knowledge views and the understanding of facilitative leadership, is tweaked in light of the findings presented in the second part of the thesis. A general hypothesis is formed that people may be much more nuanced in their view of organisational knowledge than the literature gives them credit for and although peoples' understanding of organisational knowledge *does* shape their view of facilitative leadership, unique contextual circumstances limit the extent to which this is the case.

2. ORGANISATIONAL KNOWLEDGE AND LEADERSHIP

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the topics of knowledge management and leadership as it is discussed in the literature. The goal of reviewing this literature is outlining the existing theories and models, thereby establishing a theoretical framework for this study. The first part of the chapter will explore topics related to leadership: the ontology's, theories and challenges we find in the literature, including the concept of facilitative leadership. The second part of the chapter will look at the management of knowledge, including knowledge work and knowledge-intensive firms.

2.1 Leadership & Facilitative Leadership

2.1.1 Defining Leadership

People have been studying leadership since the earliest of times. Although the topic has been on the research agenda for hundreds of years, many scholars are of the opinion that the need for good leadership has never been as urgent as it is today (Bennis, 2000; Callanan, 2004; Pearce & Manz, 2005). The complex and turbulent business environment of today yields a significant role for modern business leaders. Leaders face a diverse and complicated set of business and people-related challenges. Today's leaders have much more intricate challenges to deal with than the leaders of fifty years ago. In spite of this, there appears to be a major imbalance between the demand for and the supply of effective leadership (Pearce & manz, 2005). For this reason, it seems that the study of leadership is more important today than it has ever been and companies are increasingly devoting resources to leadership development programs, training and research.

Even though leadership is often perceived to be an integral part of solving modern day business challenges, it remains a slippery subject and finding a common, agreed-upon definition of leadership is almost impossible. An enormous amount of studies relating to leadership have been conducted and almost every study describes or understands leadership in a different way. Bolden gives two reasons for leadership's diverse set of definitions. Firstly, there is an inescapable subjectivity which always accompanies the comprehension of the term. Every individual trying to understand and define the notion of leadership possesses their own unique set of preconceived ideas and experiences, which will significantly affect their perception of the phenomenon. Secondly, every individual's theoretical stance will influence how they understand leadership. Some people may view leadership as the result of certain qualities being owned by an individual, whilst other may perceive leadership as a social process which comes about as a result of group dynamics (Bolden, 2004).

There have been many attempts at unifying the diverse collection of leadership definitions, mostly with no success. In 1989, Yukl wrote that the plentiful understandings of leadership in the literature had almost nothing in common, except for the fact that most of them involve an influence process. However, some scholars have pointed to the fact that merely describing and recognising leadership as an influence process is not very useful in delimiting the phenomenon, which makes it quite hard to study (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003:962). More recently Northouse (2004) drew attention to four joint trends in the understanding of leadership. These include leadership being perceived as a process, entailing an influence process, occurring in a group situation and concerning goal accomplishment. The emphasis is therefore on an individual influencing a group of actors in an attempt to accomplish shared objectives.

The most traditional understanding of leadership implied in most leadership literature, including the definition above, can be described as the tripod ontology (Winston & Patterson, 2006). Here leadership is seen to consist out of three essential elements, namely leaders, followers and shared goals. Even though the subject of leadership is vast and diversified, most definitions or understandings can be categorized under this tripod ontology, where the main focus is on the individual exercising the leadership, the individuals being led and the

objectives which tie them to working together (Drath, McCauley, Palus, Van Velsor, O'Connor, McGuire, 2008:636). Winston and Patterson's (2006) integrative definition also falls under this category. In their description they refer to leadership as an occasion where an agent, known as a leader, influences a group of people, known as followers, causing these individuals to work towards attaining collective organizational objectives.

Although there exists almost as many definitions of leadership as there does studies, most scholars tend to agree that leadership is a real occurrence and something which we can study and attempt to improve (Bass, 1999; Bennis, 2000; Grint, 2005). However, there is also a group of academics who question the authenticity of the phenomenon and draw attention to complications surrounding the linking of leadership with business performance (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003). These scholars question the manner in which leadership has been romanticized and how ambiguous occurrences are accredited to leadership. For instance, a positive organizational outcome is automatically ascribed to efficient leadership, in spite of the fact that the event may be highly complex and mutually dependent on other aspects. In this context leadership is employed as an interpretive instrument causing individuals to uncritically assume causality (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003:972).

An author who has played a particularly important part in advancing this argument and taking it to the extreme is Gabriele Lakomski. Lakomski perceives leadership as an emergent self-organising property of complex systems, serving as a label we place on events and activities we really cannot understand. According to the author, time spent on studying leadership is wasted, since we will never be able to truly understand the complexity on which we put the label "leadership" and by referring to certain processes or circumstances as "leadership" we are simply attempting to reduce complexity to a number of simple conceptual processes (Lakomski, 2004). Lakomski emphasizes the fact that any efforts of accrediting business results or outcomes to leadership is essentially invalid, since people are not able to distinguish between their implicit view of leadership and what they see in a particular situation. What we may view as empirical evidence of leadership is therefore spoilt with biases and post-event rationalizations and consequently cannot serve as proof for the existence of leadership (Lakosmki, 2004).

To conclude, even though leadership has come to be seen as an increasingly important and urgent subject in modern organisations, it seems to be quite problematic to delineate and many authors have suggested a wide range of definitions. This may relate to the fact that the term is very abstract and can be used in a variety of different ways. Views of leadership most often differ in their understandings of the source of leadership as well as the dynamics and principles of leadership. The next two sections will clarify this issue by looking at how leadership is seen to spring from different sources and how it is theorised about in different ways.

2.1.2 Management vs. Leadership

Many authors studying leadership have pointed to the importance of distinguishing between leadership and management (Zaleznik, 1999). However, leadership and management are often described as two sides of the same coin, inextricably linked and very difficult to separate or draw a precise distinction. This section will attempt to firstly clarify these two terms independently, after which the differences will be illustrated.

Definitions of leadership often place the act of working with people at the centre of the description. In fact, leadership has been labelled by some as that part of management which is concerned with people (Ribiere & Sitar, 2003:42). Leadership said to consist out of four parts: staffing, leadership style, motivation and communication (Ribiere & Sitar, 2003:40). All four parts clearly involve people. Most often the leadership endeavour is aimed at getting individuals to work collectively towards a set of common goals that form part of a wider cause or organisation. Ribiere and Sitar describe leadership as the principal way in which to convince and motivate employees to do what top management has in mind for them (2003:43). The terms "motivating", "inspiring" and "committing" people also regularly come up in leadership definitions. Affecting the feelings, attitudes and actions of others is therefore an integral part of leadership (Smirich & Morgan, 1982). Leadership is also more commonly

12

associated with vision and strategy and ways in which to realise these, mostly through mobilising employees.

The role of a manager, on the other hand, is generally to ensure that the organisation as a whole is run in a smooth and efficient manner. The manager's role is thus more on a macro scale (Zaleznik, 1999). More specifically, management is referred to as an endeavour concerned with regularly assessing a situation, making sure it is still in line with a set of pre-determined goals or standards, and adjusting the initial plan or the measures taken when the situation requires it (Ukko, Tenhunen & Rantanen, 2007:41). Management is thus more often associated with the act of planning, directing or controlling. These can be aimed at a range of organisational resources, people simply being one. The primary role of managers is generally perceived as that of administrators who plan and organise things so that the common vision and standards of the organisation are met (Maccoby, 2000:57).

Leadership has also been described as the management of meaning (Smirich & Morgan, 1982:257). According to these authors, leadership means enacting a certain form of social reality. The individuals labelled as leaders are those who are successful in framing and defining the reality of those around them. This is most often the case in natural settings where a leader is not simply appointed through external actors, but rather part of the original group, which has, through shared interactions and experiences developed a common framework consisting of mutual understandings and shared ways of interpretation (Smirich & Morgan, 1982:285). Leadership is thus a socially constructed phenomenon and its dynamic is determined through the acts and constructs of the leader and the led. Managing meaning through leadership is also about formulating reality in a way that makes sense to those who are being led. This kind of leadership calls for the yielding of power and thus a dependency relationship. The power referred to here is the ability to independently interpret reality. To conclude, leadership conduct serves the purpose of shaping and framing situations in a manner which leads employees to a mutual understanding of reality. Leadership therefore that plays a fundamental role in creating, sustaining or changing meaning in organisational settings (Smirich & Morgan, 1982:262).

In general, one can thus argue that management is concerned with the technical aspects of the organisation – about structure, systems and processes. Leadership, on the other hand, is more

about the "softer", people-related, social elements of work, such as vision, culture, meaning and communication. The rest of this section will provide a more in-depth look at the differences between management and leadership.

Based on the differences highlighted in the definitions assigned to the two terms, one can expect that the main qualities that make for a good leader or efficient manager will naturally be different. Firstly, good leaders are usually perceived to be long-term, strategic thinkers because they are expected to solve complex, unpredictable issues. Managers, on the other hand, are more often required to think short to medium-term, since the emphasis is on organisation, delivery and getting the required results (Maccoby, 2000:58). Good leaders should be very people-oriented, with good communication skills. Alternatively, managers need to be task and rule oriented with a keen focus on prioritising and planning, in order to get the intended results within the framework set out by the organisational goals and mission. Good leaders work according to the needs of their teams and fellow-employees, whilst good managers are expected to work primarily according to systems, processes and procedures (Maccoby, 2000:58). It must be noted, however, that these qualities are not mutually exclusive and although the two roles have their own distinctive features, they often coincide. The extent to which they overlap will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

As was mentioned earlier, managers are chiefly viewed as administrators, the main goal of this administration being to effectively and efficiently employ organisational resources, thereby attaining pre-determined goals. His might include tasks such as setting up budgets, producing business plans and assessing progress (Maccoby, 2000:58). In contrast, the leader's primary tasks are not related to administration, but rather to innovation (Bennis, 1989). This means that the type of organisational issues and challenges that leaders and managers are expected to take on differ fundamentally. The traditional type of management issues includes the delivery of organisational targets, continuous improvement with regards to organisational performance and crisis response (Barkema, Baum & Mannix, 2002). Leadership issues are generally more specific, such as ethics, diversity and the unconstructive attitudes of employees (Drath, 2001).

Bennis (1989) also believes that the leader differs from the manager in the sense that he/she develops capacity, whilst the manager usually merely maintains it. This argument can also be understood by reference to the fact that management is viewed more as an operational

14

function, whilst leadership is considered a strategic endeavour. Leadership tasks are usually perceived to be more complex in nature, requiring more time and financial resources, but also delivering increased value addition. Leadership has increasingly come to be seen as a tool which invigorates and energises an organisation, supporting superior performance (Maccoby, 2000:58). Management, on the other hand, is more often seen as a sustaining function of the organisation. This may be related to the fact that mangers have been described as having more of a passive, impersonal attitude towards goal attainment whilst leaders tend to think more pro-actively and ambitiously (Zaleznik, 1992:127). Managers thus do what is needed and required in accordance with the goals and standards of the organisation, whereas leaders adopt a more personal attitude, formulating ideas and theories instead of just responding to them (Zaleznik, 1992:129).

Bennis (1989) also points out that, when it comes to employees, managers usually rely on direction or control whilst leaders aim to inspire trust and build relationships. This relates to the fact that management is often seen as a function of the organisation, whilst leadership is viewed as a relationship (one which requires careful cultivation and maintenance (Maccoby, 2000:59). Leaders have been said to be more intuitive and empathetic when it comes to working with people. Managers often struggle with taking in emotional subtleties and signals since their primary goal is to get people to do what is required of them by the organisation and in the process try to minimise the level of emotional involvement (Zaleznik, 1992:130). Some of the ways in which leaders promote trust between them and their teams include increased levels of transparency and high levels of communication and participation. In contrast, management has traditionally been viewed as more of a bureaucratic function, with top-down control and supervision systems in place (Maccoby, 2000:58)

Relating to the dissimilarities between management and leadership tasks, leadership can also be distinguished from management in the sense that it is perceived as the tool with which organisations handle that which is unpredictable and complex. Alternatively, management is seen as an instrument suitable for dealing with routine, everyday issues. Traditionally, a culture of management has emphasises control and rationality (Zaleznik, 1992:127). It is with this mindset that organisational problems are solved. However, most modern day organisational challenges are of a complex nature and cannot merely be solved by rationality and control. The discussion of the differences between management and leadership has illustrated how a leadership focus may be more suited in the modern, knowledge-centred

business environment most organisations find themselves in today. The way in which a general leadership focus would be more conducive to a knowledge work context is illustrated in Table 1 by connecting the various characteristics of leadership (in contrast to management) to the requirements organisations face as a result of knowledge-era challenges.

Management Characteristic	Leadership Characteristic	Knowledge-Era Requirement
A primary focus on systems, rules, processes and procedures	A primary focus on people	Because the ideas, expertise and experiences of people, more specifically knowledge workers, are the most significant resource for organisations, the primary focus should be on efforts aimed at keeping employees happy, productive, creative and committed.
A short to medium-term focus, with maintenance being the intended outcome	A long-term, strategic focus, with innovation being the intended outcome	The rise of the knowledge era is associated with complex organisational issues which require novel, creative ways of thinking and subsequent innovation.
Passive, impersonal view towards organisational goals	Active, personal attitude toward organisational goals	The knowledge era is connected to high levels of competition. To remain competitive, organisations need to anticipate changes, think critically and forwardly and act pro-actively.
When it comes to working with people, direction and control are the primary means. Personal relationships/emotional involvement are to be minimised.	When it comes to handling people, trust, empathy and intuition is of key importance. Relationships is the cornerstone of leadership.	Knowledge workers need to be led, not managed. These workers generally do not respond well to control. A subtler, more facilitative approach is required.

Table 1

The characteristics and requirements in Table 1 have illustrated how an overall emphasis on leadership might be better suited to the knowledge work context. In the literature we have also witnessed this shift in focus from management to leadership. Generally, the literature on knowledge work and knowledge-intensive firms more often emphasise the role of leadership than it does management. This can be ascribed to the manner in which the primary challenges and competitive requirements of organisations have changed. The focus is no longer so much on managerial efforts aimed at administering, planning and assessing performance. Rather, it is on the utilisation of employees, their skills, experiences and ideas and in this regard leadership, not management, is seen as the primary instrument (Dess & Picken, 2000: 18). Consequently, a shift can be seen from management, administration and logistics, which are associated with routine and predictable type challenges, to "softer" elements such as leadership, vision and culture, which fit a business context characterised by uncertainty and unpredictability (Grint, 2005).

However, this is not to say there is no longer a role for management in modern knowledge-intensive organisations. The role of the traditional manager has simply changed. Today, a good manager is more often perceived as one who can lead. More is thus expected of managers and the purely administrative and planning role will not suffice when dealing with knowledge workers, since the knowledge worker is not to be managed, but lead (Drucker, 1999). For this reason, leadership development has come to be viewed as increasingly important by most organisations, equipping managers with the leadership skills they need to get the best out of their teams.

2.1.3 The Different Sources of Leadership

One way in which different leadership views can be classified, is by looking at what is deemed to be the source of leadership. Traditionally, the source of leadership has been perceived as the individual leader and this is often still the case. However, as the global business landscape has changed, authors such as Drath (2001) have pointed to different,

possibly more useful, ways of viewing the leadership source in modern organisations. These include interpersonal influence, personal dominance, interpersonal influence and relational dialogue.

2.1.3.1 The Individual Leader as the Source of Leadership

More often than not, the trend has been leader-centred approaches, where the focus is on the individual leader, his characteristics and capabilities (Crevani, Lindgren & Packendorff, 2010:78). Leadership is seen to start with a leader and effective leadership is equated with good and effective leaders. The tripod ontology is usually also classified under this group, in the case where a certain leg of the tripod (the leader) is perceived as the focal point. Traditionally the focus in leadership literature has been on individual leadership traits and it was assumed that certain characteristics or traits were leader-like and when these qualities were identified in an individual, he or she needed to be assigned to a leadership position (Bolden, 2004). Within this individualistic view of leadership there exists a big debate on whether individuals are born with these leader-like qualities or whether they are developed. Leader-centred approaches basically portray leadership as the undertakings of formal leaders (Crevani *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, the nature of leadership is seen to be directly linked to the nature of the leader (Drath, 2001). For example, a strong and challenging leader would be associated with tough and harsh leadership.

When individual leaders are seen as being the source of leadership, it can also be classified as either ensuing by the means of personal dominance or interpersonal influence (Drath, 2001).

2.1.3.2 Leadership as Personal Dominance

Drath describes personal dominance as the most traditional way in which leadership has come to be understood. In the context of personal dominance, leadership is perceived as being a feature of an individual leader's self. The source of leadership is therefore seen to be inner qualities or attributes of the individual leader. In this view, leadership can be described as anything which someone classified as a leader does; leadership is thus something which is *supplied* by a leader. The leader supplies leadership by acting on others, simultaneously articulating these leader-like qualities. The acted-on individuals or followers *receive* leadership. Leadership actions may include various undertakings, including motivating, rewarding and punishing (Drath, 2001). With personal domination there exists a type of dependency on the followers' part, where they look towards the leader for inspiration, direction and shared meaning. Leadership is therefore perceived as something residing within an individual, something which is expressed through specific leader-like qualities and something which is legitimized by the fact that followers believe in the suitability and worthiness of their leaders being in that leadership position (Drath, 2001).

Although the idea of leadership through personal dominance has been widely accepted and incorporated into most work on leadership, there are a few limitations to this view. Firstly, this view is limited in that it suggests that followers are continually looking to leaders for providing leadership (since without them, there are none) and therefore dependent on them to achieve goals. This implies that a leader or dominant individual is to be present at all times, something which is practically impossible. If every time a leader is to step out for an engagement of some sort, leadership is to disappear and employees are not able to continue their jobs, businesses would not be able to function at all. Secondly, in the context of personal dominance, a leader is expected to possess complete knowledge of every leadership-related task. Because these tasks are becoming increasingly intricate and complex, this will prove an almost impossible undertaking. Finally, absolute continuity amongst followers is required for personal dominance to be effective. It is, however, likely that at some point in time some followers will lose confidence and compliance towards their leader.

2.1.3.3 Leadership as Interpersonal Influence

A more recent trend is to view leadership as interpersonal influence. According to Drath, the idea of leadership as interpersonal influence gains a lot of its strength and support in the way that it addresses some of the challenges faced by the notion of personal dominance. With interpersonal influence, leadership does no longer belong exclusively to the leaders. Instead, the leadership process is unlocked so that followers can also partake. Leadership is therefore not perceived as a linear process whereby a single chosen individual acts upon others on the basis of his or her own beliefs and values. As an alternative, leadership is the result of the negotiation and compromise of diverse sets of views and convictions through dialogue. The individual leader's perspective is not uncritically accepted and followed simply because that individual possesses certain characteristics that are leader-like. On the contrary, through dialogue, discourse, competition and negotiation, certain prominent individuals will surface and the actor with the most influence will be chosen as leader.

Perceiving leadership as personal dominance means a leadership position is seen as something to achieve, not merely a role bestowed onto an individual born with certain qualities. However, like personal domination, emphasis is still placed on the characteristics of the leader. The difference is that these attributes alone do not amount to leadership; instead they will determine the extent to which an individual will be able to exert influence. Leadership is therefore perceived as a position occupied by the most influential individual as well as a process through which followers also get involved and influence is negotiated. Individuals may possess certain qualities which help them attain influence and fill leadership positions (Drath, 2001).

Through the account of Drath's leadership as personal dominance and leadership as interpersonal influence it thus becomes clear that there has been a shift in thinking about leadership as simply the activities of formal leaders with the right qualities or leadership as emanating from an interactive process between the leader and the follower; the leader merely

being a member of the overall group who has proved him/herself to be the most influential. The fact that the field has seen a shift of focus to shared and distributed views on leadership in management literature serves as proof of this (Crevani *et al.*, 2010:80).

The distinction between so-called transactional and transformative leadership is a good illustration of the change in discourse. Transactional leadership, which is the more traditional perspective, concentrates on the basic human needs of the employee to have an occupation and earn a living. Employees and leaders have a contractual relationship: leaders simply expect employees to execute their tasks and stay committed to them and in return they receive a salary. Transformational leadership, in contrast, draws attention to the need of employees to feel a sense of fulfilment and meaning in their work. Leaders and followers share a social, not a transactional, relationship (Crevani *et al.*, 2010:81). The leader's vision is to transform followers to higher aspirations through empowerment, inspiration, motivation and the creation of meaning. There is thus more of an emphasis on the moral dimension of leadership (Bolden 2004).

Even though leadership as interpersonal influence is seen as an improvement on the notion of personal dominance and has been widely accepted and used, there are a few limitations to this newer source of leadership. Today's business environment, where the trade and industry occurs in a type of global village, with fewer boundaries and greater interdependencies between different countries and cultures, places new demands on leadership. Leadership will only be effective if it is able to deal with major differences in cultures, values and worldviews. Although leadership as interpersonal influence is more successful in assembling and compounding differing values and perspectives than personal domination, its ability to manage and deal with radically different cultures and worldviews is doubtful (Drath, 2001). Drawing together different perceptions and values is immensely difficult if there is no common, fundamental understandings about the nature of reality. In addition, although interpersonal influence has been commended for its ability to empower minority groups, there are some issues with this type of shared influence. Letting go of influence will most likely not come easy to the previously powerful factions, whilst marginalized groups may view mutual influence as yet another way in which the influential groups can control and

prevail (Drath, 2001). Consequently, opposition, distrust and frustration will prevent leadership from being negotiated or democratic.

2.1.3.4 Leadership as Relational Dialogue

Whether leadership is viewed as personal dominance or interpersonal influence, the fact remains that leadership is still being perceived as something which a leader does, and the point of focus remains this individual/s (Drath, 2001). With both of these perspectives, a leader is required to produce leadership. Drath points out that because the nature of business challenges today are so complex and intricate, characterized by constant and rapid change, interdependencies, networks and significant cultural diversity, these traditional types of perspectives are no longer adequate for explaining the source of leadership. Consequently, the search for a more practical source of leadership commenced.

In contrast to leader-centred approaches, some scholars argue that it is more useful to look at leadership in terms of processes, practices and interaction (Crevani *et al*., 2010). According to these scholars, leadership is located beyond the individual leader and a shift in focus needs to be made from what and how individual leaders think and act to how groups of people work together and interact.

Drath refers to this as relational dialogue: a type of discussion between the different members of a group, where each member is on equal standing, the conversation is open to and respects new or different opinions and is thus open to change. Unlike in the case of interpersonal influence, the dialogue is no longer used as an instrument to appoint a leader who will exert leadership; instead this process of dialogue is itself the source of leadership. Relational dialogue concerns individuals collectively making sense and meaning from their work (Drath, 2001). Creating meaning is an important part of the dialogue because it is only through the creation of this shared meaning that a context can be created in which joint goals and knowledge can be rationalized. For leadership to truly be effective it is essential for all

individuals to untie themselves from basis of their personal world views and commit to creating a common ground on which collaboration can take place (Drath, 2001).

Crevani *et al.* terms this idea "the practice perspective". The major difference between this perspective and leader-centred views are that leadership, and not the individual leader, is now the level of analysis. According to the authors individualistic perspective's major flaw is its tendency to reduce the abstract notion of leadership to the qualities and actions of individual leaders, leading to individualist, totalitarian and heroic leadership norms, which are now incorporated into the majority of leadership literature (Crevani *et al.*, 2010:81). Wood (2005) also discusses the misplaced concreteness dominant in leadership studies and states that up till now, scholars have been too concerned with definitions and haven't concentrated enough on the processual and practical nature of leadership.

Relational approaches are rooted in a constructionist perspective and oppose the culture and value-free manner in which individualistic leadership perspectives have depicted and approached leaders. Meaning is not something which can exist independently or objectively, it can only be created, maintained and negotiated through relationships (Wood, 2005: 1102). Even the expressions "leadership" and "leader" are created or shaped through social interaction. These social processes are dynamic; meaning is never permanent but open to constant reinterpretation. In one context a notion may be framed differently than in another and therefore construed in another way (Drath *et al.*, 2008:636). Meaning can thus be described to be positioned within the local, the cultural and the historical (Uhl-Bien, 2006). It is also through this interactive process between organizational members that social order is negotiated and leadership consequently arises. Drath (2001) notes that the negotiation of social order usually occurs in the background of some or other context-specific, emergent issue faced by the group. As circumstances within and outside the organization change, leadership will therefore also change to adapt to evolving challenges and purposes.

To summarize, Drath (2001) proposes three key ideas which make up the logic of relational dialogue. Firstly, relational processes are at the heart of the matter. Each person only becomes individually significant in their relations and interactions with other members of the

group. The label placed on an individual (for instance "leader") should rather be interpreted as a particular dynamic of relationships than a position held. Secondly, there is no objective, independent reality. Instead, every individual creates his/her own reality through social interaction with other individuals. A person's membership in any social group (work, church, family) therefore plays an integral part in what that person considers reality. Thirdly, because individuals construct their reality socially, no single truth or objective reality can exists. This suggests the need for creating organizational contexts where individuals come together to create their own reality so as to work collectively towards organizational objectives.

In spite of the relational approach's practical usability, this perspective has also been received with some opposition. Many writers have drawn attention to the fact that relational approaches suggest that all organizational members are on equal footing, having access to equal opportunities to determine the direction of the organization. Clearly this is problematic and power dynamics should not be underemphasized. Some critics are also wary of the fact that leadership is described as processes, practices and relationships, instead of activities or influence of leaders. The resulting challenge lies in the ability to tell leadership activities apart from all other organizational happenings (Crevani *et al.,* 2010:83). If we can't distinguish these activities, how do we study and improve them?

2.1.4 Leadership Theories

Leadership theories involve attempts at explaining how leadership is performed or operates. These theories have also been described as a collection of standards, characteristics and abilities describing the phenomenon of leadership (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano & Dennison, 2003). In addition to helping us understand how a phenomenon works, theories can also influence or even determine the way in which we see at the world, which is why we need to be cautious of making unreflective assumptions as a result of the theories we may hold. Because theories are aimed at gaining a better comprehension of our world, they change when times and contexts change. This also applies to leadership theories. Figure 1 demonstrates how dominant leadership theories have changed based on the work done by Johns and Moser (1989).

Leadership theories in early management literature were based on the leader-centred approach, focusing on what the prerequisites are for a good leader. A collection of different individualistic leadership theories were developed. The most traditional leadership philosophies were trait-based. Scholars attempted to identify a set of isolated qualities which could be used as prerequisite or check list when choosing an adequate leader (Bolden, 2004). Trait theories come from the so-called "Great Man" theory, which expresses how certain individuals, who are described as "born leaders", are capable of attaining and staying in positions of influence. These types of theories perceive leadership to be a measurable feature, composed of so-called "first-level traits", distributed between different individuals in various amounts. First-level traits include various social and personality characteristics (Jago, 1982). Some of these essential leadership traits that have been identified include responsibility, persistence, confidence, adaptability and decisiveness (Bolden *et al.*, 2003).
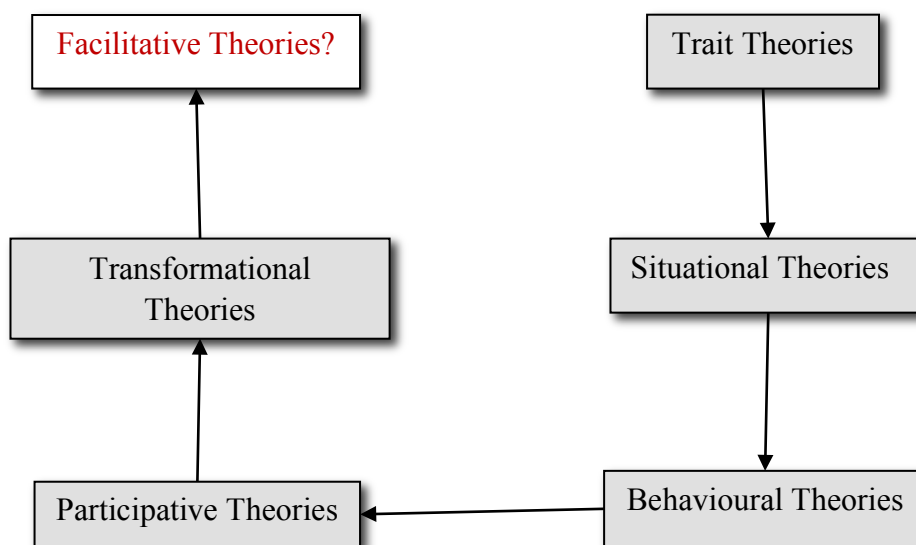
Figure 1

In addition to differentiating leaders from non-leaders by means of specific traits, a few other leader-centred theoretical approaches were developed. Critics of trait-based models claimed

that these theories did not always accurately describe empirical reality, dismissing the dynamic nature of leadership. Situational leadership theories are more concerned with the contextual element of leadership. This approach denies the existence of one single best way to lead and classifies leaders as effective if they can adapt their behaviour to the situation at hand (Bolden, 2004). Situational leadership theories therefore provide leadership recommendations which are contingent upon different situational variables, as opposed to universal prescriptions which characterized earlier leadership theories (Jago, 1982:315). Through leadership studies it has become clear that leadership is not a "one size fits all" application and that there is no universal best way of leading in all situations and contexts. Studies have shown that certain leadership traits may be more effective or useful in specific kinds of contexts than in other. The extent to which a certain trait is relatively more effective than another may rely, amongst others, on the organizational context, the nature of the organisational goals and the task characteristics (Jago, 1982:316). Situational approaches focus on observing leaders and followers in different situations in order to determine what style of leadership is effective in what environment. For instance, in some situations it may be more helpful for leaders to be task-oriented, whilst other scenarios might give reason for an interpersonal-relations orientation (Johns & Moser, 1989:117).

Behavioural approaches look at the actual actions of leaders and claim that leadership is not just about traits but about the relationships between leaders and followers (Bolden *et al.*, 2003). Behavioural approaches also mark the shift from thinking about leadership purely as the qualities residing inherently within an individual, to conceiving leadership as a process or activity (Jago, 1982:316). Behavioural leadership theory moves away from the Great Man Theory and claims that leaders are not necessarily born but that individuals can be developed and educated on how to be successful leaders, through teaching them effective leadership behaviour in different situations . Influential behavioural approaches include Douglas's Theory X and Theory Y managers and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid (Bolden, 2004).

As the focus in leadership thinking shifted from the idea of personal dominance to interpersonal influence, new leadership theories started to emerge which systematically moved away from individualistic approaches. In the 1960's and 1970's the spotlight fell on organizational humanism, with thinkers such as Elton Mayo and Mary Parker Follett making

important contributions to the field of leadership. As part of the humanist movement, it was proved that social conditions in the workplace are likely to have more of an impact on the motivation and performance of workers than financial incentives or physical working environments (Clegg, Courpasson & Phillips, 2006). These findings gave rise to more democratic leadership theories such as participative leadership.

Democratic leadership theories involve an increase in group participation. With the advent of these theories the focus moved away from autocratic leadership styles, characterized by centralized decision-making and power. In its place came a new emphasis on being people-oriented, decentralizing authority and making the decision-making process more transparent, communicative and open to input from all organizational levels (Sinha & Sinha, 1977). Making decisions in this manner is seen to yield positive results for the organization, such as higher productivity, lower costs, better quality and a boost in organizational morale. Although all group members are seen to be on equal standing, the group leader still has a significant role to play. It is the responsibility of this leader to draw together the members of the group, manage and organize the group, encourage cooperation and join and inspire them by reminding them of their collective goals (Sinha & Sinha, 1977). Participative decision-making is built on the assumption that the collective problem-solving ability of the group is usually superior to that of a single individual.

Transformational leadership is fundamentally about aligning the concerns and goals of the organization with that of its employees. This is done through appealing not to individuals' self interest, but to their need to be a part of something bigger; a higher cause which relates to individual self-actualisation. The emphasis is therefore not placed on what the organization can do for the workers, but what the workers can do for the organization (Bass, 1999:10). As previously discussed, transformational leadership stands in direct opposition to the previously dominant notion of transactional leadership. Nevertheless, leaders sometimes use elements of both these theories interchangeably. Transformational leadership may be participative, but it can also be instructional or autocratic, as well as a combination between participative and instructional (Bass, 1999:11). In their study of transformational leadership in schools, Leithwood and Poplin (1992) identified three major purposes in the practice of this

type of leadership. These include creating a collaborative culture, encouraging the development of individual group members (primarily through empowerment) and promoting the collective problem-solving capacity of the group.

2.1.5 Leadership Challenges

Scholars agree that today's leadership issues are all of complex nature, mostly due to elevated levels of environmental turbulence and a high degree of interdependence. What makes complex issues very tricky and challenging is the fact that, unlike technical problems, they cannot be solved using existing methods, assumptions and frameworks. This means that today's leadership challenges require managers and organizations to start thinking differently, since only new perspectives will deliver the answers to these new issues. However, the difficulty with complex problems is that, in addition to employing new methods and modes of thought, it is very difficult to predict how these tools and conceptual frameworks will need to change (Drath, 2001).

Drath (2001) identifies three main complex challenges faced by leaders today. According to the author, these issues can potentially hinder direction, alignment and commitment, which are the central elements of leadership.

The first issue is diversity. The new flatter, global business environment requires businesses to become more international in their reach, calling for a higher degree of collaboration across different business units, organizations, countries and cultures. This creates a special role for the leader as an intermediate agent, organizing and bringing together different agents with diverse sets of worldviews, values and interests and creating a context where individuals are drawn together to support a collective set of goals and commit to a common cause (Drath, 2001). However, this often proves a very difficult task for managers. Getting people to set their differences and competing agendas aside in order to collectively pursue organizational goals requires the kind of leadership skills which can build upon parallels and fuse

29

differences. Callanan (2004) notes that this diversity between and especially within corporations also have implications for control in the organization. With teams consisting out of individuals from different functional departments and areas of expertise and different perspectives, ways of working and communicating, the leader's ability to perform controls is likely to decrease.

The second issue Drath (2001) identifies is geographical dispersion. Globalisation has had the effect of making work virtual, with people working together even though they are countries, or even continents, apart from each other. The fact that individuals do not share working environments and work "side by side" poses a challenge for modern leaders. In spite of advanced information and communication technologies, geographic dispersion of employees may result in a lack of communication and trust between employees. Creating a shared vision across business units and cultures is already a substantial challenge for leaders. Doing this when organizational members are not properly communicating and committing to one another merely adds to the complexity of the leadership challenge (Drath, 2001).

Drath (2001) also identifies attitudes towards the traditional and newer notions of leadership as a complex challenge. Leadership has traditionally had a strong individualistic flavour to it, with connotations of autocracy, hierarchy and centralized decision-making. In spite of the fact that this conception has predominantly changed, with conceptions of effective leadership becoming much more interactive, participative and democratic, the older view of leadership may not be that easy to shake. Newer leadership theories emphasise the importance of participation. The inclination to hoard power and authority needs to be done away with. For leadership to be effective, a certain group of individuals, the former individual leaders, need to release and distribute power whilst another group, the formerly disenfranchised, needs to commit and take part in the leadership process. Various complications are likely to arise in shifting power dynamics. Letting go of power or sharing responsibility will not be easy for individuals who has become accustomed to steering the organization on their own. In addition, not all employees are interested in a higher degree of participation or responsibility. More importantly, even though everyone might want to have influence in shaping their working environment and determining how the organisation should function, not everyone

will know how to appropriately participate, or have respect for how the process is being carried out.

Callanan (2004) also notes some problems which might arise in such a context. The author points out that a full adoption of an empowerment philosophy, which is essential for collaborative, team-based leadership which characterizes most of today's business context, is a major challenge for contemporary leaders. Empowerment implies that employees are entitled to make organizational-related decisions themselves, instead of always looking to the formal leader for the go-ahead. Trust is an essential element of this kind of empowerment philosophy. If managers do not have complete confidence in the abilities and intentions of lower-level workers, an empowerment strategy is unsuccessful even before it starts. However, trusting completely often proves to be a very difficult task for managers who are used to coordinating and controlling from the top. If managers cannot let go of this mindset and grant employees the resources they need to function independently, empowerment will be superficial and limited in its contribution to effective leadership (Callanan, 2004:81).

Callanan (2004) also adds to Drath's concern regarding the attitude towards leadership by pointing to the effect of modern leadership trends on the manager's place and attitude in the organization. According to the author, new participative styles of leadership are likely to lead to managers becoming concerned about the importance of their role in the organization. The shift in power dynamics is likely to cause many managers to question the significance of their role, and overcoming this fear of irrelevance is a major leadership challenge (Callanan, 2004:79). If leaders aren't able to share their responsibility and power and embrace their new role of group facilitator and coordinator, leadership dynamics are likely to lead to organizational outcomes and performance which is not optimal.

The willingness to revise or get rid of organizational systems which are not positively aligned to collaborative leadership development is noted as another modern leadership challenge (Callanan, 2004:82). Internal organizational systems and culture have a significant effect on perceptions and ways of doing within the organizations and if these factors do not support the kind of participative, collaborative climate which effective leadership requires, the desired

organizational outcomes will not be accomplished. Research has identified a few internal areas where this kind of alignment is essential. These include training programs, conflict resolution methods, performance analysis methods and resource assignment strategies (Callanan, 2004). For this leadership challenge to be addressed managers need to always be critical of their internal systems and programs, the effect thereof on views, attitudes and ways of doing, and willing to alter these systems to fit the overall leadership strategy if need be.

Allen, Stelzner and Wielkiewicz (1998) have also identified a few significant leadership issues, which are of a more specific nature in the sense that they concern adaptive challenges. According to the authors these challenges relate to finding new ways of approaching and understanding complex problems in a world which has become increasingly dynamic and unpredictable. These challenges, which are also dynamic of nature, include the adoption of a global mindset, functioning within the limits set by environmental constraints, converting abundant sets of information into knowledge and wisdom, building the knowledge and moral frameworks to deal with new discoveries and developing the ability to react appropriately to the changes in our social ecology. These challenges require the broadening of responsibility, the development of individual capacity, a long-term perspective and accord with the boundaries set by nature (Allen *et al.*, 1998).

2.1.6 Facilitative Leadership: Clarifying the Concept through Connotations in the Literature

The section on leadership theories have demonstrated how the active, influential and formal role of leaders have gradually declined. In the place of control, supervision and individual power expansion, we have seen empowerment, unification and coordinating emerge as the essential leadership skills. This is not to say that the function of the leader is less significant, it simply means that leadership roles have become more subtle, with a new emphasis on the task of creating environments where all employees can participate, develop, learn and solve problems, thereby contributing to the overall success of the organization. According to Rough, "knowing how to facilitate is the core competency of leadership in the world to come" (1997: 6).

Many authors have attempted to investigate the new role of leadership in the context of knowledge work or knowledge-intensive organisations. This section will explore the different connotations picked up upon in the literature on knowledge-work leadership, referred to here as facilitative leadership.

Roger Schwartz is one of the authors best known for his work on facilitative leadership, a style of leadership which he sees most fitting for today's business environment, characterised by knowledge work. The author describes the fundamental role of a facilitative leader as having to assist the team as a whole in becoming more effective. The focus is, once again, not on the individual leader but on the entire organization. The manner in which the facilitative leader helps the organization become more efficient is through improved problem solving, which is accomplished through open, free and honest dialogue. Schwartz (1996) has identified three main guiding values essential for any facilitative leader. These are valid information, free and informed choice and internal commitment. The complete set of facts related to a given problem needs to provided to all organizational members involved in making a decision, these employees need to be granted the opportunity to act on this information in a liberated and uninfluenced manner and throughout this process, the focus needs to be on executing decisions through commitment and not coercion (Schwartz, 1996).

From Schwartz's description of facilitative leadership it also becomes clear that an integral part of facilitative strategies is participation or a context where leadership is shared. Once again, the leader's perspective does not necessarily weigh the heaviest. The collective knowledge of the group is usually more valuable than one single person's expertise and anyone who has knowledge, interest or a stake with relation to the issue should be given the opportunity to contribute. Reactions to challenges should be openly discussed and reflected upon. It is in this deliberating situation where the leader has an important facilitative role to play. Consensus, in this context, is not considered to be a scenario where everyone agrees on a solution or a way to achieve it, instead it refers to a situation where all members have been heard and every alternative is investigated (Hensey, 1999:44).

Pearce and Manz (2005) identify shared- and self leadership as the new "silver bullets of leadership". The authors claim that knowledge work demands informal leaders at every level of the organisation. The expertise of individuals as well as groups are essential in contributing to knowledge work and it is never, or rarely, the case that a single leader will have the required expertise to lead or oversee all the aspects of knowledge work. Knowledge workers therefore need to be liberated with the resources and power to lead and oversee their own operations. Shared leadership involves a step away from absolute dependence on a single, designated leader to a situation where influence is mutual, dynamic and achieved through open dialogue. Self-leadership entails a self-influence process which includes the assessment of existing goals and how to attain them (Pearce & Manz, 2005: 133). Empowerment is an important tool in attaining development of both of these types of leadership.

In addition to the Pearce and Manz, many other scholars have pointed to the importance of empowerment in a knowledge-work context (Srivastava, Bartol & Locke, 2006:1238). Employees can be empowered through access to information, tools, systems and services, which will allow them to perform their tasks in a more informed and effective way. Empowerment is said to increase intrinsic motivation in employees and may include efforts at informing, coaching and inclusive decision-making (Srivastava *et al.*, 2006:1240). Several studies have pointed to the important role empowering leadership can play in the sharing of knowledge, thereby increasing the productivity and performance of knowledge workers and knowledge-intensive firms.

Schwartz's discussion of facilitative leadership has a strong hint of servanthood to it. Facilitative leaders' primary incentive is not the expansion their power base but rather the desire to serve their organization. Hence, service is to replace power as central leadership theme. Servant leaders aspire to many attributes, including listening, awareness, empathy, stewardship and persuasion (Russel, College & Stone, 2002). Servant leadership is said to have a positive effect on organizational culture, the attitudes and work behaviours of employees and finally organizational performance (Russel *et al.*, 2002).

Fran Rees is another author well-known for her work on facilitative leadership. Rees (1998) states that facilitation comes from a leader's ability to combine vision, decisiveness, empathy and empowerment. Facilitation can be viewed as one type of approach to leadership. Other approaches include persuasion and collaboration. According to Reese and important principle in facilitative leadership concerns the fact that leaders empower, coordinate and work on creating conducive organizational environments, but they do not do for employees what they are able to do for themselves (Rees, 1998). Leaders who facilitate try to reduce the extent to which the group is dependent on them and their expertise and develop a sense of shared responsibility and accomplishment amongst group members (Bloom, 2004:23). Facilitative leaders therefore nudge employees in the right direction without telling them what to do; they lead without controlling.

The idea of facilitative leadership has become especially popular since the focus in management literature has shifted to so-called learning organizations. In the knowledge era superior organisational performance is primarily dependent on faster learning and leaders play an important promotional role in this regard. Whereas in the industrial era leaders were expected to lead for control and efficiency at all costs, today's knowledge era is required to lead for responsivity, adaptability and learning (Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey, 2007:300). Learning organisations are organic and highly flexible and adaptable; their competitive advantage being that they are able to exploit opportunities faster than other organisations (Van Den Eede, Kenis & Van De Walle, 2004:2). Although learning organisations are more often associated with adhocracy, where roles are highly specialised, informal and organisational form is matrix-like, many scholars have investigated the role of leaders in these organisations. Leadership in learning organisations is, once again, shared and should be present at all organisational levels. It is the responsibility of individuals or managers in more senior positions to enforce this proliferation of leadership. Other important leadership roles include facilitating learning by asking difficult questions, unlocking the potential of other members through support and encouragement and critical thinking, including self-evaluation (Rushmer, Kelly, Lough, Wilkinson & Davies, 2004:399).

Facilitative leadership in the context of knowledge work is also seen to have an important role to play in shaping a knowledge-supporting culture. Culture in the organisational context

encompasses the goals, strategic objectives, belief system, assumptions and taken for granted routines in the organisations (De Tienne, Dyer, Hoopes & Harris, 2004:29). According to Lee and Choi (2003) organisational culture is the number one enabler when it comes to the management of knowledge. Many scholars have pointed to the critical role leadership plays in the facilitation of knowledge management activities, with special reference to the importance of leadership in cultivating a culture conducive to the creation and sharing of knowledge. This type of culture has been described as trusting, learning and committing. Leading with confidence, persuasion and interactive dialogue are ways in which this cultural climate can be promoted (Ribiere & Sitar, 2003:39).

Through the discussion above it becomes clear that leadership in the context of knowledge work has come to be seen as a facilitative, enabling art. Although different authors have identified different elements of this new, facilitative style of leadership, all of the leadership efforts or activities mentioned boil down to attempts to facilitate knowledge processes in some way, whether it be knowledge creation, sharing, storing or usage. Even though it is never or seldom addressed explicitly, an understanding of knowledge is therefore at the centre of these leadership efforts. The way in which knowledge is conceptualised will expectedly determine what leaders feel they need to facilitate or enable. The next section will look at the implications of the conceptualisation of knowledge for how facilitative leadership is understood and employed.

2.2 Knowledge Management

2.2.1 Knowledge Work & Its context

Much of the literature on human resource management today is focused on so-called knowledge workers. The term "knowledge worker" was coined in 1959 by Peter Drucker in his book "Landmarks of Tomorrow". Drucker has played an important role in stressing the significance of a new class of workers and the effect this new dominant group would have on leadership and management styles. An increasing proportion of today's global workforce are being classified as knowledge workers and according to Drucker the largest working group will eventually fall under this category. As a result, boosting the productivity of knowledge

workers has become the number one priority for most organisations today (Drucker, 1994). Defining knowledge work has proved to be a complicated task. Knowledge work has been conceptualised in various different ways by different scholars.

Some writers have referred to knowledge work as specific occupations (Kelloway & Barling, 2000:6). These professions often fall under industries that are of a professional or high-tech nature, such as lawyers, surgeons or accountants. Some also distinguish knowledge workers by organisational level or their degree of education. For instance, Brinkley defines knowledge workers as those individuals who work in the top occupational groups, namely managers, professionals and associate professionals or those with a high-level skill set, as indicated by their qualification (2006: 16).

Knowledge work has also been defined in terms of an individual characteristic, instead of the characteristics of a particular occupation. Knowledge workers are not classified as individuals who hold certain positions in the organisation, but agents who create value for the organisation (Kelloway & Barling, 2000: 8). In identifying knowledge workers, personal attributes such as creativity and innovation have been highlighted. For instance, Drucker describes knowledge workers as individuals who have an attitude of continuous learning and applies this to their work (1994: 7).

Some writers have defined knowledge work as an individual activity. This classification focuses on the actual activities of knowledge workers. This approach focuses on behaviour in identifying knowledge work and activities which involve high levels of cognitive activity, such as idea generation and information processing, have been identified as indications of knowledge-related work (Kelloway & Barling, 2000:8). Once again Drucker can be employed as illustration, with his reference to knowledge workers as individuals who work more with their heads than with their hands (1994: 7).

Drucker draws a few important distinctions between Frederick Taylor's industrial worker and the knowledge worker. These dissimilarities help to clarify the issue of what constitutes the

knowledge work context. There are a few important differences regarding the requisite qualifications of an industrial worker and knowledge worker. Since Taylor believed in separating the "hands" from the "brain", industrial workers were simply expected to carry out precise, pre-given orders. However, in the case of knowledge work, employees require a new, extended set of skills; including formal education and the capacity to not only obtain theoretical and analytical knowledge but also to apply this knowledge in creative ways. The knowledge worker's approach to work also differs to that of the industrial worker in that they do not have a passive and submissive attitude but set about their work in a creative and learning-oriented manner. Because knowledge workers generally have enhanced qualifications and therefore a skill set which is higher in demand, they are likely to receive better financial compensation (Drucker, 1994). This also relates to the fact that because the knowledge-intensive firm's main asset and target of investment does not lie in machines or property, but in the knowledge possessed by knowledge workers, it can be said that the organisation needs its knowledge workers more than the workers need the organisation. Knowledge workers are to be conceived as an asset to the organisation, not as a cost. It is on this premise that organisations need to form a strategy for managing knowledge and knowledge workers.

Newell *et al.* (2009) emphasise the theoretical, analytical, social and creative nature of knowledge work. According to the authors knowledge workers include groups which have traditionally been seen as professional workers, such as accountants, lawyers and architects, as well as more modern occupations, such as financial advisors, IT specialists and labour consultants. The knowledge work category is distinct in that it necessitates knowledge as the key input, medium and output of work. Attention is drawn to the fact that these types of employees do not only require extensive sets of expertise and skills but also the ability to create new knowledge or apply existing knowledge in new, creative ways. The difference in how organisations perceive and consequently deal with employees is also an important distinction which can be made. In the Taylorist context, workers are simply perceived as cogs in a machine, easy to replace and therefore controllable. In contrast, knowledge workers are of much greater significance for organisations, since they own the organisation's primary key factors of production (Newell *et al.*, 2009). Consequently, knowledge workers are granted much more autonomy and discretion in how they perform their work.

Other distinctive knowledge work characteristics identified by Newell *et al.*(2009) include co-location and so-called 'gold collar workers'. Unlike industrial workers, knowledge workers are perceived as possessing a more mobile skill set and are often required to physically operate outside of their employing organisation. This implies an active role for management in facilitating communication and collaboration between organisational members who cannot take part in face-to-face interaction. Gold collar workers is a term used to refer to knowledge workers, referring to a new category of employees who possess specialised skill sets which allow them to solve complex and non-routine organisational issues in a creative and flexible manner. Because of their valuable qualifications and experiences, these individuals have more bargaining power, which implies increased employment standards. These include highly competitive remuneration packages as well as good physical, structural and cultural working conditions (Newell *et al.,* 2009: 35).

Kelloway and Barling (2000) argue that knowledge work shouldn't be viewed as a particular group of occupations, but rather as an element of work. Therefore, the emphasis should be on how knowledge is used when carrying out work. The authors describe knowledge work as "discretionary behaviour focused on the use of knowledge". Consequently knowledge work can take different forms, including innovation or new knowledge production, the utilisation of existing knowledge for solving modern problems, teaching or structuring knowledge and obtaining existing knowledge by means of learning or investigation. These forms of knowledge work are not restricted to higher level employees. On the contrary, all employees can perform some form of knowledge work (Kelloway & Barling, 2000: 8).

2.2.2 Knowledge-intensive Firms

A topic which has achieved considerable attention in the management literature is knowledge-intensive firms. These organisations are primarily made up of knowledge workers, who are highly qualified and "trade in knowledge itself" (Blackler, 1995:1022).

Sveiby and Lloyd introduced the idea of the "know-how company" in 1987. What separates these organisations from the more traditional organisation is the nature of the tasks at hand. Know-how companies are required to solve problems which are complex, non-routine, individual and creative. The resources used to solve these types of problems are intellectual capital. In addition to professional skills, which reside in employees, otherwise known as "know-how machines", these organisations also require high-quality managerial skills (Sveiby & Lloyd, 1987: 1). Managerial skills can be interpreted as the capacity to create environments conducive to professional skills and creativity.

Swart & Kinnie (2004) describe knowledge-intensive firms as organisations consisting of educated employees with high-level skill sets who create value through applying knowledge in novel ways. Knowledge-intensive organisations gain their distinctiveness through the nature of their primary input, which is intellectual capital and their tasks, which are complex and call for innovative responses in their industry. Social and intellectual capital form the core of their trading resources and equips knowledge-intensive organisations to deliver a unique service and remain competitive (Swart & Kinnie, 2004: 60).

Starbuck (1992) broadly describes the term "knowledge-intensive" as a label put on companies, used to describe the relative importance of knowledge as primary production input. The author admits that because there are so many different understandings of knowledge, defining knowledge -intensive organisations is necessarily complicated. However, a few important points about the nature of knowledge-intensive firms are made. Esoteric expertise, and not widely-held knowledge, is what characterises knowledge-intensive firms. It is important to distinguish between the categories "professional" and "expert", "professional firm" and "knowledge-intensive firm" and "information-intensive" and "knowledge-intensive". Finally, knowledge should be understood as an element of physical and social capital, routines, organisational culture and individual employees (Starbuck, 1992).

2.2.3 Knowledge Work Enablers

The shift in focus from industrial work to knowledge work can be considered as significantly rewriting the assumptions and practices underlying management models of the past. Theories and models on how to successfully manage and motivate industrial workers are no longer relevant for organisations in the knowledge era. The rules for boosting worker productivity have therefore changed. The priority for knowledge-intensive organisations is to manage the real owners of knowledge – the workers. According to Kelloway and Barling, facilitating knowledge work is about enhancing three aspects: the ability, motivation and opportunities of employees to engage in knowledge work (2000:6). Enabling knowledge work means creating conditions which are conducive to these three aspects.

Drucker has identified a few factors which are determinate for the productivity of knowledge work. Firstly, the primary question which needs to be asked, is "what is the task at hand?" Most often in a knowledge work context, the task at hand is not pre-given. Unlike industrial work scenarios, where the task is always clearly stipulated, workers know exactly what to do and are "programmed" to do it, knowledge work calls for workers to deal with scenarios which are almost never the same (Drucker, 1999:7). Workers need to consider the context, ask themselves what they need to do and how they need to do it.

Worker autonomy is another important factor. Knowledge workers possess specialised skills and experiences which form the key resources of the organisation. Supervisors or higher-level managers are not likely to have a superior skill set in the specific field. In addition, knowledge worker's job satisfaction and productivity are also dependent on the extent to which they are liberated to perform their tasks in the way they best see fit. Knowledge workers therefore require a higher degree of autonomy, which implies that they themselves are responsible for their own productivity (Drucker, 1999:6).

Another factor which has been identified is continuous innovation, which, according to Drucker, needs to be at the centre of knowledge worker behaviour and responsibility.

Knowledge workers also need to accept that learning and teaching constantly is part of the job description (Drucker, 1999:8).

Finally, an important factor of knowledge worker productivity concerns quality. In contrast to manual or industrial wok, where the focus was mainly on the quantity of output, the priority in knowledge work is to produce top quality products or services (Drucker, 1999:6).

Sveiby and Simons (2002) have also identified collaborative climate as a knowledge work enabler. The authors state that collaborative climate, forming part of organisational culture, which can be described as a set of values, beliefs and attitudes which guide conduct and readiness to share knowledge, is of key importance in facilitating knowledge worker effectiveness (Sveiby & Simons, 2002:5). Key elements of a collaborate climate include free and flowing communication channels, a strong sense of trust in the workplace and the encouragement of new ideas and theories. Yang (2007) has also pointed to the correlation between collaborative culture and effective knowledge-sharing, identifying work group collaboration as the most important enabler of knowledge-sharing (2007:535).

Various authors have referred to organisational design as a knowledge work enabler. This might explain the shift we have seen from mechanistic to more organic organisational forms, from individual worker focus to team-based structures and from functional to interdisciplinary projects (Stebbins & Shani, 1995:1). Organisations need to structure and organise in a way which is conducive to knowledge worker creativity and innovation. Central to this requirement is the trend of creating organisational structures which are flatter and less bureaucratised than earlier organisations. Newell *et al.* (2009) has referred to organising as an adhocracy as an important part of facilitating knowledge work. Adhocracies are characterised by matrix structures, made up of less formal, smaller units. This organisational form is associated with decentralisation, dynamism, adaptability, trial-and-error functionality and networks (Van Den Eede, Kenis & Van De Walle, 2004:5). Other distinctive characteristics include work processes which are self-organised around teams, the absence of formal rules or practices, decentralised decision-making and mutual adjustment as coordination mechanism (Newell e*t al.,* 2009:36).

2.2.4 Linking Knowledge Work Enablers and Facilitative Leadership

Through the discussion of both knowledge work enablers and facilitative leadership, it became clear that there are many connections and parallels between that which is said to be conducive to knowledge work and the aims and objectives of a facilitative style of leadership. Table 2 illustrates the common principles and the significance as both an enabler of knowledge work and a principle of facilitative leadership.

Principle	Significance as Knowledge Work Enabler	Significance as Facilitative Leadership Principle
Worker Independence	The autonomy of workers is an important knowledge work enabler. Workers will perform better if they have the freedom to do their job as they see fit.	Facilitative leaders liberate employees by empowering them, leading to increased levels of intrinsic motivation. This is often done by shared and self-leadership.
Creativity and Innovation	Continuous innovation is another knowledge work enabler. Learning and teaching is a central part of knowledge work.	Facilitative leaders see an important role for leadership in promoting learning. This is done by asking difficult questions and endorsing critical thinking.
Cultural climate	A collaborative climate is perceived to be an enabling factor in knowledge work. Free and flowing communication and a knowledge supporting culture is part of this.	Encouraging a culture of trust, commitment and the sharing of new ideas is a significant part of facilitative leadership. Facilitative leaders also see an important role for themselves to play in fostering a knowledge supporting culture.
Organisational Structure	An adhocracy-type, organic organisational design serves as an enabler to knowledge work, encouraging employees to freely share ideas and experiences.	A facilitative leader moves away from traditional, bureaucratic structures and turns the organisation upside down, encouraging a proliferation of leadership across the whole organisation.

Table 2

To conclude, judging on these similarities, a facilitative style of leadership is likely to have a significant and positive role to play in supporting and enabling knowledge work.

2.2.5 Knowledge Management: What it is and where it came from

With the advance of the so-called knowledge era, characterised by a shift in thinking about physical resources to knowledge resources, the idea of managing knowledge has gained considerable attention. Knowledge management involves attempts at getting the most out of knowledge assets, which are located within knowledge workers. If knowledge and knowledge workers are seen as critical resources, it makes sense that, like any other resource, it needs to be managed carefully in order to glean maximum value from it. This is what most companies are trying to do, devoting considerable financial resources to the cause.

Although it is talked and written about extensively, knowledge management, like knowledge, is not easy to define. The Oxford Dictionary defines the word management as "the process of dealing with or controlling things". Knowledge management is therefore about handling the knowledge resources in a firm but doing it in such a way that these assets are being leveraged in the best possible way, thereby boosting overall efficiency and helping the organisation reach its desired goals. Ruggles' (1998) view of knowledge management, which can be described as the process of value creation by means of a strategy to actively influence or control the expertise and skills within and/or outside of the firm, ties in with this idea. One way in which knowledge management can therefore be explained is by exploring its aims. These aims amount to getting the most value out of knowledge resources so as to help the organisation make optimal decisions and ensure productivity and viability (Wiig, 1997: 17).

The question about where the phenomenon of knowledge management came from has also received considerable attention. Many authors differ in what exactly the source of the knowledge management trend is but most explanations come down to the convergence of a collection of trends which set off fundamental transformations in modern economies (Newell *et al.,* 2009). Knowledge management, like most other management fields, was basically the

45

response to unique challenges created by changes in society and economy. The field presented some of the answers to organisational issues which flowed from transformations in the Knowledge Economy, or Information Age.

According to Prusak (2001), the knowledge management movement can be attributed to three major social and economic trends: globalisation, ubiquitous computing and the knowledge-centric view of the firm. Globalisation has caused international trade to become more boundaryless and free, evening out the playing field and bringing about fierce competition amongst firms. More than ever, firms are experiencing pressure to use their resources as strategically as possible. Since knowledge assets are now labelled as the most critical resources, this is where priority lies and where firms are concentrating their efforts.

Ubiquitous computing has caused so-called tacit knowledge, which cannot be codified or dignified, to become extremely valuable. Explicit knowledge, which can be captured and codified, is now freely available to everyone to use, causing its strategic and competitive value to decrease. However, elements of tacit knowledge, such as experience and innovation, are seen to hold the key to competitive advantage (Prusak, 2001:1003). For this reason knowledge management efforts are now more focused on exploiting these tacit types of knowledge.

The third trend refers to the firm increasingly being viewed as an assembly of skills and capabilities. Since the key building blocks of these skills and capabilities are, in essence, knowledge, it is evident that organisations need to do everything in their power to build on and cultivate their knowledge assets. Just like a living organism, the body of knowledge which is the firm needs to be kept vibrant and alive in order to survive (Wiig, 1997:17). Knowledge management is a way to do this.

2.2.6 Knowledge Management: Critical Success Factors

Various authors have investigated the factors necessary for effective knowledge management. These so-called knowledge enablers are essential for the creation, sharing and protection of knowledge within the organisation. To truly utilise knowledge resources as best possible organisations need to be aware of these enablers.

Ye, Lai and Ho (2006) classify knowledge management enablers according to four categories: information technology, corporate culture, people and strategy and leadership.

Even though it fits most clearly with process-type management approaches, information technology is perceived by many scholars to be an important enabler of knowledge management. IT provides a valuable infrastructure which connects organisational members and gives them the opportunity to share, store, access and use knowledge (Lee & Choi, 2003). IT solutions such as mailing lists, databases and digital directories serve as tools that greatly facilitate the spreading and development of knowledge (Van der Velden, 2002). Even though information and communication technologies play an important enabling role, most authors still agree that it is important to remember that whilst IT may have played an important role in inspiring knowledge management, the technology alone cannot deliver it.

Corporate culture refers to a shared set of assumptions, values, attitudes and beliefs within an organisation, guiding the conduct of organisational members. Corporate culture is believed by some to be the most important knowledge management enabler (Lee & Choi, 2003:189). The corporate culture determines how knowledge is perceived in the organisation, how much importance is placed on it and to what extent employees are keen to share their ideas and experiences and make use of knowledge management systems (Yeh *et al.*, 2006). An optimal culture for the purpose of knowledge management exhibits values and norms that encourage and reward the sharing of knowledge. If knowledge management efforts are to be successful, managers therefore need to pay attention to the consistency between their knowledge

management strategies and their corporate culture and practices (De Tiene, Dyer, Hoopes & Harris, 2004:33).

People are what creating and using knowledge is all about and for this reason managing different actors involved is a critical success factor for any knowledge management initiative. No knowledge management system or plan can be effective if people are not willing to partake in it. The topic of concern is, after all, knowledge, which is seen to either reside in the heads of people or in the practices of people and for this reason people is a crucial social enabler of knowledge management. Organisations need to focus on hiring individuals with the desired skills and expertise as well as the willingness to collaborate, share and create knowledge (De Tiene *et al*., 2004).

Finally, strategy and leadership is of key importance in ensuring the success of any knowledge management initiative. Strategy is about creating a vision or plan of action for what it is you want knowledge management to do in the organisation and how it needs to be done. Leadership is about ensuring that this plan of action gets carried through. The knowledge management strategy needs to correspond to the characteristics of the organisation, the types of knowledge they are dealing with and the tasks they want to execute using this knowledge. Studies have shown that a focused, assertive strategy is more likely to deliver success. The importance of leadership in making knowledge management work has been stressed by many authors. Holsapple & Joshi (2002) consider managerial influences, which leadership forms a major part of, to be of significant importance in knowledge management activities. The characteristics of leaders and their style of leading has been said to have different influences on the knowledge climate, the degree of knowledge sharing, innovation and learning. The following section will discuss the effect of leadership on knowledge management in more detail.

2.3 Knowledge Management and Leadership: The State of Affairs

Chapter 2 has provided an investigation into the fields of knowledge management and leadership so as to get a better understanding of the different theories, models and theoretical issues depicted in the literature. The review of literature related to these fields highlight how the challenges and subsequent roles of leaders have changed from an environment which involves routine, uniform solutions to one which calls for unique and creative problem-solving. It also looks at how the emphasis has shifted from a focus on management to one of leadership. The broad conclusion is that, over time, the role of leadership has significantly changed and based on this argument, a discussion of the leadership-response to the changing nature of work, in the form of facilitative leadership, was presented. The concept of facilitative leadership has been clarified through connotations in the literature, including the investigation of basic facilitative principles, including participation, empowerment and communication.

The chapter also investigates the increasingly important role knowledge management has come to play in organisations, specifically those which can be labelled as "knowledge-intensive", where knowledge workers hold the primary means of production. The aim of this discussion is to illustrate how changes in the nature of work have fundamentally reshaped the assumptions and rules we have traditionally held relating to management of organisations and workers and how organisations are facing new competitive requirements and issues in the knowledge-era, which includes leadership challenges.

Finally, the chapter concludes with a discussion regarding the connections between practices which serve as work-enablers in this new knowledge era and facilitative leadership as we come across it in the literature. By highlighting the shared practices and goals, it is illustrated that a facilitative style of leadership is likely to have a significant and positive role to play in supporting and enabling knowledge work.

3. KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT & ORGANISATIONAL KNOWLEDGE

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a comprehensive investigation into the nature of organisational knowledge and using literature on the topic to provide a broad theoretical framework through which different conceptualisations of knowledge can be classified. Although knowledge is nowadays at the centre of attention and increasingly written and talked about, the question about what exactly knowledge is, where it comes from and what its scope is, is everything but straightforward. If managing knowledge and knowledge workers is the most critical challenge facing organisations today, it is intuitive that the concept "knowledge" needs to be investigated and clarified for mostly, since the question needs to be asked: what exactly is it that we want to manage? In the attempt to better understand knowledge, a vast amount of definitions have been attributed to the phenomenon by many different scholars, a few of which will be identified in this section. After a brief introduction to the different conceptualisations of knowledge, these understandings will be broadly classified in two groups, based on Cook and Browns' distinction between the epistemology of possession and the epistemology of practice.

3.1 Defining Organisational Knowledge

Understanding the views on organisational knowledge can be improved by looking at how Tsoukas (1994) classifies the different approaches to the subject. According to the author, approaches to organisational knowledge can be classified in two categories: those approaches

which aim to identify different types of knowledge and those which attempt to comprehend the phenomenon through comparing organisations to human brains or individual minds. The first category draws attention to how knowledge can have different origins and serves different functions in the organisations and studies these different types of knowledge. Some of these will be described in the next section. The second category draws parallels between the way in which organisations and the human mind functions. Central to this view is the fact that knowledge is seen to be distributed throughout the organisation and located within human minds, routines, processes and structure.

In their work, Tsoukas and Vladimirou (2001) draw attention to the importance of distinguishing between, but also finding the link between, personal and organisational knowledge. The authors describe personal knowledge as the ability of an individual to "draw distinctions within a domain of action" (2001: 976). This ability is rooted in the individuals understanding of the context or theory involved. Organisational knowledge, like personal knowledge, involves members being able to draw distinctions when executing organisational tasks. Their ability to do this, however, stems from communal understandings, which sets the environment for enacting sets of organisational generalisations (Tsoukas & Vladimirou 2001: 976).

Like Tsoukas and Vladimirou, Newell *et al*. (2009) also provide an explanation of organisational knowledge based upon the notion of drawing distinctions. The authors define knowledge as the capacity to "discriminate between and across contexts" (2009: 5). The manner in which actors make sense of their surroundings and actions in a particular context is therefore the focal point of study. More specifically, organisational knowledge is defined as a shared collection of customs, practices and perceptions which tie organisational members together to yield context-specific valued outcomes (Newell *et al.*, 2009).

Jarrar, Zairi and Schiuma (2010) base their definition of organisational knowledge on the distinction between information, which represents a component of knowledge, and knowledge, which is a wider, more all-encompassing term. Knowledge, according to these authors, encompasses information, supplemented by "experience, context, interpretation, and

reflection" (2010: 3). Knowledge can therefore be described as a type of information which is more significant in that it is able to support organisational decision-making and action.

3.2 Classifying Knowledge Views According to the Cook and Brown Perspective

This section has illustrated that the notion of organisational knowledge is diversely interpreted and overall problematic. For centuries, people have been struggling with the question of what knowledge is and as a result there exists a whole branch of philosophy devoted to this task, namely the epistemology of knowledge (Newell *et al*., 2009). The different perspectives on knowledge can broadly be classified into two groups: the epistemology of possession and the epistemology of practice (Cook & Brown, 1999).

3.2.1 The Epistemology of Possession

The majority of literature on knowledge management relies on a specific view of knowledge, where knowledge is perceived as something which human beings *possess* and is seen to exist in the human mind. In this view, knowledge is regarded an entity or asset which can be cultivated in the human mind and applied to improve organisational efficiency (Newell *et al*., 2009). Every individual is seen to have a certain amount of stock of knowledge in their mind which can be used as chosen. This perspective implies that knowledge can be managed or controlled in some or other way and that it is therefore practically useful. This view of knowledge was classified as "the epistemology of possession" by Cook and Brown (1999).

The epistemology of possession has also been described as the objectivist perspective on knowledge. Cook and Brown point to the fact that society's most dominant perception of knowledge today corresponds to something formed in the human mind, most accurately through analytic reasoning and in the most objective way possible. Hence the derivation that this epistemology primarily emphasises the cognitive features of knowledge. In this regard, the epistemology of possession has a positivistic or Cartesian dimension, calling attention to

the importance of non-subjective reasoning. This relates to McAdam and McCreedy's (2000) description of the "knowledge is truth" objectivist category. Here they explain that knowledge is perceived as scientific facts, which are not open to social interpretation. Because of the fact-based nature of knowledge, the personal and the social do not hold any significance in the epistemology of possession.

One dimension of the epistemology of possession is the focus on identifying different types of knowledge. In this regard, the distinction between tacit and explicit knowledge is one of the main classifications (Polanyi, 1976). Tacit knowledge is described as a type of personal knowledge, consisting of expertise and know-how which are shaped by individual, context-specific experiences (Newell *et al.,* 2009). Tacit knowledge is personal and difficult to put into words, because it does not exist "out there" but in the minds and hands of individuals (Stenmark, 2001). Adding to this complexity is the fact that human beings know more than they can express or deal with at any given point in time (Newell *et al*., 2009). Tacit knowledge is therefore associated with inexpressibility, incodifiability, subjectivity and context-specivity.

The objective view of knowledge considers tacit knowledge to only become practically useful once it is transformed into explicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is generally regarded as more objective and can easily be articulated, communicated and codified. Explicit knowledge is associated with codifiability, objectivity, and context independent. Cook and Brown point towards the general trend in society and literature to favour explicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is almost regarded as the only type of knowledge which is truly comprehensible and useful because it can be logically communicated. Knowledge that can be communicated explicitly is perceived as closer to scientific facts or truth.

An important aspect of so-called "objective" knowledge as it is regarded in the epistemology of possession is the fact that it can be separated from the individual and exist independently in codifiable format. When it comes to organisational knowledge creation, the method involves recognising valuable tacit knowledge, finding a way to make it explicit, exposing organisational members to this explicit knowledge and helping them transform it into their

own tacit knowledge.   This is where Nonaka's SECI model comes in. This representation sees the process of knowledge creation as an interaction between different knowledge types, occurring in a spiral-like fashion (Newell *et al*., 2009). Figure 2 represents the SECI model.
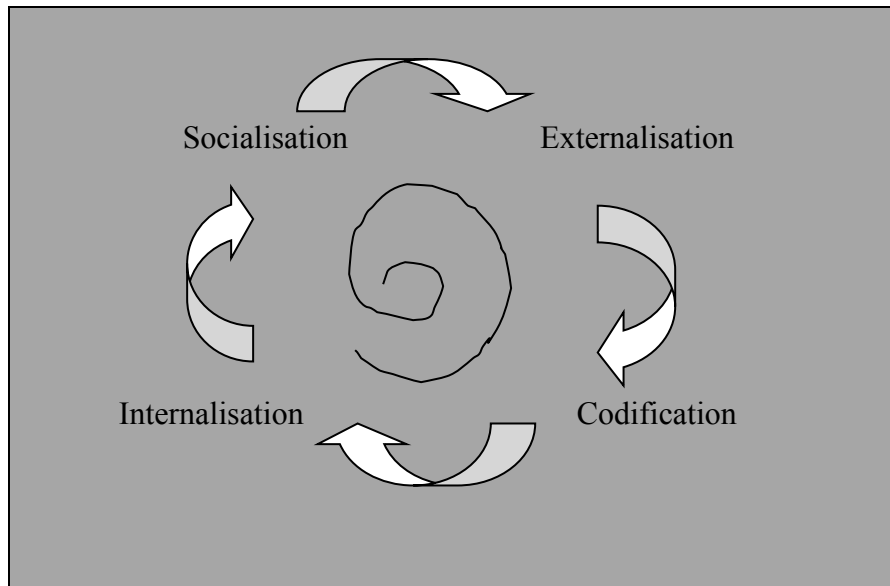

Figure 2

According to Nonaka (1994) knowledge creation can either occur through socialisation, externalisation, internalisation or combination. Through socialisation individuals convert and exchange tacit knowledge. Examples include apprentices, observation and other experience-based training methods. Through externalisation individuals convert their tacit knowledge into understandable, codifiable forms for other individuals to use. Examples include figurative language and visuals. By internalisation individuals convert explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge. They do this through learning-by-doing and exercises. Lastly, through combination individuals amalgamate existing sets of codified knowledge to form novel sets of explicit knowledge which can be used in new ways. Communication and diffusion are some of the ways in which this is achieved (Nonaka, 1994). This model has some definite implications for the way in which knowledge is managed in many organisations. This will be discussed in more detail in chapter four. Nonaka's SECI model has received criticism from various authors, including Cook and Brown who argue that tacit and explicit knowledge are two distinct forms of knowledge and the one cannot be turned into the other.

Another important distinction is the one made between individual and group knowledge. Just like explicit knowledge has historically been privileged over tacit knowledge, so has the individual been favoured over the group (Cook & Brown, 1999). Nonaka's work indicates that knowledge only exists at the individual level and therefore that whatever is produced by the group can be reduced to individual efforts. Even though most of the earlier work on knowledge and knowledge management was based on the idea that knowledge is always produced in the mind of a single individual, this view has since been challenged by many authors, who have pointed out that a perspective exclusively focused on individual knowledge creation is severely limited. These writers argue that although a great deal of knowledge is developed by the individual, knowledge can also be developed and kept in group or social contexts in the form of shared practices, routines and perspectives. This has led to a deeper investigation into social-level knowledge and topics such as communities of practice and organisational learning.

Spender's work has played an important role in this regard and draws attention to the different sources, or ontologies, of knowledge. The author suggested a multi-type epistemology which he represented through a matrix of different knowledge types. This matrix is shown in Table 3. Spender differentiates between individual tacit knowledge and group or social tacit knowledge, as well as individual explicit knowledge and group or social explicit knowledge. The combination of these different groups gives rise to four general types of knowledge: conscious, automatic, objectified and collective.

	Individual	Organisational
Explicit	Conscious	Objectified
Tacit	Automatic	Collective

Table 3

Spender terms individual explicit knowledge "conscious knowledge", whilst individual tacit knowledge is expressed as "automatic knowledge". Social explicit knowledge, termed "objectified knowledge", refers to knowledge which has been articulated and most likely

codified (in the form of rule books, standard operating procedures, etc) in a group context. Social tacit knowledge, which Spender describes as "collective knowledge" refers to context-specific know-how, experience and expertise jointly possessed by a group but which is not codified. Examples may include shared experiences and informal rules and routines (Spender, 1996). This classification highlights an important point in the study of knowledge and knowledge management: groups, not just individuals, warrant further study since a major proportion of knowledge is intrinsically linked to the collective social context in organisations (McAdam & McCreedy, 2000). According to Spender, the type of knowledge with the most strategic value and that which firms need to focus on fostering is collective knowledge, since it is very hard for competitors to fully grasp and replicate (Newell et al.).

3.2.2 The Epistemology of Practice

A deeper inspection into the different types of knowledge sheds some light on the flaws of the epistemology of possession. Critics have pointed to the fact that the objectivist view of knowledge, which does not consider the personal, context-dependent, ambiguous and dynamic character of knowledge, is severely limited. In reaction to this, the attention has been shifted from knowledge possessed in the heads and hands of humans to knowledge that is part of practice. The epistemology of process moves away from seeing knowledge as an object that can be possessed, to looking at knowledge from a process point of view.

Cook and Brown draw attention to the fact that an important part of what we as human beings know cannot be classified according to Spender's framework. This relates to epistemic work done be human action itself. Cook and Brown argue in favour of not only studying what we consider to be *knowledge (*be it tacit, explicit, individual or social) but also our ways of *knowing*. Whereas knowledge is seen to be something that we possess and employ in action, knowing is described as being part of the action itself. Knowing is, fittingly, a verb and therefore something we *do,* not something we possess. The authors believe that there is an inextricable connection between practice and knowledge and that knowing lies within practice. Cook and Brown define practice as "action informed by meaning drawn from a particular group context".

A pragmatic orientation, with a stressed focus on concrete action, can help us understand the concept of knowing. Linking with this pragmatic approach is what Schultze and Stabel (2004) termed the epistemology of duality, which argues for appreciating knowledge as something which is emergent and situated in practice. The emergent character of organisational knowledge has also been stressed by Tsoukas. According to the author organisational knowledge can never be held by a single person, it is, to a certain extent, produced outside of the organisation and it is never in its final form (Tsoukas, 2004: 111).The pragmatic emphasis is on understanding what people *do*, not only what they know or possess. Rather than looking simply at an individual's body of knowledge, the idea is to look at how they use this body of knowledge as an aid for knowing. In performing a task, the knowing element is just as important as the knowledge held by the individual. Important to also note is the fact that with knowledge and knowing it is not an either/or scenario. These two do not compete - on the contrary, they are mutually enabling (Cook & Brown, 1999).

If knowledge is seen as a tool for the purpose of knowing, then productive inquiry is one of the most significant ways in which knowledge can be of aid. Productive inquiry is basically about searching for the required knowledge in order to execute a particular task (Brown & Adler, 2008). A certain problem or challenge arises, prompting the individual to actively search for a solution. When searching for this solution, the individual makes use of knowledge in the form of theories, rules, experiences, etc., as a guiding tool which helps systematise the inquiry. Productive inquiry may also yield new knowledge, which, in turn, may aid in additional knowing (Cook & Brown, 1999).

Our interaction with the world is also an important dimension of knowing. When we act, our behaviour is not isolated from outside influences, but occurs in a much wider context determined by the physical and social world. Instead of taking place in isolation, our actions influence and are influenced by the prevalent social and physical circumstances. The focus of knowing is therefore not on the stock of knowledge possessed in a human mind but on relations between the knower and the world (Cook & Brown, 1999). The knower-world relationship can be described as follows. Just as in the case with productive inquiry,

knowledge is employed as a tool which guides our actions and in this way influences the social and physical worlds. On the other hand, our conduct is also influenced by the characteristics of the social and physical worlds, since we are required to acknowledge and accept it and act accordingly.

Tsoukas (2004) also draws attention to this social aspect of organisational knowledge. Following a constructionist approach, the author refers to organisational members as active agents who jointly create their reality. This social element cannot be reduced to an aggregation of different members' individual experiences, rather it should be seen as a collection of tacit "background distinctions" which guide individual conduct (Tsoukas, 2004: 99). Consequently, the focus should be on investigating how individuals assign meaning to themselves and organisational tasks. Tsoukas classifies organisational knowledge as distributed in the sense that it is highly dependent on the societal and industrial circumstances in which the organisation is rooted.

Often the role of materiality in organisational practice has been underemphasised. Many authors have, however, pointed to the fact that our daily activities, of which knowing is an important dimension, are inextricably tied with materiality (Orlikowski, 2007). Because materiality and sociality forms such an integral part of knowing, knowers have to acknowledge and respect the power and limits of the elements which constitute these contexts -objects and people. If not, actions are unlikely to produce intended results.

Cook and Brown also draw attention to what they term "dynamic affordance", which is a property of our interaction with the world. The word "affordance" in this context signifies the idea of giving, providing or allowing. Objects or situations may afford certain actions. For instance, a TV remote affords turning the device on or off or switching channels. "Dynamic affordance" refers to cases of affordance which come about as a result of the way in which we communicate with the world. The occurrence entails the surfacing of material, design or situational affordances with the interaction between the knowing and the world. According to Cook and Brown, the type of interaction involved in dynamic affordance is the key to

facilitating knowing and this process plays a significant part in organisational knowledge creation and use.

The idea of knowing also corresponds to the work of Blackler (1995). The author noted how a shift has occurred in the reliance on knowledge which is conceived to be located in bodies and routines to that which is considered to be located in symbols and dialogue (Blackler, 1995: 1029). Nevertheless, the traditional idea of knowledge is problematic and needs to be reconceptualised. The author falls under the category of the epistemology of practice since he rejects the traditional notions of knowledge as being individual, abstract and disembodied. Instead of talking about knowledge, the author prefers the term knowing and draws attention to the fact that knowing is mediated, situated, provisional, pragmatic and contested (Blackler, 1995: 1040). Knowing is mediated in the sense that it is not independent and objective but revealed in systems of language, technology and associations. It is also situated in specific contexts which are related to time and space. Knowing is provisional because instead of being static, it is constantly being shaped and developed. Blackler also discusses its pragmatic character, referring to how knowing is practical and object-oriented. Lastly, knowing is contested in the sense that power dynamics will always be involved and what is known is, to a great extent, influenced by who dominates and who is dominated (Blackler, 1995: 1042).

Blackler's view of knowing has some important implications for the study of knowledge-intensive firms and knowledge work. The author states that the focus should no longer be on identifying the types of knowledge that are required and the ways in which they can be exploited. What is more important is investigating the systems through which humans realise their knowing and how these systems change as a result of the constant flux and transformation of the post industrial society. Only when we look at how activity systems change can we formulate appropriate responses. Studying knowledge work and organisations in an epistemology of practice context therefore demands an investigation of knowing as part of a wider, cultural occurrence (Blackler, 1995: 1042).

Newell *et al.* (2009) summarise a few characteristics which all process perspectives share. Firstly, the emphasis on process clarifies the fact that sharing or transferring knowledge is not a simple and straightforward task. Knowledge is described as being "sticky" in the sense that it is conjoined with practice. Where people do not share practices, which is the case with highly specialist departments, communicating and distributing knowledge proves problematic. Secondly, practice perspectives pay attention to the material nature of social activity by acknowledging the fact that practice involves interaction with the physical and the material, which, in turn, places restrictions on what practices are possible and influences human action in this manner. Thirdly, practice perspectives draw attention to the fact that what is being classified as knowledge work is in fact part of a much wider collection of practices, thereby indicating that the management of knowledge needs to be done with the wider institutional background kept in mind. Finally, this group of perspectives remind us that not only is knowledge socially constructed but practices are also invested with knowledge, which might have taken considerable time and effort. For this reason, practice may not be very easy to alter.

In conclusion, although the concept of organisational knowledge is often very difficult to precisely define and delineate, the many different understandings of the phenomenon can broadly be categorised into two groups: the epistemology of possession and the epistemology of practice. The epistemology of possession, which has also been describes as the objective view of knowledge, involves knowledge being considered an entity or asset which can be cultivated in the human mind and applied to improve organisational efficiency. The epistemology of practice acknowledges the social, context-dependant and sticky nature of knowledge and includes perceptions of knowledge as inherently embedded in practice. Both perspectives will have distinctive implications for prescriptions regarded to the management of knowledge. The next chapter will look at these implications and investigate how the different ways of perceiving knowledge may be linked to the manner in which a view of facilitative leadership in the context of knowledge work is developed.

4. FACILITATIVE LEADERSHIP & KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMNT

The purpose of this chapter is to explore the connection between the way in which knowledge is understood and the manner in which the notion of facilitative leadership is conceptualised. The type of leadership explored here is focused on enabling or facilitating knowledge work and knowledge workers. The understanding of knowledge is anticipated to be strongly related to the knowledge management strategy of an organisation.

4.1 The Implications of Different Knowledge Views for how Facilitative Leadership is Conceptualised

Within the knowledge management field, there are two ways in which to look at this connection: through a Nonaka-based perspective and through a Cook and Brown based perspective.

4.1.1 The Nonaka-based perspective

Firstly, a hypothesis can be formed based on the explicit / tacit typology popularised by Nonaka (1991). Knowledge which is explicit is easy to articulate and codify, whilst tacit knowledge is difficult or impossible to communicate and transfer. With regards to the topic

of this research, one may expect that organisations focusing more on explicit knowledge will adopt knowledge management approaches based on the principle of codification, which are likely to be technology-based, whilst organisations concentrating on tacit knowledge will take on approaches based on the idea of personalisation, which is likely to be more people-focused. The next section will discuss these two knowledge management approaches.

4.1.1.1 The Implications of a Codification Strategy

Codification concerns identifying, capturing, organising and making available explicit knowledge to all organisational members (Wyatt, 2001: 6). When it comes to codification, the basic approach is based on a "people-to-documents" strategy, in the sense that knowledge is extracted from the person holding it, separated from that individual and stored in a knowledge repository where it can be reused for different purposes (Hansen, Nohria & Tierney, 1999). The documents referred to here may include printed documents, electronic documents or multimedia applications. This type of document-centred approach views documents as vehicles for codified knowledge because it enables individuals throughout the organisation to access, use and apply the knowledge to their own work (Wick, 2000: 516). Codification strategies therefore focus on transferring knowledge into and out of central knowledge repositories, in the process facilitating knowledge flows in this way (Schulz & Jobe, 1998: 6).

Proponents of codification strategies see many benefits in adopting this type of approach, most of them centred on boosting the efficient use and re-use of knowledge across the organisation. The main benefit relates enhancing knowledge flows in the organisation, getting the right knowledge to the right people when required, in the process supplying employees with quick and reliable access to organisational knowledge across geographical and organisational boundaries (Schulz & Jobe, 1998: 6). This approach is seen to boost knowledge management efficiency since it lets many employees search for and obtain knowledge, without them having to be in direct contact with the specific individual who originally developed that knowledge (Hansen *et al.*, 1999).

Knowledge recycling is thus a significant theme and a codification strategy is said to be based on the principle of economics of reuse. Once knowledge has been captured and organised in codified format and therefore converted into a knowledge asset for the organisation, it can usually be used over and over at a very low cost. Many different individuals can access and use it at the same time at little or no cost to the organisation. This type of knowledge recycling saves costs (especially those related to communication), time and work, helping organisations take on more work (Hansen *et al.,* 1999).

Every knowledge management strategy usually has some managerial initiatives or incentives put in place to make it work, usually aimed at ensuring high levels of participation. With regards to codification strategies, the emphasis is typically on encouraging system use. As part of the broader knowledge management strategy, many organisations reward employees for using or contributing to systems such as document databases, as well as recognising employee loyalty to knowledge management policies (Wyatt, 2001: 7). Basically, employees need to be encouraged in some or other way to put into words what they know, put it in document format and add it to the electronic knowledge repository where other people can access and benefit from it. One way in which this can be done is evaluating the quantity and quality of employee contribution to and utilisation of the system and making this a consideration at performance reviews (Hansen *et al.,* 1999).

Codification and information and communications technologies go hand in hand and the rapid growth of these technologies is said to have promoted the codification of knowledge (Joseph & Society, 2000: 8). In fact, in some organisations this type of knowledge management strategy "centres on the computer (Hansen *et al.,* 1999: 106). Strategies which are focused on explicit knowledge usually involve knowledge management approaches which depend heavily on information systems, which may include databases, corporate portals, expert systems, digital directories and other IT-based tools (Van der Velden, 2004: 4). Organisations which employ a knowledge management strategy based on codification rely mostly on knowledge repositories consisting of explicit knowledge (Grover & Davenport, 2001: 4). Other knowledge management tools used to get the right know-how to the right

people may include intranets and extranets, document management systems and knowledge maps (Van der Velden, 2004: 5).

Intensive investment in information and communication technologies is justified by the potential efficiency related advantages stemming from multiple knowledge re-use (Wyatt, 2001: 7). Hence, getting the right architecture in place is a fundamental part of the knowledge management strategy and technology is considered to be the primary means with which this can be achieved. With the spotlight on technology, human resource aspects are likely to play a secondary role, merely directed at hiring individuals who fit into this type of knowledge culture , that is people who are well-matched to knowledge re-use and comfortable with and proficient in technological solutions.

One can therefore expect that organisations who focus more on managing explicit knowledge (by means of codification) will likely be the ones who are more technology oriented in the running of business, including facilitation approaches.

4.1.1.2 The Implications of Personalisation Strategy

Personalisation is focused on tacit knowledge which is subjective, personal and context dependent and not as easy to share as so-called "explicit knowledge". Knowledge is seen to be embedded in the social and inextricably tied to the individual holding that knowledge and for this reason the primary mode of knowledge transfer is not knowledge repositories, but rather personal interaction between people (Grover & Davenport, 2001: 4).

A personalisation approach is therefore fundamentally based on a people-to-people strategy. The focus is not a central knowledge repository but rather fostering dialogue between employees. The only way in which this type of non-codified knowledge can be transferred is through interaction, whether it be discussion groups, storytelling or brainstorming (Hansen *et al.*, 1999). The type of dialogue focused on here is all about asking complicated and questions that call for creative thinking (Wick, 2000: 518). The focus of a personalisation strategy is

primarily on connecting organisational members so that they can share unique expertise and experiences. Whereas a codification strategy will focus on heavily investing in technology, personalisation strategies are more likely to select the building of people networks as an investment priority (Wyatt, 2001: 7).

Just like those who employ codification strategies, proponents of personalisation strategies have identified potential benefits to the organisation. These might be considered more or less valuable depending on the nature of the organisation and its operations. In contrast to economics of knowledge re-use, personalisation strategies rely on the idea of expert economics (Hansen *et al.*, 1999). This refers to the fact that employees' responses to organisational problems are not routine and short-term, but creative and strategic (Wyatt, 2001: 7). The focus is therefore not on leveraging and reusing knowledge which already exists, but on creating new knowledge which may provide new value to the organisation (Wick, 2000: 518). Because knowledge sharing isn't as straight-forward and routine, personalisation may therefore be more demanding when it comes to time and financial constraints but it usually yields results that are inventive and unique.

When it comes to managerial initiatives or incentives aimed at supporting the knowledge management strategy, personalisation strategies typically focus on the attitude of the knowledge worker in relation to knowledge sharing. Human resource management practices usually have an important role to play in fostering positive attitudes in this regard. These initiatives may include recruitment and selection, training and development, work design, promoting increased levels of autonomy and the overall promotion of a knowledge sharing culture (Hislop, 2003: 186). Some organisations may also have an incentive system in place which rewards direct interaction and communication with fellow employees or experts in particular fields (Wyatt, 2001: 7).

When it comes to information and communication technologies, organisations that primarily follow personalisation strategies are likely to invest modestly. Because this type of strategy is essentially about people and getting them together to interact and share ideas, technology will

most probably be seen as playing a secondary, supportive role. The main focus of investment will be building networks of people, whilst any investment in technology will be aimed at enhancing the connectivity and communication between network members (Wyatt, 2001:7).

Relating to the people focus discussed here, organisations employing a personalisation strategy will also expectedly be focused on the importance of human resource management. Since humans (and their expertise and experiences) are considered the most valuable resource of the organisation and the most important element of knowledge management, it makes sense that the management of this resource will be a priority for organisations. With the recognition of the importance of human and social elements in knowledge, comes an increased emphasis on human resource management. Human resource initiatives have been described as the most important instrument for organisations with which to influence the attitudes and conduct of employees (Chen & Huang, 2009: 104). Some scholars have pointed to the important role HR management can play in increasing knowledge management capacity, which, in turn, can boost creativity and innovation. This is usually done by initiatives aimed at advancing employee commitment which cultivates positive knowledge sharing attitudes and performance (Hislop, 2003: 183).

The fact that the knowledge in question is tacit in nature has certain implications for the way it is shared and managed and these implications suggest a definite role for human resource management. Hislop illustrates this in two ways. Firstly, because tacit knowledge is so closely tied and personal to the particular individual who developed it, this person has to be 100% prepared and willing to share and communicate the knowledge. If not, knowledge management efforts are in vain. If knowledge is perceived as power, which it often is, knowledge management strategies will be linked to power plays and thus inherently political in nature. Individuals will therefore not always be happy to share what they know, since they feel it might damage their position in the food chain. Secondly, if knowledge is considered a valuable strategic asset, a major concern for organisations will be the possible loss of knowledge workers, who take their expertise and experiences with them to other organisations. These knowledge workers are ultimately the source of value and with a higher turnover rate comes an increased loss of organisational knowledge (2003: 185). Both of these

66

potential scenarios illustrate the importance of attaining employee commitment to the knowledge management strategy and the significant role which human resource management can play in achieving this. Studies have shown that if human resource management initiatives are developed and tailored to support knowledge work, employees are likely to be motivated and secure within their positions, which will lead to increased worker performance (Hislop, 2003: 193).

One can therefore expect that organisations who focus more on managing tacit knowledge (by means of personalisation) will likely be the ones who are more people-oriented in the running of business.

Table 4 compares the different traits of codification and personalisation strategies.

	Codification	**Personalisation**
Type of Knowledge Targeted	Explicit	Tacit
Core principle	People-to-Documents	People-to-People
Mode of Knowledge Transfer	Knowledge Repositories	Personal Interaction
Justification / Benefits	Boosts Efficiency through knowledge re-use & consequently saves time and money	Organisation enjoys high levels of creativity owing to the ability to solve novel and complex problems
Focus of Investment	Technology	Building Networks of people
Role of Technology	Storing & Transferring Knowledge	Enhancing knowledge worker communication

Table 4

Based on the differences discussed in this section, one would expect organisations which rely primarily on either codification or personalisation strategies to have distinct leadership approaches, each of which will be focused on facilitating different knowledge management processes or initiatives. These approaches are likely to differ in their overall agenda and objectives, especially with regards to knowledge management practices.

In an organisation focusing primarily on the codification of knowledge, leaders are likely to be more technology oriented. They will expectedly view their main goals to be related to developing knowledge management applications, maintaining the sufficient knowledge management architecture and encouraging the use of and contribution to knowledge

repositories or systems. The focus of facilitation will therefore be the extracting, documenting and storing of knowledge, together with ensuring knowledge flow between employees, mainly by means of technology.

In an organisation focusing mainly on personalisation, the focus of leadership is likely to be on creating opportunities for interaction, which is viewed as the vehicle for knowledge sharing. Leadership practices will expectedly be aimed at facilitating the linking of employees through dialogue, as well as human resource management initiatives which ensure that knowledge workers are happy and secure in their jobs. This type of leadership will therefore concentrate on people, and not technological, issues.

4.1.2 The Cook and Brown Based Perspective

The Nonaka model has received criticism from various authors, including Cook and Brown, who argue that tacit and explicit knowledge are two distinct forms of knowledge and the one cannot be turned into the other. For these authors, the core of the issue is not the form that knowledge comes in, but the nature of the knowledge itself. They categorise the conceptualisation of knowledge in two different categories: the epistemology of possession and the epistemology of practice. Based on the Cook and Brown perspective, a second set of expectations can be developed. With regards to the topic of this research, one may expect that individuals viewing knowledge as a structural entity "possessed" in the minds of people will focus their facilitation on access to this structure. On the other hand, if knowledge is conceptualised as something embedded in practice, the focus of facilitation will expectedly be shared practices. Each of these perspectives will now be discussed in more depth.

4.1.2.1 The Implications of the Epistemology of Possession

Knowledge perspectives relying on the epistemology of possession will expectedly see the main task of managing knowledge work as converting knowledge from tacit to explicit and

making that knowledge as accessible as possible for all organisational members. Knowledge is perceived as a "thing" or commodity, which may exist in tacit or explicit form, and is possessed in the minds of people. These perspectives can usually be classified under the systems approach to knowledge management.

The system approach sees capturing, codifying and storing knowledge as the main concern. The emphasis is thus on knowledge which is explicitly documented and information technology is considered to be the main instrument in managing this knowledge (Choi & Lee, 2002). Because this approach favours explicit or codified knowledge, it ties in closely with the epistemology of possession and therefore proponents of this epistemological view are expected to be more likely to invest in systems type knowledge management efforts. Like the epistemology of possession, the systems approach is the most established, formal methodology when it comes to managing knowledge (Earl, 2001). Traditionally, many organisations have found appeal in the idea of capturing valuable expertise from individuals and assembling it in knowledge bases, so that it is available for all organisational members to access and use, improving the overall efficiency of the organisation.

The dominant role of IT in knowledge management is a major part of the systems perspective. The notion of information systems powered by IT and the positive role they can play in organisations consequently gained a lot of attention. Companies saw in IT a whole new way of leveraging knowledge and this inspired a new vision of knowledge management (McDermott, 1999). Van der Velden (2002) draws attention to how the success of systems approaches is seen to be critically dependant on functions of information and communication technologies, which produce the requisite architecture for transferring knowledge to where it is required, when it is required.

The task of knowledge management systems according to the systems perspective can be broken down into a few processes. Firstly, knowledge which is of importance for the purpose of the organisation needs to be identified. Thereafter, all knowledge needs to be gathered and stored in a knowledge base, or repository. The knowledge stored here should also be

organised in a way that makes it logical and easy to access and use. Technology plays an important role in all of these processes.

Part of the appeal of process-based solutions is its no-nonsense, straightforward character, exhibited by the few knowledge processes described above. However, in his work Earl refers to at least two requirements which warrant attention with this type of knowledge management. Firstly, because not only explicit, but also tacit knowledge (which non-objective experiences are a part of) is welcomed, some kind of validation tool has to be employed in order to ensure the soundness of all knowledge which becomes "official" in the organisation. Secondly, because the success of this kind of knowledge management system is dependent on individuals sharing their expertise and experiences so that it can be collected and distributed, incentive or reward schemes need to be put in place, encouraging organisational members to communicate what they know.

As part of the systems approach organisations holding a "knowledge as possession" view, is expected to employ certain tools and techniques, aimed at facilitating access to knowledge content, in the management of knowledge work. Most of these will be technology-based.

A knowledge repository is the most traditional tool used as part of structural perspectives. The main objective of these repositories is to capture knowledge, store it and make it available to the whole organisation for wider use. Types of knowledge typically represented in these warehouses, or "organisational yellow pages", which are aimed at guiding business conduct, include lessons learnt, best practices, competitive intelligence and sales knowledge pertaining to the target market, services or products, suppliers and customers (Grover & Davenport, 2001, 9).

Other tools may include intranets, which can come in the form of e-mail, instant messaging or Skype, aimed at supporting knowledge exchange within the organisation, technology based decision-support tools and other simulation instruments, groupware, which allows

anytime and anywhere collaboration between individuals and groups, data warehousing and mining, virtual reality, knowledge mapping and genetic algorithms (Ruggles, 1998).

In an organisation where the leadership strategy is focused on getting the most out of knowledge resources, we will expect to find a general strategy focused on facilitating identification, assembly and standardisation of knowledge and making this knowledge accessible to the wider organisation. Consequently, facilitation will expectedly be a matter of logistics – getting the right knowledge to the right people at the right time and making sure they have access to it. The strategy can therefore be broadly described as "facilitating access to structure". Since technology is perceived as an important tool in this regard, technology based tools and techniques are likely to be central to such a style of facilitation.

4.1.2.2 The Implications of the Epistemology of Practice

Knowledge perspectives relying on the epistemology of practice will expectedly consider converting knowledge through shared practices the main task of managing knowledge work. Since this category of perspectives see knowledge as inextricably connected to practice, it makes sense that efforts will be focused on creating environments conducive to the overlapping or sharing of practices. In the case of organisations holding a practice view of knowledge, we will therefore expect to find the employment of knowledge management tools focused on translating knowledge between different contexts and groups and overcoming the boundaries of practice (Newell *et al.*, 2009: 18).

In contrast to systems approaches, organisations holding a "knowledge as embedded in practice" view are anticipated to employ knowledge management strategies which are more human-centred in nature. Human-centred approaches are formulated on the premise that knowledge is social, contextual, personal, dynamic and sticky. Like the epistemology of practice, human approaches to knowledge management acknowledge that it is only through practice that knowledge dynamics are revealed and therefore the idea of knowledge

management can only be understood by acknowledging that knowledge is context specific and that it resides in social relations (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006).

Because knowledge is seen to be inextricably linked to or embedded in social context and practice, the sharing thereof is not as easy as Nonaka's SECI model shows it to be. Rather, the solution lies in dialogue through personal interaction. Sharing experiences and expertise can't simply be done through codification but rather by means of more informal individual and group interaction. While it may be easy and straightforward to manage explicit knowledge through technology centred approaches, the emphasis here is on tacit knowledge, which can only truly be shared through practice (Van der Velden, 2002). Since tacit knowledge is seen to be of more strategic worth in achieving long term organisational success, an approach which pays more attention to this type of knowledge is increasingly being perceived as superior over alternative approaches.

Knowledge sharing processes is often much more informal with human-centred approaches. Research has shown that often the most relaxed and free exchange of experience and know-how takes place in more casual organisational contexts. This is especially true in situations where there is a mutual sense of confidence and shared areas of interest of zeal for a topic. The type of confidence spoken about here refers to trust in an individual's ability and goodwill (Abrams, Cross, Lesser & Levin, 2003). Successfully sharing knowledge is therefore also about cultivating trust. Organisations take various measures in achieving this goal, including ensuring accountability and transparency in business processes and the development of a shared vision (Abrams *et al.*, 2003).

The tools and techniques we will expect to find in organisations relying on the epistemology of possession are all focused on sharing and translating knowledge across different groups and converting knowledge by means of overlapping practices (Newell *et al.,* 2009: 18).

One such tool is a community of practice. A community of practice can be described as a (usually spontaneous) grouping of individuals who share ideas and experiences in relation to

topics in which they share interests or positions (Meyerhoff, 2002). These groupings are made up of individuals who share concern or involvement in a certain domain and discover more about that domain by learning from each other. These communities of practice are major contributors to knowledge sharing as part of human-centred approaches. Members of communities of practice come together and share both explicit and tacit knowledge.

Another tool we will expect to find is networks. An essential feature of networks is a recurring and continuous exchange of some sort between the different members. Connecting individuals in this way is essential for knowledge sharing. Various types of networks have been identified, including intracorporate networks, strategic alliances and industrial districts (Inkpen & Tsang, 2005). Networks of practice can be described natural, unstructured groups made up of individuals who share positions or interests (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006). Although communities of practice can also be thought of as networks of practice, the difference is that with networks, the ties between members are not as strong as those in a community. The members of a network do not spend as much time with each other, physically learning each others' tricks of the trade. Hence members of these networks interact in more technologically assisted ways, such as by email, journals and online communities (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006). Membership to a network of practice means you have the chance to reinforce, challenge or amalgamate your existing practices. The result of this is the development of new knowledge, which can then be accessed and used by organisations (Tagliaventi & Mattarelli, 2006).

In addition to communities of practice and networks, we will expect to find various other knowledge management tools as part of the human-centred knowledge management approach. Most of these are aimed at creating an environment conducive to knowledge sharing. They include mentoring, story-telling, discussion groups, personal development, training and education of new staff, programmes aimed at fostering trust within the organisation, organisational and physical architecture and cross-functional project teams. Many of these methods are also intended to facilitate the creation of mutual understandings within the organisation (Maier & Remus, 2003).

Because the object of facilitation is understood differently, we would therefore expect leaders holding a "knowledge as embedded in practice" view to differ in their focus from those who believe it to be an objective entity. Managers who believe knowledge to reside in practice would be expected to focus on creating shared experiences and understandings. Leadership is anticipated to be directed at creating opportunities where employees from different groups can share ideas and expertise, primarily through overlapping practices. The focus of facilitation is thus expected to be more on people (and bringing them together) than on technology.

4.1.3   It doesn't have to be either/or – When Facilitation is focused on Structure as well as Process

The two approaches described above do not necessarily represent the reality of what firms are doing in terms of knowledge management but rather two extremes on a continuum, with the one approach absolutely focused on technology and the other concentrating exclusively on the human or the knower. In reality, most organisations combine aspects of the technological and human-focused approaches. Many writers have proposed the idea of combining these two approaches in order to get a more balanced overall knowledge management strategy (Van der Velden, 2002).

Choi and Lee identify three perspectives of knowledge management strategies. Each perspective suggests different guidelines with regards to how human and system approaches should be employed. Firstly, the focused view proposes that organisations primarily make use of a strategy based on one approach, which may be supported by another. For instance, a company may have a human-centred strategy, with the main focus on personalisation, which it supplements with a central knowledge repository. Secondly, a balanced view advises organisations to focus on achieving a balance between human and system based approaches, with initiatives which pay enough attention to people, processes and technology. Studies have shown that organisations that employ a combination of human and technological strategies enjoy a higher success rate with their knowledge management efforts. Finally, the dynamic view proposes that organisations look at the nature of their knowledge, and employ a strategy

which corresponds to knowledge properties. For instance, if an organisation is heavily dependent on tacit type knowledge, human centred measures such as personal interaction, storytelling and experience should weigh heavier in the overall knowledge management strategy.

Choi and Lee also point to the fact that, in spite of the traditional conception that human centred tools are exclusively aimed at tacit knowledge and system based tools only focus on explicit knowledge, these two approaches actually have a role to play in both types of knowledge. For instance, system approaches to knowledge management are not only useful in codifying knowledge through IT systems but they can also be employed to create IT-based practice networks where individuals can interact and share knowledge. On the other hand, human centred approaches are not only useful in facilitating knowledge sharing through person-to-person interaction, but it can also be used to decompose and clarify explicit concepts through dialogue (Choi & Lee, 2002)

The implication of this is that organisations are not necessarily pushed in a specific strategic direction by their knowledge characteristics but that they have the opportunity to be creative in combining different tools, thereby adding flexibility to organisational strategy. Since flexibility is the name of the strategic game in the context of a flatter, ever-changing business landscape, the idea of applying knowledge management strategies in such a way that it doesn't inhibit flexibility and responsiveness, but rather supplements it, warrants attention. An example of this kind of flexibility is a company operating in a highly dynamic and innovative industry, whose ability to react to market trends depends on its capacity to accelerate creative processes (Carneiro, 2000). This, in turn, is dependent on the way in which the organisation combines knowledge management strategies to increase knowledge flows.

When organisations do not exclusively draw on a single epistemology, which is most often the case, we will therefore expect to see knowledge management strategies which employ tools which focus on facilitating access to knowledge content, combined with tools which are aimed at enabling shared practices. Leadership will then expectedly concentrate on

collecting, codifying and storing knowledge (and utilising technology in the process) as well as creating opportunities for employees to share expertise through mutual practice. Depending on factors such as the organisational culture and the nature of business problems targeted, the organisation will be drawn towards a certain side of the continuum.

This is also true with regards to the use of codification and personalisation strategies. Although Hansen *et al.* (1999) discouraged organisations to put a dual emphasis on both these approaches within one knowledge management strategy, many organisations focus on both codification and personalisation within a single knowledge management strategy. Firms rarely adopt either a strict codification or personalisation strategy. Although some organisations can be neatly categorised in terms of their operations, many firms require knowledge management solutions which cater for routine, short-term problems, as well as issues which demand more creative and strategic problem-solving. One would expect these types of organisations to focus on facilitating the capturing, codifying and storing of explicit knowledge and the building of an effective technology-based infrastructure, as well as the creation of interaction and dialogue opportunities where tacit knowledge can be shared and communicated. Leadership will thus promote the utilisation of tools such as intranets, databases and expert systems, as well as initiatives such as discussion groups and storytelling.

4.2 The connection between the subjective view of knowledge and Facilitative Leadership

In addition to a connection between knowledge views and the nature of facilitation, one can also expect that there might be a link between those who talk about and promote the notion of facilitative leadership (such as the five respondents in this study) and those who lean towards knowledge management efforts focused on people (as opposed to technology). This group will include those who rely primarily on personalisation-based knowledge management and those who view knowledge to be embedded in practice. One can therefore anticipate that managers who endorse the idea of facilitative leadership as we come across it in the literature, will most likely also be the ones who prefer human-centred knowledge management styles to approaches which are technology-centred.

Proponents of people-focused approaches believe that knowledge management is more about discovering and utilising that which is embedded and bound up in cognition, social relations and practice than it is about capturing, certifying and organising information (Thomas, Kellog & Erickson, 2001: 1). This group of individuals will most likely also be of the opinion that, to match the nature of knowledge, initiatives and techniques need to be based on social processes (such as personal interaction and dialogue), whilst technology-based tools can, at best, play a secondary and supportive role. Supporters of the type of facilitative leadership that Schwartz and Rees write about, will almost certainly claim that the manner in which the leader interacts with his team mates, is the defining characteristic of such a style of leadership.

Facilitative leadership is broadly described in the literature as the process through which a designated individual helps the team as a whole become more effective by means of improved problem-solving. Throughout this process, the so-called leader is perceived to be in service of the team and the emphasis is placed on the contributions and potential entire group, not a single individual (Schwartz, 1996). The section on facilitative leadership explored the meaning of this term by looking at the different connotations it has in leadership literature. Out of this discussion, some core elements emerged. Facilitative Leadership's defining characteristics include participation, communication relationship-focused, culture and empowerment.

Proponents of facilitative leadership and advocates of human-focused knowledge management approaches relate to each other in the sense that they both operate on the basis of an "it's all about the people and the way in which they interact" view. Facilitative leadership is therefore just like personalisation strategies and process-based approaches in the sense that the focus of intervention is primarily people and the processes they are involved in. There are also some sub-elements within this people-centred view that is shared and followed by both groups.

Inclusion, or participation, is a central element in both facilitative leadership and people-focused knowledge management strategies. Facilitative leadership is more about the group than it is about the individual, or the leader. A facilitative leader involves group members as much as possible in creating and enacting the vision of the organisation. The leader needs to involve individuals by inviting them to freely share their perspectives, experiences and knowledge and participate in the decision-making process (Schwartz, 1996). Self- and shared leadership are two methods which also stem from the general principle of participation. When it comes to knowledge management, involving different individuals with their different skill sets and experiences in dialogue and other forms of social interaction is of utmost importance. With regards to successful knowledge sharing, employee commitment and active involvement is critical and the overall effectiveness and value of any knowledge management strategy is dependent on the participation of every individual (Gold, Malholtra & Segars, 2001: 195).

A principle linking strongly to participation is that of communication. Open, free and honest dialogue is said to play a pivotal role in facilitative leadership. It is only through this kind of communication that organisational problems can be solved in a creative manner (Schwartz, 1996). When it comes to people-focused knowledge management, dialogue serves as a cornerstone to most initiatives. It is through this type of communication that knowledge is most often shared and a great number of the tools employed rely on it, including discussion groups, mentoring and coaching and training and education.

Facilitative leadership and people-focused knowledge management approaches also share a mutual interest in relationships within the organisation. Literature on facilitative leadership usually stresses the relational nature of leadership. Leadership is not described as a position or a trait but it is rather discussed in terms of processes, practices and interaction (Crevani *et al*., 2010). Bloom (2004) states that meaningful partnerships form the foundation of facilitation and that facilitative leadership should be viewed as a reciprocal process between the leader and other group members. People-focused knowledge management efforts rely on relationships and networks amongst organisational members for employee interaction. It is only through this interaction that different perspectives can be shared. The focus on so-called

"knowledge communities" highlight the importance of basic relationships as foundation of any knowledge management strategy (Maier & Remus, 2003: 64).

Both facilitative leadership and people-oriented knowledge management approaches draw attention to the importance of culture in the organisation. Management literature suggests that facilitative leadership in the context of knowledge work has an important role to play in shaping a knowledge-supporting culture. One of the primary roles of a facilitative leader is described as cultivating a cultural climate conducive to the creation and sharing of knowledge, one which is oriented towards trust, commitment and learning (Ribiere & Sitar, 2003: 39). People-oriented knowledge management literature also acknowledges that culture can be the number one enabler or inhibitor of effective knowledge management. An organisational culture open and committed to interaction and collaboration is considered essential for the effective sharing and management of knowledge (Gold *et al.*, 2001: 89).

Finally, the two approaches discussed here also both stress the important role organisational structure and subsequent empowerment / disempowerment may play. Empowerment is an important theme in the literature on facilitative leadership. Facilitative leadership moves away from traditional leadership models where the leader is seen as the source of power, sitting in an autocratic position. Rather, facilitative leadership turns the organisation upside down. Facilitative leaders need not be holding management positions, but they are located within all levels of the organisation, leading to the proliferation of leadership (Moore & Hutchison, 2007: 565). People-oriented knowledge management approaches draw attention to the value of non-traditional, more flexible organisational structures which encourage spontaneous knowledge sharing across the boundaries. Both groups therefore identify more with a matrix-like organisational structure than a bureaucratic one. Figure 2.1 Figure 2.1Table 5 illustrates the common people-focus elements between the two groups of perspectives and explores the significance of the elements for each approach.

	Significance for Facilitative Leadership	Significance for People-Oriented Knowledge Management
Involvement / Participation	The group is more important than the leader; everyone's perspective should be considered.	For KM to be successful, maximum amount of employees need to partake in KM initiatives.
Communication	Open and free dialogue between the leader and all group members holds the key to creative problem solving.	Dialogue holds the key to sharing ideas, experiences and expertise.
Relationships	Leadership is relational; it's a reciprocal process between the leader and the rest of the team.	Relationships are the foundation for interaction and knowledge sharing.
Culture	Crafting a culture conducive to knowledge sharing is a responsibility of a facilitative leader.	Culture can either enable or inhibit KM success.
Organisational Structure / Empowerment	A facilitative leader turns the organisation upside down and shares leadership with others.	Flatter structures encourage spontaneous knowledge sharing.

Table 5

With an examination of these common principles, one can therefore expect that the kind of individuals who speak about and promote facilitative leadership, will also be the type of "people-persons" who have a human-oriented view of knowledge and knowledge management.

To conclude, it is argued that the two epistemologies of knowledge discussed in the previous chapter will inform two broad strategies for knowledge management in organisations: it is expected that those who view knowledge as an entity to be possessed will lean towards codification, or technology-centred knowledge management, whilst those who believe knowledge to be embedded in practice will be inclined to go for approaches based on the idea of personalisation, or rather people-focused knowledge management. On the basis of this argument, it is also expected that leaders that label themselves as facilitative, will be those who subscribe to an epistemology of practice, and therefore also be the ones who are people-oriented in the selection of knowledge management initiatives. The next chapter will describe the empirical enquiry part of this research, investigating how the theory-based hypotheses formed in this chapter actually resonates with the opinions and behaviours of practitioners.

5. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: METHODOLOGY & FINDINGS

The objective of this chapter is to explain the manner in which the empirical research component of this project was executed. It will account for the approach that was taken and clarify the mode of enquiry. After the research framework has been explained, the findings of the empirical investigation will be presented, both in written and visual form. These findings will then be discussed in detail and, based on the previous chapter and additional insights gleaned from respondents, possible explanations and theories will be presented. This chapter is therefore also aimed at verifying whether the argument formed in the previous chapter holds when it comes to the opinions and conduct of practitioners who label themselves as facilitative leaders.

5.1 Research Approach & Method

A qualitative approach was taken to this research. There are various reasons for this approach. Leadership is essentially a social phenomenon concerning issues related to culture and meaning. Quantitative methods would be inadequate to address these types of issues. The primary goal was to comprehend the way in which people make sense of what they experience to be facilitative leadership and empirical qualitative methods would best aid in doing this. Qualitative methods would allow flexibility to follow unexpected ideas in the research which might not have fit in a pre-determined model. It also allowed the researcher to be sensitive to contextual factors, which ended up being a very important input to the findings. A major part of the research was looking at social meaning and a qualitative method helped to do this. The main reason for choosing qualitative research therefore lies in the freedom and flexibility of it offers to explore new ideas and theories, opposed to the rigidity

of quantitative methods. After all, leadership concerns complex (often unpredictable) human behaviour, not stable scientific objects.

An inductive mode of research was used, working directly with subjects, hearing about their specific ideas and experiences and unifying these to try and get some broad general idea of why facilitative leadership is thought of in a specific way. This qualitative enquiry was in the form of a two-staged interview. The first part of the interview consisted of a set of structured questions (in the form of a survey) concerning knowledge management whilst the second part involved open-ended questions about leadership, more specifically facilitative leadership. Whereas the first part of the interview was based on a regulated set of questions and possible responses, the latter part was focused on getting respondents to freely share as much of their experiences and opinions as possible.

Interviews were conducted with 5 individuals. As part of the preparation for this research, discussions were held with a consultant in facilitation, leadership development and coaching. This particular consultant had worked extensively with many organisations and management teams across different industries, and her practical experiences and insights were thought to be of great value in exploring facilitation in practice. Consequently, the consultant identified a few individuals with whom she had been involved who exhibited, not only a belief in, but also the active promotion of what they believe to be facilitative leadership. Three of the five respondents were made up of individuals on this list, whereas the other two were chosen based on referrals from the initial group. When the first three respondents were asked about other individuals who shared the same type of ideas or strategies about leadership and who had an interest in facilitative leadership, they recommended certain individuals who were then asked to serve as the final respondents. It can therefore be said that all of the respondents form part of a type of community, connected by their interest and endorsement of the idea of facilitative leadership. This selection method was thought to be the most appropriate for this project since the research would only be valid and relevant if its source was practical, real-world experiences and knowledge regarding facilitative leadership initiatives. The sources therefore needed to have a history of hands-on involvement in what is conceived as facilitative leadership in the workplace, as opposed to the mere mention thereof in company values or strategy. The best way of finding such organisations who "walk the talk" was

thought to be through an agent who had physically been involved in leadership-related activities in the company, such as the independent consultant mentioned here.

It should be acknowledged that this type of selection method may have certain limitations. The fact that all of the respondents belong to the same community who acknowledge the value of facilitative leadership and claim to be pursuing such a style of leadership in their organisation, is likely to have an influence on the results of the study. The idea of facilitative leadership as we come across it in management literature, is usually predominantly associated with techniques and models which focus on people. For this reason, one might expect that all of the respondents in the sample will lean towards a people-oriented view of facilitative leadership.

5.2 Respondents

The individuals chosen as respondents come from a set of diverse organisations across different industries. Apart from their commitment to facilitative leadership, the respondents share the fact that they can all be considered thought leaders in their respective organisations. This classification implies that the individuals in question are influential in the sense that their colleagues perceive their ideas to be creative and resourceful. This ties in to the fact that they all hold quite senior positions within their respected organisations.

Respondent 1 is a change manager at one of South Africa's leading short-term insurance companies, operating in insurance as well as investment activities. In addition, she also acts as an independent psychology consultant for various large South African companies. The company has been in business for nearly a century, holds a healthy share of the local market and has also been successful in extending its operations to many other Southern African countries. The organisation's philosophy is built around the idea of doing insurance "good and proper", avoiding uncertainty and always giving clients peace of mind.

Respondent 2 works as a senior business psychologist at a state-owned electricity supplier, which provides 95% of the countries and 45% of the continent's power. The organisation's vision is centred around the purpose of being a sustainable source of electricity for South Africa, thereby supporting the local economy and adding to South Africans' quality of life. For the past year the company has mainly been focused on adding new capacity whilst maintaining current facilities as well as attaining operational excellence.

Respondent 3 is the marketing director at a large South African clothing and household retail chain. The organisation is a holding company of a retail group which focuses on the value market. This retail chain has been around for almost a decade and has been successful in establishing itself as a popular household name, always having had a strong family-based image. The chain has not only been successful in expanding its business throughout the whole of the country, but has also established itself in other Southern African countries.

Respondent 4 is an independent leadership consultant, with extensive experience in the areas of facilitation, coaching and change management. She works with local and international clients who seek help with regards to leadership development and capacity building. Before she started practicing as an independent consultant, she filled higher level management positions in big South African organisations, where she gained valuable leadership experience. She describes her general, overarching philosophy as developing servant leadership resulting in measurable change.

Respondent 5 is an independent consultant specialising in organisational development, change management, leadership development and strategic planning. He has over 25 years experience working with many large local and international organisations within varied industries. In addition, he also coaches and develops executives.

5.3 The Interview: Approach and Findings

*5.3.1 The Structured Phase of the Interview*

The survey involved a set of structured questions. Respondents were given a list of ten knowledge management tools or initiatives commonly employed in organisations. They were instructed to score each tool between 1 and 100, keeping in mind the importance or significance of each tool in comparison to the other. The survey did not call for a ranking of initiatives, only individual scoring. Half of the initiatives were people-centred, including discussion groups and mentoring and coaching, whilst the other half was technology-based, including the intranet and a central knowledge repository. The respondents were given time to complete this on their own and return it to the researcher once completed. The idea behind the survey was to determine whether the respondents subscribed to a knowledge management strategy which was more people or more technology oriented.

The goal of this part of the interview was to reveal which knowledge management tools respondents consider most important in comparison to others, signalling whether the individual is more systems or human oriented, which, in turn, sheds light on what the respondent thinks ought to be facilitated (access to content or processes). The results of the surveys are illustrated here in table and graph form.

|	Respondent 1	Respondent 2	Respondent 3	Respondent 4	Respondent 5
Training & Education	100	100	100	90	60
Networks	60	80	80	80	80
Organisational Design	60	60	60	80	40
Discussion Groups	80	60	60	90	80
Mentoring & Coaching	60	100	80	90	60
Groupware	80	60	40	60	60
Knowledge Repository	80	80	80	60	40
Intranet	80	100	60	80	60
Data Warehousing & Mining	60	80	80	80	40
DSS	60	80	60	90	40

Table 6

Table 6 lists the scores out of 100 assigned to each knowledge management tool or technique, the first 5 initiatives representing a human-oriented approach, the second 5 falling under a systems approach to knowledge management. To get a better idea of how the ratings of the two groups compare to each other, the results is also illustrated in the form of a graph.
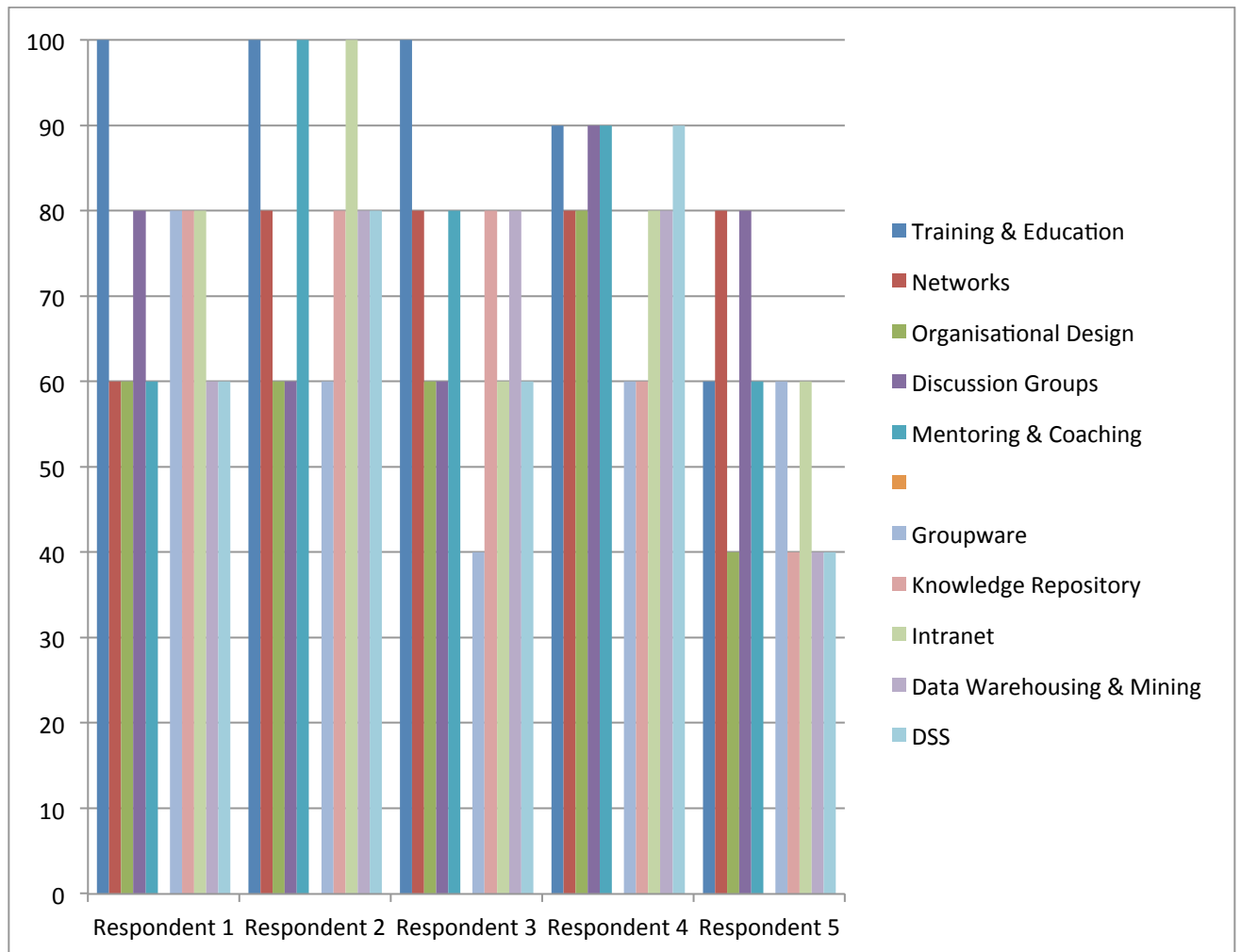
Graph 1

Glancing at the results of the 2 categories put together, it seems that the scores are very close. A graph representing the cumulative scores of the tools within each category also shows that scores are marginally close to each other. The first 2 respondents cumulatively weighed the techniques from the different groups the same, whilst the last 3 respondents favoured techniques from the human category over those from the systems group with no more than 25%.
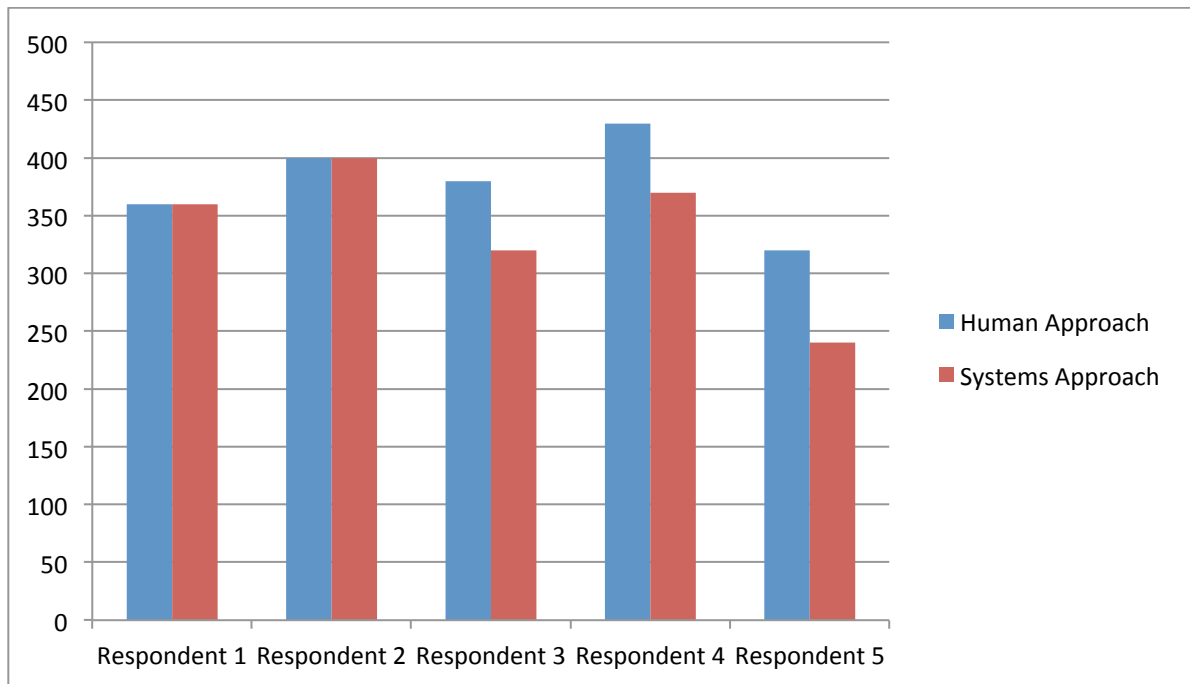
Graph 2

Judging on these results, organisational knowledge is viewed more pluralistically and pragmatically than most literature assumes. Individuals value and employ system-based tools almost or just as much as human-centred techniques, suggesting the fact that knowledge is targeted "within" individuals *and* processes. The respondents' focus of knowledge management is not only on building and managing stocks of knowledge (for instance through knowledge repositories or intranets), but also on facilitating knowledge flows and processes which create, distribute and share knowledge. For the purpose of proving the hypotheses of this thesis, it would then seem that the results of the survey is inconclusive and does not really shed adequate light on which direction respondents are leaning towards when it comes to the 2 epistemologies discussed earlier. An in-depth analysis of the interviews will be employed to clarify this issue.

5.3.2 The Unstructured Phase of the Interview

The second part of the interviews were semi-structured, open and quite informal, the idea being to get the respondent to share as much of their ideas and experiences as possible. The respondents were asked a range of questions, aimed at shedding light on his/her view of

facilitative leadership and understanding of organisational knowledge. There was enquiry into how the specific view of facilitative leadership came about, what the focus of facilitation ought to be, what companies are practically doing to employ it and what some of the challenges are.

The goal of the interview was to discover which view of knowledge (epistemology of possession or epistemology of practice) was dominant and what the implications of this is for the conception of facilitative leadership. The reactions of respondents during interviews were predominantly people-oriented, falling under the epistemology of possession category. However, this might be explained by the fact that the type of company or individual deeming a facilitative style of leadership as important and actively trying to enforce it, will expectedly be "people-persons / companies", which will, naturally, be more focused on people than on systems or technology. In management literature, the idea of facilitative leadership is usually associated with notions such as servanthood, compassion and commitment, all of which centring relationships and people. The extent to which the respondents leaned towards people-focused knowledge management did, however, differ. Based on their reactions, respondents were arranged along a continuum between purely technology-oriented and purely people-oriented, represented in Figure 3.
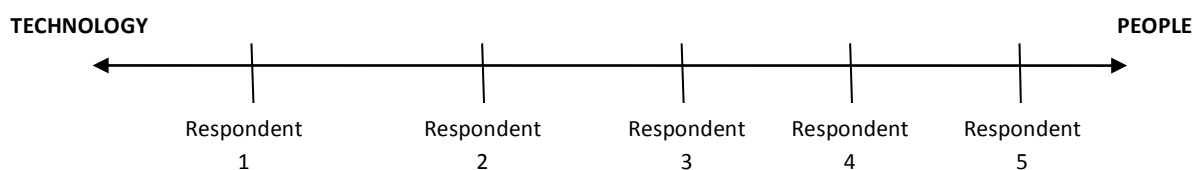
TECHNOLOGY   **PEOPLE**

| Respondent 1 | Respondent 2 | Respondent 3 | Respondent 4 | Respondent 5 |

Figure 3

Respondent 1

Although the respondent is very interested and in favour of the idea of facilitative leadership, she is very disillusioned by what she sees in her own and other large companies in terms of what is being done in the field of leadership. The respondent stated that the elements of facilitation that one would want to see within organisations, is unfortunately not "getting the traction that it needs to". She describes a facilitative style of leadership as one in which a leader takes on the role of supporter above all else. Such a leader employs his/her expertise and experience to guide, not enforce, the development of individuals below them, thereby enabling business processes and outcomes.

The respondent asserted that most organisations talk a lot about facilitative leadership and its possible positive outcomes but very few actually enforce these principles, with autocratic systems and structures still in place. However, she believes that a facilitative style of leadership could truly make a difference in how employees experience their worker environments, thereby boosting worker performance. The respondent claimed that an important aspect of this leadership style is creating opportunities for individual autonomy, as well as making the business vision as tangible as possible, so that everyone can play a role in realising it. She therefore believes that making all employees feel a part of the vision and the way in which the organisation is run is a very important part of facilitating worker performance.

It can be concluded that the respondent views a people orientation as integral to a facilitative style of leadership. The language used by the respondent, including terms such as "autonomy" and "inclusivity" serves as verification of this argument. In the survey the respondent scores technological and human-oriented knowledge management techniques equally. However, during the interview she talked more extensively about initiatives which are of a social nature, such as training together with mentoring and discussion groups. Also, the respondent was of the opinion that the goal of facilitative leadership is to guide certain "processes" which enable positive outcomes. It can thus be said that the respondent holds more of a practice view of knowledge. Although the given company has initiatives or

programs reflecting a people orientation, training and education being the most significant, the respondent seems to be disappointed in how much is really being done.

There are a few facts that might explain why this particular company devotes more resources to the technical side of business. The majority of employees come from a financial background. In fact, the company almost exclusively requests graduates in the fields of B Commerce, Risks Management and Actuarial Science and the many individuals filling executive positions hold Charted Accountant qualifications. Of course the nature of this organisation's operations requires these types of technical skills and qualifications, but this is also likely to have an effect on what the values, vision and priorities of the company looks like.

Through the organisations' values and vision, which constitutes organisational culture, it becomes clear that their focus is primarily on efficiency as well as providing shareholders with maximum returns. Organisational culture has been identified as having an influence on the knowledge management strategy of an organisation and studies have shown that a bureaucratic culture is more likely to tend toward an approach focused on the creation, sharing and distribution of knowledge, in contrast to a more community-based approach (Leidner, Alavi, Kayworth, 2006: 21). The company appears to have quite a technocratic organisational culture and this will definitely affect the overall knowledge management strategy as well as the role leadership is seen to play in this. In a company where getting the numbers right is a top priority, technology is likely to be deemed a very important asset. Even though respondent 1 herself associates knowledge more with practice and processes and believes that the most effective tool in any knowledge management strategy is training and education, she indicated that her organisation generally has a more objective view of knowledge and knowledge management initiatives are predominantly focused on capturing, codifying and storing knowledge. For these reasons, respondent A is placed closest to the technological side of the continuum.

Respondent 2

Having a psychology background, one would expect this respondent to be more people-oriented and on the surface this seems to be the case. For this respondent facilitative leadership is very much about inclusivity. She claimed that a facilitative leader is always aware of the fact that the value of inputs and contributions from all team members always weighs heavier than instructions and directions coming solely from the leader. For this reason, facilitative leadership focuses on "leading and inviting suggestions and constructive feedback from the floor". According to respondent 2, collaboration, trust and understanding are the keys to being a facilitative leader.

The rating of the knowledge management tools match up with a more people-oriented opinion of facilitation. During the interview training and development was one of the topics most mentioned, with specific reference to the value of initiatives such as Business Driven Action Learning and Experiential Leadership Development programmes. The top rated knowledge management initiative in the survey is training and education, together with mentoring and coaching, which is referred to by the respondent as the company's "main interventions" aimed at enhancing the performance of leaders and lower level employees. The respondent also claims that living the company's vision and joining in lots of open and transparent communication is very important in this regard. These initiatives are all based on dialogue, personal interaction and shared practices, reflecting an inclination towards the epistemology of practice.

However, the respondent also admits that technology is at the core of what this company does and that has certain implications for how the business is run. In the survey, the intranet was placed on the same level of importance than the training, education and mentoring. The company has also labelled itself as the leading technology and engineering company for graduates to join and "innovation" is one of the organisations' leading values.

Over the past couple of years the company has become ever more focused on technology, pursuing a growing series of new technology in the quest to close the gap between demand growth and supply of electricity. This is related to the constant pressure for performance faced by the company, owing to its history with major power shortages and load shedding. These challenges have been attributed to various causes, including skills shortages and mismanagement.

The respondent also claimed that an important part of the knowledge management strategy is to "separate" the skills and expertise from the individual "holding" it and make it accessible and functional for other employees. The respondent therefore thinks it is possible that knowledge can exist independent of the knower. This strongly depicts an objectivist view of knowledge which is linked to the epistemology of possession. Organisational knowledge is also described as the sum of individual skills, abilities and competencies, which depicts more of a "knowledge as possession"- view.

As a result of underperformance in the past, the company has not only had to deal with the dissatisfaction of South Africans because of inconvenience, but they have also had to take responsibility the major negative effect on the country's economy. For these reasons, it seems that efficiency trumps most other concerns at this stage. The company's values include "customer satisfaction", "excellence" and "innovation" and it is safe to say that at this stage they are primarily focused on getting the required results, which might take away from the focus on leadership policies and programmes. To conclude, respondent 3 seems very pro-human-centred facilitation and the given company exhibits many signs of the practice view of knowledge, including priorities such as trust creation, training and mentoring and high levels of open communication. The respondent also described knowledge both in terms of existing within the minds of employees as well as in practice. However, the company's operations are inextricably linked to technology and the respondent also spoke highly of technology based knowledge management tools. For these reasons, respondent A is placed slightly more towards the technology side of the continuum.

Respondent 3

Respondent 3 describes facilitative leadership as a style of people management which focuses on enabling, empowering and cultivating the members of a team in such a way that they themselves will develop the capacity to lead in their respective capacities. The respondent's description of facilitative leadership exhibits a very strong emphasis on the idea of self-leadership, something we also come across quite often in literature on the topic of facilitative leadership. The ultimate goal is described as facilitating the development of individuals with the ability to lead themselves in a dynamic manner. The respondent affirmed that only when this is done can an organisation's leadership strategy really be sustainable. She stated that socialisation and personal interaction is very important in this regard. The respondent confirmed this fact by referring to her own situation, stating that it was through mentoring and experience that she herself developed this view of facilitative leadership.

Through glancing over the company's values and mission and the answers given in the interview one therefore picks up on a strong people element. The respondent acknowledges that performance is very important and this organisation is no exception. However, she also claimed that management believes performance to be directly determined by "openness, trust, recognition and fun" and therefore these characteristics should be developed foremostly. It was stated that facilitative leadership has an important role to play in materialising and cultivating these values. Through these priorities one picks up on quite a strong socio-cultural organisational philosophy.

All of these facts point toward a human-oriented knowledge management strategy. The interview included lots of talk about joint practices, such as training programmes and coaching and mentoring, which reflects a practice view of knowledge. There is a very strong emphasis on the dominant role of company values, which can be interpreted as an attempt at creating a mutual context for joint practices. One of these values, and a key ingredient of facilitative leadership according to the respondent, is trust. Trust is an element usually associated with human-centred approaches. These approaches usually call for a mutual sense of confidence in order for ideas and experiences to be exchanged in a free and relaxed way.

The organisation also explicitly calls for a style of leadership which is dynamic. If the style of leadership is to match the character of knowledge, one can deduce that knowledge is seen to be context dependent and dynamic. The importance placed on free & transparent communication can also be interpreted as a way in which practices can be shared in the sense that dialogue is used as a tool through which knowledge can be translated between different contexts or groups. This is also the case with training, mentoring & coaching, which is seen to have a significant role to play in knowledge management. The respondent also mentioned that an important role (and challenge) for leaders is to create common, clear understandings and definitions of core aspects within the business. This signifies an acknowledgement of the subjective and context-dependant nature of knowledge and the different frames of reference and experiences shaping the "knowledge interpretation" of every individual.

In spite of all these clear indications of the epistemology of practice, the respondent describes knowledge to be contained in practices as well as the minds of employees. She also stated that technology plays an important role in the organisation's knowledge management strategy. Data warehousing, together with a central knowledge repository was ranked as top knowledge management tools, carrying the same weight as networks and mentoring and coaching. According to the respondent, the company has designed specific technology-based programmes which are focused on permeating from higher to lower organisational levels, centred on an approach of "ownership via facilitation".

This systems perspective may be explained by looking at management aspects of this particular organisation. The chairman of the retail group in question is also the executive director of another South-African retail giant and one of the country's most well-known business men. Within the majority of his business ventures he has been very successful and has also been presented with many awards, including one for his leadership performance. For this individual, performance is what it is all about and he is said to have a strong, no-nonsense approach to making this happen, holding a reputation in the industry for being quite rigid and strong-minded about attaining his business goals. One might justify this type of approach by considering the nature of the industry in which he operates. Bearing in mind that

the South-African retail industry is highly competitive and cut-throat, such a dominant emphasis on performance above everything else could be seen as necessary in order to survive. Where such overwhelming emphasis is placed on efficiency and performance, technology is usually seen as a very important tool in optimising business processes. This would suggest a strategy which is more technology-focused than it is human-oriented. However, although the particular organisation is exposed to this technology-orientation, it is still only one of the many holding companies of its holding group, and has been able to form its own, independent identity, of which a strong human-orientation forms an integral part. Also, the respondent conceptualises knowledge as a stock as well as existing within practice. For these reasons, respondent 2 is placed more towards the human-focused side of the continuum.

Respondent 4

Respondent 4 describes a facilitative leader as someone who is able to unlock potential of employees, thereby acting as a catalyst for the optimisation of knowledge, resulting in unique and sustained competitive advantage. According to her, a facilitative leader is humble, serving, compassionate, self-reflective and always critical to the policies, processes, structures and business model of the organisation. She developed this view of facilitative leadership through personal life-experiences and reflection.

Since this respondent works as an independent consultant specialising in coaching and change management, one would expect her to be primarily people-oriented when it comes to leadership. Her language use, which included terms such as "servanthood", "culture management", "coaching" and "compassion" confirmed this premise. According to the respondent, the manner in which her personal view of facilitative leadership was developed played a major role in how she perceives it today and might explain her firm tendency towards human-centred approaches. A strong emphasis is placed on the value of personal interaction and subsequent experience. Through school life and early working years the respondent realised that leaders who interacted with her in a certain manner were successful in unlocking her potential and helping her perform above her own expectations, this in

contrast to other leaders who interacted with her in a way that made her rebel against rules and underperform. She picked up on some of the qualities all individuals in the former group share and realised that they all shape a leader which serves, "for the greater of the good", in the process facilitating and catalysing performance of others. This explanation of how her personal view of facilitative leadership came about implies a major role for personal interaction in the effective management of knowledge and subsequent organisational performance.

The respondent also stated that managing culture is an important aspect of unlocking potential and a skill which every successful facilitative leader possesses. This may suggest an acknowledgement of the fact that culture shapes the way in which organisational policies and processes are interpreted, a characteristic which is more often associated with a practice orientation to knowledge. Elements of organisational culture, such as values, rules and procedures, which can create a mutual frame of reference, are often considered important tools in translating knowledge across different groups. Tools such as mentoring and story-telling (which were also rated very high by the respondent) can play a key role in this regard. The respondent also stated that the biggest threat to making facilitative leadership work for an organisation is an organisational culture opposed to change.

According to the respondent, she is very much aware of how the social world shapes actions in the workplace. Therefore, she declared that a facilitative style of leadership also needs to focus on building social environments or communities of practice which are meant to aid in the sharing of tacit knowledge. Informal social gatherings, where ideas, experiences and insights can be shared is described as an invaluable part of a knowledge management strategy and the respondent rated well-facilitated discussion groups as one of the top knowledge management tools.

All of the arguments above point towards a strong people-oriented leadership and knowledge management strategy. The respondent was also asked what the most influential and powerful initiatives aimed at fostering a facilitative style of leadership were. Her response were almost all human-centred techniques, including coaching, independent consulting, talent

management, psychometrics and leadership development programmes. The respondent describes knowledge predominantly in terms of practice, emphasising its personal and context dependent nature. However, this does not mean that she excludes technology as an important instrument when it comes to knowledge management. She claims that technology *does* have a significant role to play and for this reason tools such as Decision Support Systems, data warehousing and mining and the intranet were given high ratings in the survey. The respondent claims that although technology based tools have the potential to deliver great success when it comes to the management and optimisation of knowledge, at the end of the day "it is still *people* using these tools", interpreting and shaping their results in different ways. For these reasons, respondent 4 is placed much more to the human side of the continuum.

Respondent 5

Once again, off the bat this respondent seemed to be all about people-focused facilitation, but keeping the nature of his work in mind, this is not too big of a surprise. According to this respondent, facilitative leadership is a reflection of how the dominant ideas around leadership have changed. He states that leaders are no longer supposed to fill a command and control function but rather lead in a way that makes employees "feel valued", feel like their opinions count and they are listened to and that they are contributing or adding value in some way. For this consultant "engaging" is the key when it comes to facilitating. He claims that facilitative leadership is all about engaging people and in the process unlocking potential and building capacity. This should be done by "asking smart questions" and subsequently leading individuals to come up with solutions to organisational issues, without telling them what to do. The respondent therefore sees a central role for personal interaction and/or dialogue. This is also reflected through the fact that, in the first part of the interview, discussion groups was (together with networks) the top rated knowledge management initiatives. This is a big indicator of a practice perspective to knowledge management, where dialogue is considered focal to sharing expertise and experience between different groups.

According to this respondent, a good leader is always aware of the fact that he/she is only as good or strong as the weakest member of their team. For this reason, they will make it a priority to empower and nurture employees. An important aspect of this is to "turn the organisation upside down", therefore getting rid of any hierarchical elements. He describes the leader's job as serving and helping the people who report to them, not the other way around. In the respondent's description of facilitative leadership one therefore gets a strong sense of servant leadership. Although the respondent didn't score organisational design very high in the survey, this perspective does highlight an important role for organisational design in facilitative leadership. A focus on organisational architecture is usually associated with practice based knowledge perspectives, where the design of an organisation is seen as an important contributor of inhibitor for translating and sharing of knowledge between different groups.

The respondent claims that the focus of facilitation should be ability/capacity of people to effectively do their work. In addition, a facilitative style of leadership helps grow and nurture knowledge "in whatever way it shows up in an organisation". The respondent acknowledges the existence of many tools or techniques which supports and catalyses this process of facilitation but predominantly emphasises the value of people-focused approaches such as formal and informal gatherings and discussion groups. This is also apparent in scores assigned in the survey, where human-centred initiatives were mainly assigned higher values than those of technology based tools. The respondent admitted that for him, "it's not about technology at all". He claims that technology, no matter how effective it may be, does not guarantee anything. According to him it's ultimately about "the behaviour of people", specifically the way in which leaders interact ("face-to-face") with their direct reports. Therefore, efforts focused on these individuals and their conduct hold the key to improving overall organisational efficiency.

Also relating to the process view of knowledge is the respondent's description of facilitative leadership issues and challenges. He states that the main obstacle to such a style of leadership is a poor and lazy attitude towards truly engaging or being engaged and an important contributor to this problem is the way in which people have been "culturally conditioned" in an authoritative environment. He says the problem lies with managers considering engaging

(via smart questions) as too time-consuming or too much effort. The biggest obstacle to facilitative leadership is therefore also a human one, which means that this is the area where effort needs to be focused.

In speaking about knowledge, the respondent does not exclusively talk about knowledge as existing within organisational practices. He uses knowledge as an all-encompassing term for various things. However, most of these can be interpreted in terms of practice, including "organisational savvyness", "procedures and policies" and in "the unwritten rules". According to him, organisations can grow their knowledge through various initiatives, including redesigning processes, improving procedures and developing staff. These are all primarily practice focused. He states that knowledge is basically contained within everything in the organisation and one should not try to narrow it down. Nevertheless, the respondent's discussion of organisational knowledge and its origin mainly fall under the category of an epistemology of practice and his view of facilitative leadership and knowledge management are entirely people-focused, with an explicit demotion of technological tools. For these reasons, respondent 5 is placed closest to the human side of the continuum.

5.3.3 General Discussion of Findings

Table 7 summarises the reactions of the respondents according to the knowledge view held, indications of a technology-oriented knowledge management strategy and indications of a human-oriented knowledge management strategy.

	View / Definition of Knowledge	Indications of Technology-Oriented KM Strategy	Indications of Human-Oriented KM Strategy
Respondent 1	No clear definition; mostly talks about knowledge in terms of practices and processes	KM strategy quite focused on improving documentation and preservation of knowledge, as well as capturing, codifying and storing knowledge. Technocratic organisational culture. **TOOLS**: Groupware, Knowledge Repository and Intranet	Purely on the side of the respondent, not the organisation. Creating opportunities for individual autonomy is key to facilitative leadership. **TOOLS**: Training and Education, Discussion Groups
Respondent 2	Knowledge is a stock as well as a process. Organisational knowledge is the sum of all individual skills and expertise. Knowledge is separable from people.	Technology is at the heart of the organisation's operations and is also considered a valuable asset in boosting efficiency. **TOOLS**: Intranet	Dialogue and personal interaction is considered very important. Trust is an important element of the culture. **TOOLS**: Training and Education, Mentoring and Coaching.
Respondent 3	Knowledge is a stock as well as a process. Knowledge is subjective.	The company employs technology-based leadership programmes. Possible technocratic culture seeping down from higher level management. **TOOLS**: Knowledge Repository, Data Warehousing and Mining.	Empowerment, self-leadership, socialisation and personal interaction are seen as important elements of facilitative leadership. Socio-cultural philosophy, with a strong emphasis on company values and trust. **TOOLS**: Mentoring & Coaching, Training & Education.
Respondent 4	Knowledge is located within practice. It is personal and context dependent.	Technology does have potential with regards to improving KM. **TOOLS**: DSS, Data Warehousing and Mining, Intranet.	Personal interaction and experience is a core aspect of facilitation. The social aspect of work and the management of culture is also of key importance. **TOOLS**: Mentoring & Coaching, Story-telling and discussion groups.
Respondent 5	Knowledge is everywhere in the organisation. It is located in the heads of people as well as in practice. However, examples given tend toward the latter.	It's not about technology at all.	Engaging people is what facilitative leadership is all about. This involves personal interaction, dialogue and getting organisational design right. **TOOLS**: Networks & Discussion Groups.

Table 7

Bringing respondents' interview results together in this way highlights a few trends. Firstly, based on the semi-structured segment of the interview, it seems that almost all of the respondents lean towards a people-oriented knowledge management strategy. Socialisation, dialogue and other people-practices are topics that come up often in the majority of discussions. Even though there is an obvious and explicit inclination towards knowledge management strategies which are people-focused, reactions related to knowledge definitions and knowledge management tools and techniques aren't as clear-cut. It seems most (four out of five) respondents do not strictly fall under one side of the continuum, but rather mix and match tools and initiatives from both people and technological strategies. Also, respondents who claim to be in favour of people-focused facilitation defined knowledge in terms of both content and processes and scored many technological knowledge management tools just as high, if not higher, than people-focused initiatives. This leads us to the last trend: a correlation between knowledge views and the type of knowledge management strategy subscribed to. We see that individuals who talk about knowledge in terms of structure and content employ technology-based tools, individuals who define knowledge in terms of process go for people-focused initiatives and those who's reactions depicts a knowledge view which includes both structure and process lean towards mixed strategies, the majority of respondents falling in this last category. These trends will be assessed and validated in the following, concluding, chapter of this thesis.

6. CONCLUSION

The goal of this chapter is to review the trends reflected in the interviews, provide explanations for these tendencies and, in the light of these, tweak the argument regarding the relationship between knowledge views and the understanding of facilitative leadership.

The fact that four out of five respondents exhibited a people-oriented knowledge management strategy can be explained by the fact that the kind of "people-persons" interviewed here, will be more likely to be people-oriented. The respondents can be placed under this category because they all form part of a certain community, the defining characteristic being the promotion of a facilitative style of leadership. Proponents of facilitative leadership (as it is described in the literature) are expected to be partial towards initiatives that are focused on the individual employee, such as empowerment, open and free dialogue and empathy. For this reason, all the respondents in this survey were expected to lean towards people-focused leadership because they themselves acknowledge the value of facilitative leadership and claim to be pursuing such a style of leadership in their organisation.

However, the interviews showed that no respondent was purely technology-oriented or purely people-oriented and that most admitted to combining tools and initiatives from the two perspectives. This might be accounted for by the fact that, at the coalface, people do not have the luxury of being rigid and meticulous about what they consider knowledge and their view thereof cannot afford to be fully integrated. In contrast to a purely theoretical world, in practice people rarely have the option of either being strictly functionalist (and thinking of knowledge as a stock) or purely interpretavist (and considering knowledge solely as a process). With such a heavy emphasis on knowledge as the most valuable organisational asset

and using knowledge management to increase overall organisational efficiency and profitability, there is a lot of pressure to do as much as you can in this regard. Consequently, most organisations focus on launching one knowledge management program and initiative after the other (whether it be people or systems oriented), all in the hope of "getting the most out of knowledge resources" and keeping up with other players in the industry. The focus is often very much on the quantity of knowledge management efforts and programmes, without much reflection on the origin and nature of those knowledge resources.

Generally, it seems that managers are not interested (or simply don't have the time) to put technical labels on what is supposed to be different types of knowledge. The results of the surveys would suggest that people tend to think broader, or more plural, in this regard, almost using the word "knowledge" as an umbrella term for all they consider to be valuable and worthy of management, whether it be routines, best practices, expertise or experience. Stock and processes then fall under the same label.

The latter part of the interviews demonstrated that each respondent is people-oriented to a different extent and according to this they were placed on a continuum from technology to people focused. It was also illustrated that each respondent had unique circumstances, of which particular constraints form part, which might have hauled them more towards the technology side of the continuum than they possibly would have wanted to be. This is especially the case for the respondents in management positions in companies, more so than the independent consultants. This might be explained by the fact that these individuals only form part of much larger companies and are subject to broader company-wide initiatives or trends, as well as higher levels of management command and strategy.

The manner in which unique contextual circumstances and constraints can influence the extent to which knowledge understandings shape views of facilitative leadership, should also be recognised. This brings us back to the point made earlier concerning the ability and freedom of managers to view knowledge in a specific way. Respondent 1, 2 and 3 are individuals in management positions in companies which operate in high pressure and competitive environments. It is therefore likely that they cannot afford to be rigid about what

they consider to be knowledge and thus hold broader views of organisational knowledge as well as ways in which to manage it. Respondents 4 and 5 operate as individual consultants in the fields of leadership development and coaching. They work for themselves and the nature of their work is to exclusively work with and develop people. For these reasons, they have more freedom to perceive knowledge in a specific way and base their work on that understanding. The fact that these 2 respondents spend their days coaching and developing people also explains their strong preference towards people-oriented knowledge management.

This also relates to respondents' understanding of organisational knowledge. The interviews illustrated that the majority of respondents held a combined understating of knowledge, viewing knowledge as existing both within the heads of employees, as well as in practice. However, once again most respondents leaned towards the practice perspective, coinciding with the knowledge management focus. Respondents viewing knowledge more as a process than as a stock (respondents 3, 4 and 5) therefore exhibited a knowledge management strategy which was more focused on people and creating joint practices, whilst respondents viewing knowledge more as a possession emphasised the value of technology-based knowledge management tools. However, the interviews and surveys showed that almost no respondents understood knowledge purely as a stock or purely as contained within practice, although the consultants (respondent 4 and 5) came closest.

A broad stroke conclusion is thus that peoples' understanding of organisational knowledge *does* shape their view of facilitative leadership but maybe not to the extent that one would expect it to. The effect of practical management issues has an important role to play here. Although all of the respondents talk more about people-driven facilitation and all that it encompasses, it seems that in reality they utilise technology based tools and techniques more than one would expect. People focused facilitation seems to be something all of these individuals aspire to, but also something which is actually more talked and strategized about than practically used and employed. The reason for this might be that technological tools are usually faster and easier to incorporate into the operations of an organisation. Once you get people to accept and use these tools in an efficient manner, they can start making a difference. On the other hand, when working with initiatives from the practice perspective which view knowledge to be socially constructed and practices to be invested with

knowledge, one needs to acknowledge that practice may be difficult and time-consuming to alter. According to respondent 5, this is the biggest reason why some managers scrum away from techniques which are based on personal interaction and "engaging". Although the results of effective people focused facilitation might be considered to be of higher value, technology focused facilitation is an easier tool for management intervention. Technology might not be a quick fix for getting more out of knowledge resources but it is usually a quicker fix than people centred perspectives.

One can thus conclude that most (if not all) individuals will be inclined to go for a combination of technology as well as people-oriented tools when it comes to knowledge management. Also, employing a knowledge management strategy which is more towards the extremes of the continuum, is likely to have certain consequences. Companies such as those of respondent 1 and 2, who tend to focus more on the value of technology run the risk of losing out on the advantages of people-oriented initiatives. For instance, the short term insurance company with their technocratic culture and heavy emphasis on efficiency are foregoing the potential advantages of personal development and leadership programmes which motivate and equip employees, thereby improving worker performance and overall efficiency. In addition, actors such as respondent 5, who believes in a purely people-driven knowledge management strategy, is likely to lose out on the benefits new technologies have to offer when it comes to engaging people and the sharing of knowledge.

To conclude, people may be much more nuanced in their understandings of knowledge than the literature gives them credit for. With reference to the argument made in the previous chapter, the results may still be interpreted as showing a link between knowledge-views and conceptions of facilitative leadership. Interviews did suggest that practitioners viewing knowledge more in terms of practice tend to be primarily people-focused when it comes to knowledge management and facilitation. Also, most (4 out of 5) of the respondents' strategies actually reflected a predominantly people-focused orientation. Therefore, the link between knowledge views and conceptions of facilitation was confirmed. However, one can conclude that this linked was not as strong as was initially expected, as each practitioner faces certain unique constraints and contextual issues which limits the extent to which the individual may want to be purely human-oriented. This may be explained by the fact that in reality most

practitioners cannot actually afford to be rigorous and meticulous about exactly how they define organisational knowledge.

7. BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abrams, L.C., Cross, R., Lesser, E. & Levin, D.Z. 2003. Nurturing interpersonal trust in knowledge-sharing networks. *Academy of Management Executive*, 17(4): 64-77.

Allen, K.E., Stelzner, S.P. & Wielkiewicz, R.M. 1999. The Ecology of Leadership: Adapting to the Challenges of a Changing World. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 5(2):62-82

Alvesson, M. & Sveningsson, S. 2003. Good Visions , Bad Micro-management and Ugly Ambiguity : Contradictions of (Non-) Leadership in a Knowledge-Intensive Organization. *Organization Studies*, 24(6): 961-988.

Barkema, H.G., Baum, J.A.C. & Mannix, E.A.C. 2002. Management challenges in a new time. *Academy of Management Journal,* 45: 916-930.

Bass, B.M., 1999. Two Decades of Research and Development in Transformational Leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1): 9-32.

Bennis, W. 2000. Leadership of Change. In M. Beer & N. Nohria (Eds.), *Breaking the code of change.* Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Blackler, F. 1995. Knowledge, Knowledge Work and Organisations: An Overview and Interpretation. *Organisation Studies,* 16(6): 1021-1046.

Bloom, P.J. 2004. Leadership as a way of thinking. *Zero To Three (November 2004)*: 21-26.

Bolden, R. 2004. *What is Leadership? Leadership South West Research Report.* Exeter: South West of England Regional Development Agency.

Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A. & Dennison, P. 2003. *A review of leadership theory and competency frameworks.* Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter.

Brinkley, I. 2006. *Defining the Knowledge Economy*. London: Work Foundation.

Brown, J.S. & Adler, R.P. 2008. Minds on fire: Open education, the long tail, and Learning 2.0. *EDUCAUSE Review,* 43(1): 16-32.

Callanan, G. 2004. What would Machiavelli think? An overview of the leadership challenges in team-based structures. *Team Performance Management*, 10(3/4): 77-83.

Carneiro, A., 2000. How does knowledge management influence innovation and competitiveness? *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 4(2): 87-98.

Chen, C.J. & Huang, J.W. 2009. Strategic human resource practices and innovation performance — The mediating role of knowledge management capacity. *Journal of Business Research*, 62(1): 104-114.

Clegg, S.R., Courpasson, D. & Phillips, N. 2006. *Power and Organisations*. London: Sage.

Cook, S.D.N. & Brown, J.S. 1999. Bridging Epistemologies: The Generative Dance Between Organisational Knowledge and Organisational Knowing. *Organisation Science*, 10(4): 381-400.

Crevani, L., Lindgren, M. & Packendorff, J. 2010. Leadership, not leaders: On the study of leadership as practices and interactions. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 26(1): 77-86.

Dess, G.G. & Picken, J.C. 2000. Changing roles: Leadership in the 21st century. *Organisational Dynamics,* 28(3): 18-34.

De Tienne, K.B., Dyer, G., Hoopes, C. & Harris, S. 2004. Toward a model of effective knowledge management and directions for future research: culture, leadership and CKOs. *Journal of Leadership and Organisational Studies*, 10(4): 26-43.

Drath, W. 2001. *The Deep Blue Sea: Rethinking the Sources of Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Inc.

Drath, W.H., McCauley, C., Palus, C.J., Van Velsor, E., O'Connor, P.M.G., McGuire, J.B. 2008. Direction, alignment, commitment : Toward a more integrative ontology of leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 19: 635-653.

Drucker, P. 1994. The Age of Social Transformation. *The Atlantic Monthly*, 274(5): 53-80.

Drucker, P. 1999. Knowledge Worker Productivity: The Biggest Management Challenge. *California Management Review*, 41(2):79-94.

Earl, M. 2001. Knowledge Management Strategies: Toward a Taxonomy. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1): 215-233.

Gold, A.H., Malhotra, A. & Segars, A.H. 2001. Knowledge management : An organizational capabilities perspective. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1): 185-214.

Grint, K. 2005. *Leadership: Limits and Possibilities*. Basingstoke: Palgrave-Macmillon.

Grover, V. & Davenport, T.H. 2001. General Perspectives on Knowledge Management: Fostering a Research Agenda. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18(1): 5-21.

Hansen, M.T., Nohria, N. & Tierney, T. 1999. What's your strategy for managing knowledge? *Harvard Business Review*, 77(2): 106-118.

Hensey, M. 1999. The Why and How of Facilitative Leadership. *Journal of Management in Engineering*, 15(3): 43-46.

Hislop, D. 2003. Linking human resource management and knowledge management via commitment. *Employee Relations*, 25(2): 182-202.

Holsapple, C.W. & Joshi, K.D. 2002. Knowledge Management: A Threefold Framework. *The Information Society*, 18(1): 47-64.

Inkpen, A.C. & Tsang, E.W.K. 2005. Social Capital, Networks, and Knowledge Transfer. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(1): 146-165.

Jago, A. 1982. Leadership: Perspectives in theory and research. *Management Science*, 28(3): 315-336.

Jarrar,Y.F., Zairi, M. & Schiuma, G. 2010. Defining Organisational Knowledge : A Best Practice Perspective /Research Paper RP-ECBPM/0024. *European Centre for Best Practice Management.*

Johns, H.E. & Moser, H.R. 1989. From trait to transformation: the evolution of leadership theories. *Education*, 10(1): 115-118.

Kellogg, W.A. & Erickson, T.,2001. The knowledge management puzzle : Human and social factors in knowledge management. *IBM Systems Journal*, 40(4): 863-884.

Kelloway, EK. & Barling, J. 2000. *Knowledge Work as Organisational Behaviour*. Framework Paper 00-03, Queen's Management Research Centre for Knowledge-Based Enterprises.

Lakomski, G. 2004. *Managing Without Leadership: Towards A Theory of Organizational Functioning* Oxford: Elsevier.

Lee, H. & Choi, B. 2003. Knowledge Management Enablers, Processes and Organisational Performance: An Integrative View and Empirical Examination. *Journal of Management Information Systems,* 20(1): 179-228.

Leidner, D, Alavi, M. & Kayworth, T. 2006. *An empirical examination of the influence of organisational culture on knowledge management initiatives*. Working Paper, Baylor University, Waco, TX.

Leithwood, K.A. & Poplin, M.S. 1992. The Move Toward Transformational Leadership. *Educational Leadership,* 49(5): 9-12.

Maccoby, M. 2000. Narcissistic Leaders: The Incredible Pros, the Inevitable Cons. *Harvard Business Review,* January-Feabruary: 68-78.

Maier, R. & Remus, U. 2003. Implementing process-oriented knowledge management strategies. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 7(4): 62-74.

McAdam, R. & McCreedy, S.2000. A Critique of Knowledge Management: Using a Social Constructionist Model. *New Technology, Work and Employment,* 15(2): 155-168.

McDermott, R. 1999. Why Information Technology Inspired but cannot deliver Knowledge Management. *California Management Review,* 41(4): 103-117.

Meyerhoff, M. 2008. Communities of Practice, in *The Handbook of Language Variation and Change*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Moore, S.C. & Hutchison, S.A. 2007. Developing leaders at every level: accountability and empowerment actualized through shared governance. *The Journal of Nursing Administration*, 37(12): 564-8.

Newell, S., Robertson, M., Scarborough, H. and Swan, J. 2009. *Managing Knowledge Work and Innovation*. Basingstroke: Palgrave Macmillon.

Nonaka, I.1994. A Dynamic Theory of Organisational Knowledge Creation. *Organisational Science,* 5(1): 14-37.

Northouse, P. *2004. Leadership: Theory and Practice. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.*

Orlikowski, W. 2007. Sociomaterial practices: exploring technology at work. *Organization Studies, 28(9): 1435-1448.*

Pearce, C.L. & Manz, C.C. 2005. The new silver bullets of leadership: the importance of self- and shared leadership in knowledge work. *Organisational Dynamics,* 34(2): 130-140.

Polanyi, M. 1976. Tacit Knowledge. In M. Marx & f. Goodson (Eds.), *Theories in contemporary psychology:* 330-344. New York: Macmillan.

Prusak, L. 2001. Where did knowledge management come from? *IBM Systems Journal*, 40(4): 1002-1007.

Rees, F. 1998. *The facilitator excellence handbook: helping people work creatively and productively together.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ribière, V.M. & Sitar, A.S. 2003. Critical role of leadership in nurturing a knowledge-supporting culture. *Knowledge Management Research & Practice*, 1(1): 39-48.

Rough, J. 1997. Dynamic Facilitation and the Magic of Self-Organizing Change. *Journal for Quality and Participation,* 20(3): 34-38.

Ruggles, R. 1998. The State of the Notion: Knowledge Management in Practice. *California Management Review,* 40(1): 80-89.

Rushmer, R, Kelly D., Lough M., Wilkinson, J.E. & Davies H.T.O. 2004. Introducing the Learning Practice--III. Leadership, empowerment, protected time and reflective practice as core contextual conditions. *Journal of evaluation in clinical practice*, 10(3): 399-405.

Russell, R.F., College, H. & Stone, A.G. 2002. A review of servant leadership attributes : developing a practical model. *Leadership and Organisation*, 23(3):145-157.

Schultze, U. & Stabell, C. 2004. Knowing What You Don ' t Know ? Discourses and Contradictions in Knowledge Management Research. *Journal of Management Studies*, 41(4): 549-573.

Schulz, M. & Jobe, L.A., 1998. Codification and Tacitness as Knowledge Management Strategies: An Empirical Strategies. Organization Science, 14(4): 440-4519.

Schwartz, R. 1996. Becoming a Facilitative Leader. *R&D Innovator,* 5(8).

Sinha, T.N. & Sinha, J.B.P. 1977. Styles of Leadership and their effects on group productivity. *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations,* 13(2): 209-223.

Smircich, L & Morgan, G. 1982. Leadership: The Management of Meaning. *Journal of Applied Behavioural Studies,* 18: 257-273.

Spender, J.C. 1996. Organisation knowledge, learning and memory: three concepts in search of a theory. *Journal of Organizational Change Management,* 9(1): 63-78.

Srivastava, A., Bartol, K.M. & Locke, E. A. 2006. Empowering Leadership in Management Teams: Effects on Knowledge Sharing, Efficacy, and Performance. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(6): 1239-1251.

Starbuck, W.H. 1992. Learning by Knowledge-Intensive Firms. *Journal of Management Studies,* 29(6): 713-740.

Stenmark, D. 2001. Leveraging Tacit Organisational Knowledge. *Journal of Managemnet Information Systems,* 17(3): 9-24.

Stebbins, M.W. & Shani, A.B. 1995. Organisational Design & The Knowledge Worker. *Leadership & Organisational Development Journal,* 16(1): 23-30.

Stenmark, D. 2000. Leveraging Tacit Organisational Knowledge. *Journal of Management Information Systems,* 17(3): 9-24.

Sveiby, K.E. & Lloyd, T. 1987. *Managing Knowhow.* London: Bloomsbury.

Sveiby, K.E. & Simons, R. 2002. Collaborative Climate and the Effectiveness of Knowledge Work – an Empirical Study. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 6(5): 422-430.

Swart, J. & Kinnie, N. 2003. Sharing knowledge in knowledge-intensive firms. *Human Resource Management Journal,* 13(2): 60-75.

Tagliaventi, M.R. & Mattarellli, E. 2006. The role of networks of practice, value sharing, and operational proximity in knowledge flows between professional groups. *Human Relations*, 59(3): 291-319.

Tsoukas, H. 1994. Refining Common Sense: Types of Knowledge Management Studies. *Journal of Management Studies,* 31(6): 761-780.

Tsoukas, H. & Vladimirou, E. 2001. What is organisational knowledge? *Journal of Management Studies,* 38(7): 973-993.

Uhl-Bien, M. 2006. Relational leadership theory: Exploring the social processes of leadership and organizing. *Leadership Quarterly*, 17: 654-676.

Uhl-Bien, M., R. Marion, & B. McKelvey. 2007. Shifting Leadership from the Industrial Age to the Knowledge Era. *Leadership Quarterly*, 18: 298–318.

Ukko, J., Tenhunen, J. & Rantenen, H. 2007. Performance measurement impacts on management and leadership: Perspectives of management and employees. *International Journal of Production Economics,* 110: 39-51.

Van Den Eede, G., Kenis, D. & Van De Walle, B. 2004. Combining Flexibility and Reliability for Mainstream organisational Learning. *Proceddings of the 5th European Conference on Knowledge Management,* 851-860.

Van der Velden, M. 2002. Knowledge Facts, Knowledge Fiction: Notes on the role of ICT in Knowledge Management for Development. *Journal of International Development,* 14(1): 25-37.

Wick, C., 2000. Knowledge Management and Leadership Opportunities for Technical Communicators. *Technical Communication*, (July): 515-529.

Wiig, K.M. 1997. Knowledge management: Where did it come from and where will it go? *Expert Systems With Applications,* 13(1): 15-27.

Winston B.E., Patterson K. 2006. An Integrative Definition of Leadership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(2): 6–66.

Wood, M. 2005. The fallacy of misplaced leadership. *Journal of Management Studies,* 42(6): 1101-1121.

Wyatt, J.C. 2001. Management of explicit and tacit knowledge. *Journal of the Royal Society for Medicine*, 94: 1-4.

Yang, J. 2007. Knowledge Sharing: Investigating Appropriate Leadership roles and Collaborative Culture. *Tourism Management,* 28: 530-543.

Yeh, Y., Lai, S. & Ho, C. 2006. Knowledge management enablers: a case study. *Industrial Management & Data Systems,* 106(6): 793-810.

Yukl, G.A. 1989. Managerial Leadership: A review of theory and research. *Yearly Review of Management,* 15: 251-289.

Zaleznik, A.1992. Managers and Leaders: Are They Different? *Harvard Business Review*, March-April: 126-135.