KNOWLEDGE-SHARING PRACTICES OF LEGAL PROFESSIONALS AT THE GAUTENG JUSTICE CENTRES OF THE LEGAL AID BOARD

by

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Dedicated to Prem and Vish

DECLARATION

I, Santha Raju declare that

(i) The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the research was to investigate the knowledge-sharing practices of legal professionals at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the Legal Aid Board (LAB). The rationale for the study was based on the premise that since the LAB is a knowledge-intensive organization, it is well suited to the implementation of knowledge management. Any successful knowledge management implementation plan, is founded upon the knowledge-sharing culture of the organization, hence the motivation for the research.

Self-administered questionnaires were used to survey the views of the legal professionals regarding their knowledge-sharing practices. Three hundred and twenty-five (325) questionnaires were distributed, of which 143 were returned. The data received was presented in the form of tables and figures. Percentages and content analysis was used to analyze the data collected.

The findings from the survey revealed that while knowledge-sharing and knowledge management took place at the LAB, it was not guided by a strategy of the organization. The findings also revealed that the knowledge-sharing and knowledge management which did take place did so on an ad hoc basis and was woven into the daily activities of the respondents.

The researcher drew conclusions based on the analysis of the data and in the context of related literature and proposed a way forward for the implementation of knowledge management and knowledge-sharing practices at the LAB. The researcher recommended that the LAB employ a knowledge officer, who should be responsible for driving the knowledge management process. Furthermore, the researcher recommended that knowledge sharing should be compulsory and be rewarded.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER TWO: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

CHAPTER THREE: KNOWLEDGE SHARING (WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT) AND LEGAL ORGANIZATIONS

CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

List of Tables

List of Figures

APPENDIX

ABBREVIATIONS

CA	Candidate attorney
GWU	George Washington University
IT	Information technology
LAB	Legal Aid Board
VOIP	Voice-Over-Internet-Protocol

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Knowledge management, sparked by the increase in available knowledge, is a discipline and practice designed to 'give the right knowledge to the right person at the right time'. The availability of information, precipitated by access to information technology, has meant that the rate of learning has increased rapidly, implying that people know more in a shorter time, making them mobile and affecting their work tenure. As a consequence, organizations are losing trained and experienced staff rapidly. Therefore, knowledge management, apart from using knowledge efficiently, has the capacity to retain knowledge acquired at the expense of the organization. One way of managing an organization's knowledge is through diffusing it into the organization. Thus, sharing knowledge allows for greater learning in the organization – sponsoring the transformation of the organization into a learning one.

In the age of increased availability of knowledge, there is a demand for people to know more. The rapid pace at which knowledge becomes available makes it difficult for individuals to acquire knowledge on their own, thus knowledge-sharing assists in group and team learning. Knowledge-sharing allows individuals to know more – more quickly.

This study investigated knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the Legal Aid Board (LAB). In addition, the study is set against the theoretical concept of the George Washington University (GWU) model of knowledge management.

1.2 Definition of terms

In this study the definition or clarification of terms will be given in the chapter in which these terms are introduced or receive greatest emphasis. In the context of this study, the following terms have been identified as core concepts, which will be explained at the beginning of the study:

- **Knowledge**

  Knowledge is information in context through experience (Ponelis and Fairer-Wessels 1998: 2).

- **Knowledge-sharing**

  Knowledge-sharing involves the distribution of knowledge through information systems or face-to-face interaction (Seng, Zannes and Pace 2002).

- **Knowledge management**

  Knowledge management is concerned with the exploitation and development of knowledge assets of an organization with a view to furthering the organization's objectives (Davenport in Rowley 1999).

- **Legal aid**

  Legal aid is the gratuitous provision of legal assistance to persons who cannot afford to employ the services of legal practitioners (McQuoid-Mason 1982).

1.3 Background to the study

The study investigated the knowledge-sharing practices in the content of knowledge management of the professional workers at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. The literature (Jones, Cline and Ryan 2006; Albino, Garavelli and Gorgoglione 2004) suggests that the true success of any knowledge management strategy is measured by the degree of its culture to share. The concept of knowledge management as an organizational asset to enable sustainable competitive advantage has increasingly come into focus over the past decade (World Bank 1999; Lettieri, Borga and Savoldelli 2004). Sustainable competitive advantage is the prolonged benefit of implementing a unique value-creating strategy that is not simultaneously being implemented by any current or potential competitors because of their inability to duplicate the benefits of this strategy, or owing to the difficulty and cost associated with imitation (van Zyl 2006). Competitive advantage is increasingly found in knowing how to do things, rather than in having special access to resources and markets. Knowledge and intellectual capital have become both the primary bases of core competencies and the key to superior performance (Lubit 2001).

Companies in the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia and Canada are part of the international stakeholders interested in knowledge management (Kay 2002). In 2001, Statistics Canada conducted a survey on the implementation of knowledge management by Canadian businesses. By law the organizations (or businesses) were compelled to participate in the research (Survey of knowledge management practices 2002). The magazine, *Knowledge Management Asia*, discusses the theory and practice of knowledge management in Asian countries. Supporting partners include institutes and societies from Australia, Malaysia, the Philippines, China and the Arab world (Knowledge Management Asia 2006). Although knowledge management remains active largely in the realm of business, many educational institutions seek benefit in the implementation of knowledge management. In South Africa, knowledge management has received considerable attention from institutions of higher learning. The National Research Foundation, for example, has personnel specifically allocated to the function and the organization has a specific knowledge management strategy (National Research

Foundation 2006). At the University of Stellenbosch, knowledge management is part of the curriculum of the masters programme of the Department of Information Science and Centre for Knowledge Dynamics and Decision-Making (University of Stellenbosch 2006). The University of Johannesburg has a Department of Information and Knowledge Management, which is part of the Faculty of Management (University of Johannesburg 2006). Again, while educational institutions seek the benefits of knowledge management it falls, in the main, within the domain of business (Lemieux and Dalkir 2006; Lettieri, Borga and Savoldelli 2004). Therefore, the research shifted focus away from business to an organization less concerned with making profit. Thus the current research investigates the LAB of South Africa (Gauteng Region).

1.3.1 South African legal profession

In the document entitled "Justice Vision 2000" (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development 1999) it was recognized that the legal profession has to be transformed in order to be able to respond to the needs of all the people of South Africa. The document sets out the framework for the transformation of the administration of justice in South Africa. The main challenges identified were the need to make the legal profession representative of the diversity of South African society and the need to make the legal profession more accessible to the public. It was also found necessary to effect rationalization and to bring the structure of the legal profession and the laws which regulate it into line with the new constitutional dispensation. It is in this context that the LAB functions.

1.3.2 Legal Aid Board

The LAB is a not-for-profit organization providing access to legal services to those who cannot afford these services. Legal aid is the gratuitous provision of legal assistance to persons who cannot afford to employ the services of legal practitioners. Legal aid includes "legal advice" and representation by attorneys and advocates before courts or tribunals in both criminal and civil

matters. The function of the Board is to determine the conditions under which persons are eligible for legal aid and to then provide legal assistance accordingly (McQuoid-Mason 1982:1).

The state legal aid scheme, established by the Legal Aid Act of 1969, had been limited in its effectiveness. In the first 15 years of its existence it made little impact because it had an extremely poor budget, applied restrictive bureaucratic procedures and was regarded with suspicion by the majority of the population, which identified it with the apartheid government of the day. In the late 1980s the budget of the scheme was increased and the LAB became more proactive about the delivery of legal aid services (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development 1999).

Constitutionally, the State is obliged to provide a legal practitioner to represent accused persons in every case in which substantial injustice would otherwise result. For the first thirty years of its existence, the LAB met its mandate through the judicare system. In terms of this system, the Board instructed private practitioners to provide legal service and paid their fees according to a tariff (Sarkin 2002). However, the introduction of democracy and the commitment to equal access to justice led to a dramatic increase in demand for legal aid – an increase the judicare system could not cope with. The Board was unable to process claims, and that, in turn, led to a breach in the relationship between it and the private practitioners; resulting in it being sued for payment by the practitioners (van As 2005).

In 1998, a National Legal Aid Forum was convened and it was agreed that judicare had to be replaced with a justice centre model (van As 2005). The justice centre approach uses salaried lawyers whose entire focus is on service to the poor (Sarkin 2002). The centres provide a range of services, including defence in criminal trials and representation in civil matters. The LAB claims that justice centres will extend access to legal aid to far more people than was previously the case (Legal Aid Board 2006).

1.4 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework of this study is based on the GWU model of knowledge management. The model, consisting of four pillars, was developed by Michael Stankosky and Associates of the George Washington Institute (Calabrese 2006). The four pillars are leadership, learning, organization and technology. Briefly, leadership deals with the environmental, strategic and enterprise-level decision-making processes involving values, objectives and knowledge requirements. It stresses the need for integrative management principles and techniques. Organization deals with the operational aspects of knowledge assets, including functions, processes, formal and informal organizational structures, control measures and metrics, process improvement, and business process reengineering. Learning deals with organizational behavioural aspects and social engineering. The learning pillar focuses on the principles and practices to ensure that individuals collaborate and share knowledge to the maximum. Technology deals with the various information technologies particular to supporting and enabling knowledge management strategies and operations (Stankosky 2005: 6-7). The model will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Two.

1.5 Objectives of the study and research questions

As stated earlier, the study investigated the knowledge-sharing practices in the context of knowledge management of the professional workers at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. In pursuing such a study, the objectives were to:

- Examine the extent of knowledge management at the LAB;
- Investigate the extent to which the leadership of the LAB encourages and supports knowledge-sharing;
- Investigate the extent to which knowledge-sharing occurs at the LAB;

- Investigate whether the working environment of the LAB actively facilitates knowledge-sharing;
- Investigate whether there are incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing.

The following research questions and sub-questions guided the above objectives:

- **To what extent is there evidence of knowledge management at the LAB?**

    - Have personnel members been dedicated to knowledge management?
    - Is the concept of knowledge management understood at the LAB?

- **To what extent does the leadership (at national, regional and justice centre levels) actively encourage and support knowledge-sharing at the LAB?**

- **To what extent does knowledge-sharing occur at the LAB?**

    - The actual experiences of sharing knowledge;
    - Reasons for sharing.

- **Does the working environment at the LAB actively facilitate knowledge-sharing?**

    Specifically, relating to the following:

    - The communication that occurs;
    - The training and mentoring practices;

- Whether technology at the LAB acts as an enabler for knowledge-sharing.

- **Are there incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing?**

1.6 Justification for the study

Drucker (1994) argues that it is no longer raw material that is the main factor in production, but knowledge and information. Experts in the worlds of business and academia regard Peter Drucker as the founding father of the study of management (The business world according to Peter F. Drucker 2007). The catalyst to this change is technological innovation that has led to the information explosion and globalization. This new means of production has resulted in changing methods of work and a new type of worker. Whereas manufacturing enterprises in the past valued machines and capital equipment most, the new knowledge enterprise – "what workers know" – has become the most indispensable asset. Rakitov (2006) supports this view when he asserts that technology embraces knowledge, activities and institutions.

The ability of businesses to manage their knowledge resources effectively and efficiently has become essential to maintaining profitability and a competitive edge (Perez and de Pablos 2003; Sun and Scott 2005). One of the biggest challenges facing knowledge managers is the ability to transfer and share information effectively within an organization. At a non-profit level, the implementation of knowledge management has made successful strides - the British National Health Service is an example of this success. The Public Health Electronic Network is a collaborative 'gateway' website that aims to facilitate sharing of resources between networks, while also supporting the needs of public health professionals to find public health expertise, relevant literature and current projects, both locally and nationally (Laycock 2005).

In the legal sphere, law firms represent an industry that seems very well suited to knowledge management investigation and implementation. Law firms are knowledge-intensive (Gottschalk 1999). This means that the volume of information and knowledge available to legal workers is enormous. Individual knowledge workers cannot cope with complete acquisition of all this information and knowledge and therefore they need to co-operate with one another in order to do so. Thus to keep abreast and to remain relevant, sharing knowledge and information is vital. In addition, the expansion of law firms and practices require law professionals to become more proficient in matters outside the legal parameters. Increasingly, legal personnel are propelled into management roles (Drummond and Chell 1993). Mentoring, a method of promoting knowledge-sharing, is an additional role into which lawyers are pushed. Judges and people occupying senior roles are in an ideal position to mentor others because of their experience. However, "it is often said that judges, in particular, become remote from the real world and that there are quite a few senior partners who don't seem to inhabit the same planet as the rest of us" (Clutterbuck 2005). In Kenya, advocates admit that they have insufficient time for training owing to staff mobility (Otike and Matthews 2000). Thus, distance (emotionally and socially) and time contributes to the constraints on mentoring and training.

Technology contributed to a change in the way lawyers work. Lawyers, in the past, whether in the public or private sector, did not face the time pressures produced through the introduction of instantaneous communication tools, such as electronic mail, faxes and wireless technology. In addition, it is not unusual for lawyers to spend less than three years in a law firm. The result is that lawyers need to be trained in a significantly shorter time frame than before in order to become more profitable for the firm, because they cost so much, and because they may generate a profit for only a short period. Professional development programmes are therefore critical (Rusanow 2003). Apart from producing a new type of worker, technology has also yielded a new type of client, whose demands and expectations are greater. Lawyers need to find a way to cope with this demand; sharing is part of the solution. Given the rapid increase in information and knowledge it does not make sense to reinvent the wheel. Duplication is wasteful both in terms of time and cost. Furthermore, competition within the legal industry makes it urgent for

lawyers to streamline their work processes in order to become more competitive (Rusanow 2003). This makes sharing a vital imperative in law firms and organizations.

Over and above the preceding discussion, knowledge management and knowledge-sharing hold potential benefits for the LAB, namely:

- Sharing cuts down on duplication and reduces the cost of both time and human power;
- Sharing can release human power to engage with other activities deemed more beneficial to the purpose of the organization;
- Sharing motivates learning and can develop competence further;
- Knowledge and information are readily at hand and can be reused repeatedly;
- Sharing can allow the organization to be more efficient and productive.
- Making collaborative efforts boosts morale as well as team and organizational spirit (Mohamed, Stankosky and Murray 2004; Burk 1999).

Finally, the LAB's Business Plan (Legal Aid Board 2004) included a component of knowledge management which attests to the organization's interest in knowledge management. The context of knowledge management relates closely to that of the researcher, as she is employed as a knowledge worker. Therefore, it is being a knowledge worker and understanding the value of knowledge, both in the for-profit and not-for-profit sectors, that has inspired this research.

1.7 Original contribution of the study

The unique defining characteristic of a good quality thesis is that it makes an original contribution to knowledge in a particular field of academic enquiry. However, the concept of

originality can be operationalized in a number of different ways, such as originality in the use of tools, techniques and procedures, originality in exploring the unknown, originality in exploring the unanticipated, originality in the use of data, originality in outcomes and originality in by-products (Burton 2000: 429).

A thorough review of the relevant literature revealed 'gaps' in the body of knowledge between knowledge management and legal aid. The researcher designed, carried out and reported on a research project to address these gaps in the body of knowledge, thus making an original contribution to the library and information discipline.

This research is the first known empirical attempt, in South Africa, to investigate knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management and legal aid organizations. This was a critical attempt at investigating the feasibility of implementing knowledge management at the LAB. Knowledge-sharing is a crucial element of knowledge management. In exploring the feasibility of this, the researcher proposed recommendations for the implementation of knowledge management at the LAB.

1.8 Research design

According to Leedy (1993: 125) it is important that the researcher has "some idea of the manner in which the data will be secured and how they will be interpreted so that the principal problem under research will be resolved". In order to respond to the research questions, the researcher surveyed the relevant literature and engaged in empirical research.

1.8.1 Research methodology

This study surveyed and analysed the literature relating to knowledge management, knowledge-sharing and legal aid. The empirical component entailed surveying employees at the Justice Centres (in Gauteng) of the LAB in order to investigate knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management at the LAB (Gauteng).

1.8.1.1 Review of the literature

The researcher conducted a review of the literature. Issues of knowledge management, knowledge-sharing and legal aid were discussed in the chapters reviewing the literature.

1.8.1.2 Empirical research survey

The researcher developed a questionnaire to determine knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB.

1.9 Limitations of the study

Very little has been written on the relationship between knowledge management, knowledge-sharing and legal aid. Where there was information, it was not scholarly. This dearth of literature caused the researcher to review the literature relating to knowledge-sharing, knowledge management and legal organizations. These legal organizations were legal firms where, apart

from delivering a legal service, the goal of the firms is also to make a profit. The LAB is a government organization and the issue of profit does not feature as a goal of the organization.

1.10 Outline of the study

In Chapter Two, the researcher presents a discussion on knowledge management. The discipline of knowledge management was sponsored by the rise in information technology; hence the rise in information technology is discussed. The discussion includes knowledge, knowledge workers and strategic implementation of knowledge management. The theoretical basis of the research, namely the GWU model of knowledge management, is also considered in Chapter Two.

Chapter Three focuses on the examination of knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management. In addition, this chapter links knowledge-sharing, in the context of knowledge management, to its relevance to legal organizations. As there is a dearth of information on the direct relationship between knowledge management (and knowledge-sharing) and legal aid organizations, the researcher locates the discussion in legal organizations. The overall discussion is grounded upon the GWU model of knowledge management.

The research methodology and data-collection technique of the research are mapped out in Chapter Four. The research used a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. This is reflected in the data-collection technique, namely the questionnaire, which employed both open-ended and closed questions.

Chapter Five presents the findings. These findings are shown in the form of tables and diagrams.

Chapter Six discusses the findings, in relation to the literature. Instead of discussing the findings item by item, the researcher discussed it in terms of themes, namely knowledge-sharing and knowledge management.

Chapter Seven concludes the thesis and provides recommendations. The recommendations include suggestions to the LAB and for further study.

1.11 Summary

Chapter One provided an introduction to the study. In order to synchronize the understanding of frequently used terms between the reader and the researcher, a definition for each was provided. Before discussing the research objectives and the research questions, the researcher provided a background to the study. The research objectives and the research questions were guided by the research topic, which was, "An investigation into knowledge-sharing practices in the context of knowledge management of the legal professionals of the Gauteng Justice Centres of the Legal Aid Board". The study was justified on the basis that since the LAB was a knowledge-intensive organization, it was ideally suitable for the implementation of knowledge management. The researcher surveyed the views of the respondents by using a questionnaire.

2 CHAPTER TWO: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

2.1 Introduction

This research focuses on the LAB of South Africa, with the investigation attempting to understand the knowledge-sharing practices in the context of knowledge management at the Gauteng Justice Centres. The LAB provides legal assistance to people who cannot afford to employ the services of legal practitioners (Legal Aid Board 2007). This chapter examines knowledge management. Chapter Three will examine knowledge-sharing and the legal environment (in the context of knowledge management). The knowledge management model that guided this research was the GWU model. The variables used in this model are leadership, learning, organization and technology. The discussion in each chapter will be guided by these variables.

This chapter begins with the theory that knowledge management emerged as a consequence of the rise in information technology. This rise produced a proliferation of knowledge. Knowledge had to be managed in order for it to be used efficiently. However, before discussing knowledge management per se, this chapter will probe the concept of knowledge. The chapter continues by inquiring into the need for knowledge management. Once the need for knowledge management is established, its implementation has to be guided by a strategy; and the chapter consequently focuses on knowledge management and the need for strategy. The agents that convert theory into practice are the knowledge workers – hence knowledge workers are discussed. Finally, before concluding, this chapter explores some of the benefits of knowledge management.

As noted above, the focus of this investigation was to explore knowledge management and knowledge-sharing at the LAB. The theory that the primary catalyst which gave rise to the

scientific discipline of knowledge management is the advancement of information technology has been confirmed (Gottschalk 2000). The advancement of information technology has produced an abundance of information which has subsequently altered the way work is done. Greater access to information has meant that it has become easier to learn and innovate in work processes (Fenwick and Hall 2006). The change and innovation in work processes has led to a new dynamic in the economy, even changing the status of the economy from an industrialized economy to a knowledge economy. Apart from leading to new work processes, greater access to information has also led to more work opportunities and has produced a new type of worker (Drucker 2002). The new worker has to work smarter and more quickly and be flexible and adaptable. Once this worker has mastered these techniques, he or she is in a position to move to other work opportunities. This mobility, while good for the worker, often denudes the organization of competence and competent workers. In recognizing that the mobility of workers affected the company's bottom-line, employers had to find a solution to prevent competence and knowledge, leaving the organization in large quantities - hence knowledge management. It is the view of the researcher that knowledge management is a management tool created, among other reasons, to meet the challenge of exiting knowledge while still maintaining a competitive advantage. However, not all knowledge management activities have been shown to influence the company's performance positively or to result in a competitive advantage (Greiner, Böhmann and Krcmar, 2007). This will be discussed later in the section on the implementation of knowledge management

As mentioned above, knowledge management and the consequent need for knowledge-sharing have been precipitated by the advancement of information technology. Manual Castells (1989, 2000) attributes the rise of information technology to the exponential increase in the power and distribution of computer technology. This advancement in information technology has also affected the way work is produced and led to a new dynamic in the economy.

2.2 The rise of information technology

Over a period of 20 years, a series of scientific and technological innovations have converged to constitute a new technology paradigm. Computers, supported by exponential increases in power and dramatic decreases in cost, were able to revolutionize information processing, in both hardware and software. Telecommunications became the key vector for the diffusion and full utilization of the new technologies by enabling connections between processing units, to form information systems (Castells 1989). The technological innovation had an impact upon both the economic and institutional aspects of society. The new information technologies are transforming the way people produce, consume, manage, live and die; not by themselves, but as powerful mediators of the broader set of factors that determines human behaviour and social organization (Pires, Stanton and Rita 2006). This, in part, contributed to the development of globalization.

Globalization encompasses a growing interconnection between peoples, nations, cultures, governments, environments, economies and indeterminate global networks that are ultimately bound by the sphere shape of the earth (Brown 2008). The global economy grew at 5.4 percent in 2006 to $66 trillion, which indicates the interconnectivity of globalization. Although globalization is not a new development, its pace has increased with the advent of new technologies, especially in the area of telecommunications. Collectively, these technologies and their interactions are producing a knowledge-based economy that is systematically changing the way in which people conduct their economic and social lives. Often, globalization is seen as the cause of these changes (Thurow 2004), where knowledge has become the baseline of wealth (Bagshaw 2000). Bender and Fish (2000) confirm this view in saying that the emergence of a knowledge era as an integral part of the global economy, is leading to dramatic changes in the business environment. Leading from this, it is often argued that legal organizations need to manage and disseminate their aggregated knowledge quickly and effectively so that it can grow and meet their purposes more effectively. Consequently, knowledge has become an important

commodity, especially to service workers such as lawyers and doctors (Devitt and Murphy 2004).

2.3 Knowledge

An understanding of knowledge is important in any discussion leading to an inquiry into knowledge management. One needs to understand what knowledge is and the various forms it assumes. This section of the research addresses these questions. Further, a parallel is drawn between the western notion of knowledge and that of the Japanese. The Japanese notion is inclined to tacit knowledge where it reveals a synthesis between the experiences of the body, mind, humanity and nature. This idea of knowledge takes both the tacit and the explicit into account to produce a holistic picture of knowledge (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995). The western notion of knowledge relates to explicit knowledge. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) refer to western knowledge as rational and empirical knowledge.

2.3.1 What is knowledge?

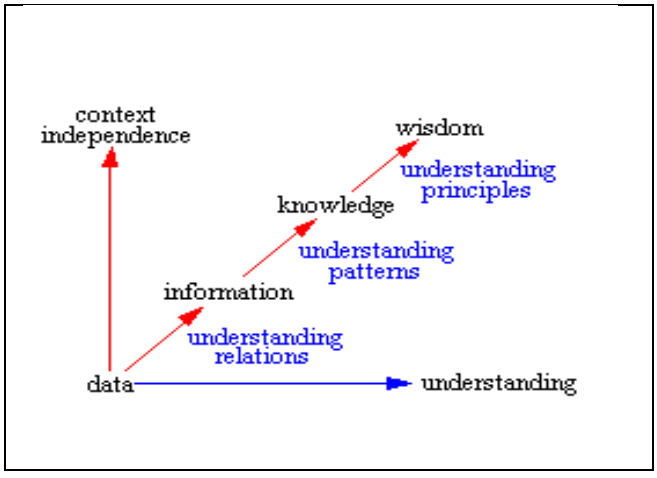
There are various perspectives to the understanding of knowledge. Philosophers have deliberated over the concept for centuries – from the time of Plato and Aristotle to the present day. However, since this research is based on the LAB – a social institution – the researcher believes it is relevant to view knowledge (in part) from a sociological perspective. Further, it is a way of illustrating that there are other perspectives to knowledge – that which is different from an information and knowledge specialization perspective. The sociology of knowledge proposes that knowledge:

- *Is socially determined* – Karl Marx and Frederick Engels, both German sociologists, argue that thinking and consciousness are social products. That is, all human thought and consciousness develop out of real life and the actual conditions that particular individuals share.
- *Constitutes a social order* – this asserts that knowledge is not merely the outcome of a social order but also relates to sensory experiences (McCarthy 1996: 23).

From a sociological perspective, knowledge is a set of ideas and acts accepted by one or another social group or society of people – ideas and acts pertaining to what they accept as real for them and for others (McCarthy 1996).

From the information specialization perspective, knowledge is a continuum. This continuum is illustrated in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1: The knowledge continuum



Source: Bellinger (2004)

According to Harris (in Ponelis and Fairer-Wessels 1998: 2) the continuum determines the path to reaching knowledge. A continuum is a continuous non-spatial whole or extent or succession in which no part is distinct or distinguishable from adjacent parts (Continuum 2009). In the case of the knowledge continuum, it begins with data where data are the lowest level along the continuum. Data have no intrinsic meaning, but it must be sorted, grouped, analyzed and interpreted. Data processed in this manner become information. Information has substance and a purpose. When information is combined with context and experience, it becomes knowledge. Finally, knowledge leads to wisdom. Wisdom is the understanding of which knowledge to use for what purpose.

Ponelis and Fairer-Wessels (1998: 2) settle on a definition of knowledge. Their contention is that knowledge is information in context through experience. Context is an individual's framework to viewing life. This includes influences such as social values, religion, cultural heritage and gender. Experience is previously acquired knowledge. The researcher believes that knowledge is the stepping stone to further knowledge - knowing leads to change. Handy (1989: 8) wrote:

"A frog if put in cold water will not bestir itself if that water is heated up slowly and gradually and will in the end let itself be boiled alive, too comfortable with continuity to realize that continuous change at some point becomes discontinuous and demands a change in behavior. If we want to avoid the fate of the … boiling frog we must learn to look for and embrace discontinuous change."

Bourner (1998) argues that if one fails to acknowledge this change (albeit gradual) one will be in danger of not realizing its impact on transformation. In order to engage effectively with the concept of knowledge management, one needs to engage with change. It is this very change that is transforming knowledge in a world where the management of knowledge becomes imperative.

Often, the terms information and knowledge are used interchangeably. It is the premise of this research that they are different. Information is organized, systematized data. While information is an objectification; knowledge involves subjectivization. Information can be knowledge when a human being interacts with it, appropriates it, and makes it her or his own, contextualizes living it by placing it in relation to other knowledge that is already his or her own, and internalizes it by making it a part of his or her belief system (Archarya 2002). Apart from the transformation of data to knowledge, knowledge needs to be stored (codified) and retrieved (decodified) in a manner that is user-friendly and meaningful.

Hall (2006) argues that the knowledge in knowledge management is focused on codification. He argues that the mainstream key knowledge management commentators, such as Ruggles, Davenport and Prusak, view codification as the primary vehicle by which knowledge becomes "portable", "reusable" or "transferable" within the organization. He continues by arguing that codification involves the locking of knowledge into information. Therefore, in order to unlock the coded information into knowledge that can be used it has to be decoded. Codification and decodification need to be thought of as inter-dependent processes. Usually, when codifying knowledge one needs to keep a decodifier or decodification context in mind. If one wishes someone else to be able to decodify our knowledge, then one needs to codify it in a language and using terms which the users are likely to understand. Decodification will resurrect the codified knowledge into information and will give meaning to the end-user.

While knowledge relates to context and experience, there are different forms of knowledge.

2.3.2 Forms of knowledge

In 1966, the Hungarian philosopher Michael Polanyi, in The tacit dimension (in Ponelis and Fairer-Wessels 1998), distinguished between two forms of knowledge, namely explicit and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge can be articulated in formal language and transmitted among individuals, whereas tacit knowledge is personal knowledge embedded in individual experience and involving such intangible factors as personal belief, perspective and values (Ponelis and Fairer-Wessels 1998:3). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) argue that explicit knowledge is a western form of knowledge entailing the belief that knowledge can be taught through education and training and can be expressed by the computer and transmitted electronically and stored in databases in a systematic and logical order. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) are critical of management experts Drucker and Toffler and by implication western expression of tacit knowledge. They argue that when Drucker observes that "within a few years after Taylor began to apply knowledge to work, productivity began to rise at a rate of 3.5 and 4 percent compound a year, he was actually referring to the application of quantifiable data to work" (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995: 8).

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) view tacit knowledge as an eastern concept, particularly suited to the Japanese culture. They argue tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in an individual's conduct and experience, as well as ideals, values, emotion, intuition, insights. Tacit knowledge makes use of images and symbols. It has two dimensions:

- **Technical dimension** as in the case of a craftsperson's expertise which they are unable to articulate scientifically;
- **Cognitive knowledge** which reflects people's image of reality (what is) and a vision of the future (what ought to be).

2.3.3 Western knowledge versus Japanese knowledge

The western concept of knowledge follows two strains:

- **Rationalism**: argues that true knowledge is not the product of sensory experience but some ideal mental process. There exists a priori knowledge that does not need to be justified by sensory experiences – mathematics is a classic example of this kind of reasoning.
- **Empiricism**: there is no a priori knowledge and that the only source of knowledge is sensory experience. According to this view, everything in the world has an intrinsically objective existence, even when one has an illusionary perception of the fact that something is perceived is significant (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995: 22-25).

The Japanese approach to knowledge encompasses:

- **Oneness of humanity and nature** – this is fairly explicit. However, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) argue that instilling a "sound skepticism" into the Japanese culture has been neglected.
- **Oneness of body and mind** – this involves the whole personality where knowledge means wisdom that is acquired through the entire personality. The Japanese value the personal and the physical experience over the indirect, intellectual abstraction as is the case in the west.
- **Oneness of self and other** – this is about the collective and is organic. It emphasizes the subjective knowledge and intuitive intelligence. While a typical western individual conceptualizes things from an object vantage point, a Japanese person does so by relating

herself or himself to other things or persons. Here the Japanese perspective is "tactile" and "interpersonal' (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995: 27-31).

2.3.4 How is knowledge created?

The explanation of how Japanese companies create new knowledge relates to the conversion of tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge. Having an insight or a "hunch" is highly personal and is of little value to the company unless the individual can convert it into explicit knowledge - thus allowing knowledge to be shared with others in the company. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995:11) argue that in order for knowledge to be created it needs to be expressed. They say "express the inexpressible". While the authors point out that all new knowledge starts with an individual, knowledge can be amplified or crystallized at a group level through dialogue, discussion, experience sharing and observation. The creation of new knowledge is not the prerogative of knowledge leaders; but can and should be encouraged at all levels of the organizational hierarchy.

Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995: 13-14) suggest the following strategy in the creation of knowledge, that is, the use of:

- **Metaphors** – they argue that when one uses a metaphor it helps people to visualize an idea, thus giving a better clarity and understanding of it.
- **Analogies** – offer a choice between two or more options, thus making the decision more authentic.
- **Ambiguities** – are a source of new sense of direction, but also a source of alternate meanings and a fresh way of thinking about things. In this respect new knowledge is born from chaos.

- **Redundancy** (refers to repetition) – is thought of as a waster in the west. However, it is important because it encourages frequent dialogue and communication. This helps to create a common cognitive ground among employees and thus facilitates the transfer of tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge.

According to Perez-Araos (2007), Nonaka and Takeuchi established a dynamic model of knowledge creation, with the key assumption that knowledge is created and expanded through social interaction or knowledge conversion between tacit and explicit knowledge. The authors suggest that explicit and tacit knowledge are not totally different, as they interact with and change into each other in the creative activities. They identify four modes of knowledge conversion:

1. **Tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge** (socialization) is a process of sharing experiences in a direct face-to-face approach to create tacit knowledge, often done through shared mental models, technical skills, observation, imitation, and practice.
2. **Tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge** (externalization) is a knowledge creation process where part of tacit knowledge is articulated and somehow turned into explicit form, through analogies, concepts, hypotheses, models and reports.
3. **Explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge** (combination) is a process of combining different bodies of explicit knowledge.
4. **Explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge** (internalization) is a process of embodying explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge by experiencing knowledge through the explicit source (learning-by-doing approach).

Knowledge can be shared once there is trust and an open relationship between management and workers and among workers themselves. It requires the full participation of workers in the innovation process so that they do not keep their tacit knowledge solely for their own benefit. Furthermore, the thinking of workers and management must be aligned: both should understand

what the organization stands for and its purpose. The onus is upon the management of the organization in consultation with the workers to imbue the organization with a spirit of openness, trust and dialogue. This forms the cultural basis for knowledge-sharing (Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed 2007). The topic of the research relates to knowledge management and knowledge-sharing practices at the LAB of South Africa. Knowledge-sharing will be explored in-depth in the following chapter.

Knowledge is the feature that informs knowledge management and it is to the management of knowledge that the discussion now turns.

2.4 Knowledge management

The essence of this research was to investigate the management of knowledge and the sharing thereof within the LAB – to enable the organization to become more effective and more efficient. Thomas Davenport (in Rowley 1999) argues that knowledge management involves the exploitation and development of an organization's knowledge assets with a view to furthering the organization's objectives. With specific regard to law, Rusanow (in White 2002) states that knowledge management must be closely tied to lawyers' business objectives. In most business-oriented organizations, this is a means to increase the organization's competitiveness, efficiency and effectiveness.

The following discussion will briefly consider what knowledge management is and the need for knowledge management. It will also argue that in order for knowledge management to be translated into action, it has to be informed by a strategy to guide its implementation.

2.4.1 What is knowledge management?

There are as many approaches and perspectives to knowledge management as there are people working in the field (Moerdyk and van der Westhuizen 2003; Firestone and McElroy 2005). Although the management of knowledge is as old as the existence of humankind (Lytras and Pouloudi 2003; Lundvall and Nielsen 2007), the science of knowledge management is a more recent management discipline. Wiig (2007: 141) writes that in 1945 Hayek "outlined the importance of knowledge for societal guidance and governance". Wiig (2007) continues by stating that in 1986 and 1990 Romer provided the economic understanding that knowledge is the underlying factor that fuels performance, progress and economic growth, locally, nationally and globally. Wiig (2007) credits Drucker for providing an understanding of knowledge workers and the mode of work in the modern knowledge economy.

As indicated, there is no one common definition of knowledge management. Skyrme (2003a) argues that knowledge management is the explicit and systematic management of vital knowledge and its associated processes of creation, organization, diffusion, use and exploitation. It requires turning personal knowledge into corporate knowledge that can be widely shared throughout the organization and appropriately applied. Quintas, Lefere and Jones (1997) contend that knowledge management is a process of critically managing knowledge to meet existing needs, to identify and exploit existing and acquired knowledge assets and to develop new opportunities. Uit Beijerse (2000) defines knowledge management as the achievement of the organization's goals by making knowledge central to the productive process. This is done primarily by facilitating and motivating people to tap into and develop their capacities (their core competencies) and to stimulate their attitude to intrapreneurship. [Intrapreneurship is defined by referring to emergent behavioural intentions and behaviours that are related to departures from customary ways of doing business in existing organizations (Antoncic and Hisrich 2003)]. Besides this, knowledge management includes the entirety of systems with which the information within an organization can be managed and opened up. Walczak (2005) argues that

knowledge management is not really about managing knowledge, but rather about managing and creating a corporate culture that facilitates and encourages the sharing, appropriate utilization and creation of knowledge so as to allow corporate competitive advantage.

Wiig (1997: 4) believes that knowledge management aims to understand, focus on, and manage systemic, explicit and deliberate knowledge building, renewal and application – that is, the management of effective knowledge processes. Davenport (in Rowley 1999) points out that knowledge management is concerned with the exploitation and development of these knowledge assets of an organization with a view to furthering the organization's objectives. The knowledge to be managed includes both explicit (documented) knowledge and tacit (subjective) knowledge. Management entails all of those processes associated with the identification, sharing and creation of knowledge. This requires systems for the creation and maintenance of knowledge repositories, and to cultivate and facilitate the sharing of knowledge and organizational learning. Organizations that succeed in knowledge management are likely to view knowledge as an asset and to develop organizational norms and values, which support the creation and sharing of knowledge. Firestone and McElroy (2005: 191) believe that knowledge management is the "set of processes that seeks to change the organization's present pattern of knowledge process to enhance both it and its outcomes".

The common message in all these definitions is that it is important for knowledge to be managed in order to meet companies' objectives and needs. Implied in the definitions is the high value placed on knowledge. This research adopts the view of Davenport while adding the views of Nonaka and Takeuchi. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) emphasize tacit knowledge which takes a person's complete experience into consideration. The proliferation of knowledge necessitates that knowledge be managed.

2.4.2 Why is knowledge management necessary?

Knowledge management is a relatively recent concept born out of the necessity to screen knowledge from information in a burgeoning information environment. Drucker and Senge (in Rowley 1999) place a high premium on knowledge and learning. According to Drucker knowledge rather than capital or labour is the only meaningful economic resource in the knowledge society, while Senge warns that many organizations are unable to function as knowledge-based organizations because they suffer from learning disabilities. Ann Macintosh (2002) identifies some of the specific business factors that make the management of knowledge necessary. They are:

- Marketplaces are increasingly competitive and the rate of innovation is rising.
- The mobility of staff requires lost knowledge to be replaced.
- Competitive pressures reduce the size of the workforce that holds valuable business knowledge.
- The amount of time available to gain experience and acquire knowledge has diminished.
- Early retirements and increasing mobility of the workforce has lead to loss of knowledge.
- There is a need to manage the increasing complexity of small operating companies.
- Changes in strategic direction may result in the loss of knowledge in specific areas.

Thus it is imperative that knowledge be managed efficiently.

Wiig (1997: 401) in many ways concurs with, and adds to, Macintosh's views when he argues that while knowledge transfer has always existed, it is the transfer of knowledge for business purposes that holds the thrust of knowledge management. He argues that the objectives of knowledge management are:

- To make available the best competitive knowledge as points-of-action to make the enterprise act as intelligent as possible to secure its viability and overall success;
- To realize the best value of its knowledge assets in other ways, such as sale of patents and technology.

The above discussion argues that since knowledge has become a vital economic resource, it makes competitive sense to institute the practice of knowledge management. To increase the rate of competition, it becomes vital to discriminate between relevant knowledge and irrelevant knowledge. It is the view of the researcher that implementation of knowledge management accords a company the competitive edge. This competitive edge is not limited to increasing profits. Knowledge management can benefit non-profit organizations. It is widely acknowledged in the academic milieu that all organizations, both large and small, require knowledge management in order to maximize their competitiveness and survival chances in the modern information society (Baptista Nunes 2006). Thus the implementation of knowledge management cannot be limited only to the business environment. In the case of this research, it is applied to the LAB – a public organization. Recognizing the relevance of knowledge management is only the beginning of an acceptance of the concept; however, the true test of knowledge management lies in its implementation and development of a strategy.

2.4.3 Implementing a knowledge management strategy

The true potential of knowledge management can only be realized through implementation. In order for knowledge management to be implemented, an organization needs to develop a strategy for its implementation. The “road map” of knowledge management implementation requires the conversion of organizational goals into “implementable” tactics. The strategic planning of knowledge management should begin with the definition of a set of end goals that knowledge management aims to achieve. These could be, for example:

1. Sustained preservation and leverage of knowledge to develop an intelligent organization;
2. Enhanced agility of business processes to remain responsive to market conditions; and
3. Greater market leadership (Shankar, Singh and Narain 2003: 192).

Soliman and Spooner (2000: 338) suggest the following strategy for implementation:

- Alignment of knowledge management with the business imperatives;
- Identifying the benefits of knowledge management efforts;
- Choosing the appropriate knowledge management programme. This is done by asking the following questions:

- What does the market want?
- What are the driving forces?
- How can the enterprise best answer these questions?

A study conducted by Pricewaterhouse Coopers (in Soliman and Spooner 2000: 340) suggested that in order to harness and amplify the experience and expertise of employees, companies should implement the following strategy:

- Focus only on what the business needs to know, that is, become knowledge focused.
- Make important knowledge visible, that is, become knowledge visible (for example, create and make explicit pathways to the experts and important wisdom within the company).

- Pay attention to the vocabulary of knowledge, that is, become knowledge defined (for example, customers' needs versus customer feedback).
- Go beyond the company to tap knowledge from customers, suppliers, and competitors, that is, become a knowledge seeker.
- Make it clear to employees that knowledge-sharing is a core value for the company, that is, it can promote a knowledge culture.
- Measure the results of the implementation of the knowledge management programme, that is, become a knowledge assessor.
- Reward the sharing of expertise and intelligence, that is, become knowledge exemplified.

Greiner, Böhmann and Krcmar (2007) argue that the key component which defines a knowledge management strategy is the alignment of the knowledge management strategy to the objectives and business strategies of the organization or the sub-unit of the organization. It implies the view that knowledge management is only theoretical unless it is implemented. The above discussion outlined the different expert views of the implementation of knowledge management. The view expressed in this research is that an effective and efficient strategy guides knowledge management towards successful implementation. The agents required in the implementation of knowledge management are knowledge workers.

2.5 Knowledge workers

During the clashes between capital and labour in the late 1800s, employers had fought to obtain a work environment in which knowledge was built into the technical system (Prichard 2000). Employers began to recognize the value of knowledge in the work process. However, knowledge among employees had to be limited. This meant that while employees had sufficient knowledge to conduct their work operations, employers retained a large portion of it so that they

could maintain control over the enterprise. Furthermore, the mentality of workers had to be such that the needs of workers came second to those of the company.

In 1960, Peter Drucker coined the terms "knowledge work" and "knowledge worker" as the "knowledge society" emerged in which knowledge became the basic economic resource and in which knowledge workers had to play a central role (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995: 43). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) argue that the creation of knowledge requires the full participation of all members of an enterprise. However, not all responsibilities were the same. According to the authors, the "knowledge crew" consists of:

- **Knowledge practitioners** – their basic role is the embodiment of knowledge. They accumulate, generate and update both tacit and explicit knowledge, acting almost as "walking archives" on a day-to-day basis. These workers are frontline workers who are in direct contact with the outside world and are able to obtain access to the latest information on developments in the market, technology or competition. The quality of knowledge that they accumulate and generate is determined by the quality of their direct experiences on the frontline of the day-to-day business.

- **Knowledge engineers** – they are middle managers that serve as a bridge between the visionary ideals of the top and the often-chaotic market reality of those on the frontline of business. By creating mid-level business and product concepts, they mediate between "what is" and "what should be".

  A number of qualifications must be met for middle managers to become effective knowledge engineers. They:

  - Must be equipped with top-notch capabilities of project coordination and management;

- Need to be skilled at coming up with hypotheses in order to create new concepts;
- Need to have the ability to integrate various methodologies for knowledge creation;
- Need communication skills to encourage dialogue among team members;
- Should be proficient at employing metaphors in order to help others generate and articulate imagination;
- Should engender trust among team members;
- Should have the ability to envision the future course of action based on an understanding of the past.

- **Knowledge officer** – the basic role of knowledge officers, who are top or senior managers of a company, is the management of the total organizational knowledge-creation process at the corporate level. Knowledge officers give a company's knowledge-creating activities a sense of direction by:

  - Articulating grand concepts on what the company ought to be;
  - Establishing a knowledge vision in the form of a corporate vision or policy statement;
  - Setting standards for justifying the value of knowledge created.

Another key role of knowledge officers is the establishment of a knowledge vision that defines the value system of the company. It is this value system that evaluates, justifies and determines the quality of knowledge the company creates. Knowledge officers should be aware that their aspirations and ideals determine the quality of knowledge the company creates. While the ideals of top management are important, they also need to foster a high degree of personal commitment by other members of the knowledge-creating crew. In addition, knowledge officers are also responsible for justifying the value of knowledge that is constantly being developed by the crew (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995). The concept of knowledge officer is similar to that of Skyrme's "chief knowledge officer". Skyrme (2002) points out that the chief knowledge officer is a senior

executive who is responsible for ensuring that an organization maximizes the value it achieves through one of its most important assets – knowledge.

When planning the implementation of a knowledge management programme, the organization needs to consider whether to create a leadership role to develop and drive the process, for instance, the chief knowledge officer. Many firms have devolved responsibility to an existing or new position. Some firms use a cross-functional team to develop knowledge management while in others the CEO has taken the leadership role. According to Lloyd (1999 in Soliman and Spooner 2000: 341), the characteristics and challenges of the chief knowledge officer / chief learning officer should include:

1. Interpersonal / communication skills;
2. Passionate visionary leadership;
3. Business acumen;
4. Strategic thinking skills;
5. Championship of change with the ability to withstand ambiguity and uncertainty; and
6. Collaborative skills (this is a rare skill and is the ability to pull together people from different parts of the organization to work as one team).

As stated, the chief knowledge officer drives the knowledge processes in the organization. However, he or she does not do it in isolation and therefore needs to understand what motivates knowledge workers. The purpose of the study conducted by Mahen Tampoe in 1998 (in Myers, 1996: 184) was to gain an understanding of what characteristics were important to a group of knowledge workers to determine what motivated them. It revealed that knowledge workers were motivated by:

- **Personal growth** – the opportunity for individuals to realize their potential, supporting the view that knowledge workers sought intellectual, personal and career growth;
- **Operational autonomy** – to have control of their task while observing the conditions of strategic direction and self-measuring indices;
- **Task achievement** – the achievement of producing work of a standard and quality of which individuals can be proud;
- **Money** – earning an income which is just reward for the contribution made and enables employees to share in the wealth created by them, through incentive schemes geared to their company's success and related to their personal performance.

The above motivational factors relate closely to education and reward as they are concerned with improvement. As stated earlier, Prichard (2000: 207-208) argues for a transition from knowledge workers to learning workers. The researcher interprets this transition to mean that workers do not merely receive knowledge but are active learning agents. This transition allows for the worker to become smarter, quicker and more flexible and adaptable. Inherent in becoming a learning worker is the process of education. Castells (2000) argues that in defining a new worker and her or his education, there is a difference between generic labour and self-programming labour. The critical quality in differentiating between these two kinds of labour is education, and the capacity of accessing higher levels of education: that is, embodied knowledge and information. The concept of education must be distinguished from skills. Skills can quickly be made obsolete by technical and organizational change. Education is the process by which people acquire the capability to refine the necessary skills for a given task constantly, and to access the sources for learning these skills. Generic labour is assigned a given task, with no reprogrammable capability, and it does not presuppose the embodiment of information and knowledge beyond the ability to receive and execute signs. These 'human terminals' can be replaced by machines, or by another body around the city, country or the world. Legal practitioners are in a constant process of learning and relearning, which make them ideal candidates to be learning workers.

As indicated in the introduction to the chapter, the research will be guided by the GWU model of knowledge management. The four pillars of this model will be probed in the next section of this chapter.

2.6 Fours pillars of knowledge management

While there are several models of knowledge management, for example the **Three pillars of knowledge management** (by Karl Wiig), **a Model of intellectual capital** (by Leif Edvinsson) and the **Ecology of knowledge management** (by David Snowden), this research will follow the GWU knowledge management model. Developed by Michael Stankosky and associates of the GWU Institute, the model involves:

- Leadership;
- Organization;
- Technology; and
- Learning (Calabrese 2006).

The following diagram represents the GWU model (the four pillars of knowledge management).

Figure 2: The four pillars of knowledge management

Source: Calabrese (2006)

In 1998/99 there was not a single registered doctoral dissertation in the field of knowledge management. Therefore, Stankosky and Calabrese (Calabrese 2005) wanted to create a discipline of knowledge management to accommodate this need. They became the founders of the first doctoral study programme in knowledge management in North America. Furthermore, in order to simplify the concept of knowledge management, they developed the GWU model of knowledge management. According to Calabrese (2005: 15) the model was intended to group "the 40-plus disciplines that comprised the foundational levels of supporting the four-pillar construct into easily understood and communicated domains". The four pillars as indicated above comprise leadership, learning, organization and technology. Briefly, leadership deals with the environmental, strategic and enterprise-level decision-making processes involving values, objectives and knowledge requirements. It stresses the need for integrative management principles and techniques. Organization deals with the operational aspects of knowledge assets,

including functions, processes, formal and informal organizational structures, control measures and metrics, process improvement and business process re-engineering. Learning deals with organizational behavioural aspects and social engineering. The learning pillar focuses on the principles and practices to ensure that individuals collaborate and share knowledge to the maximum. Technology deals with the various information technologies particular to supporting and enabling knowledge management strategies and operations (Stankosky 2005: 6-7).

While this research is based on the GWU model of knowledge management, it is the view of the researcher that no matter what model is employed in the implementation of knowledge management, knowledge management has many benefits.

2.7 Benefits of knowledge management

If one abides by the cliché that "knowledge is power" then the organization needs to manage this power to help it gain a competitive advantage. Knowledge and intellectual capital have become both the primary basis of core competencies and key to superior performance (Lubit, 2001: 164). If knowledge is managed effectively and is distributed more evenly in the organization, it can empower various members of the organization. If they are encouraged and motivated to use this power effectively, this can lead to the organization becoming more effective. While knowledge management cannot be reflected on the balance sheet, value is created by the generation of knowledge (Cross 2004). The knowledge management strategy must be aligned to the organization's goals and objectives (Smeltzer and Bonello 2004).

The effective deployment of knowledge management requires an investment in knowledge management systems and technologies and an organizational commitment to continuous use. Benefits include the re-use of existing knowledge elements and the avoidance of repetitive costs

to solve repeat (often perennial) problems. Sophisticated knowledge management solutions that involve partner organizations can also make an important contribution to improving customer service by providing access to in-depth knowledge elements for support staff, partner, and customers themselves. Customer satisfaction improves when problems are resolved quickly. A knowledge management repository can be interfaced with other functional domains to evolve a real repository of collective organizational wisdom. Organizations can use this to handle problems across a broad range of functions, such as new product development, advertising planning, dealership, network design, addressing complaints, packaging redesign, inventory management, logistics planning and supply chain integration (Shankar, Singh and Narain 2003).

Other benefits stemming from knowledge management include:

- It facilitates better, more informed decisions.
- It contributes to the intellectual capital of an organization.
- It encourages the free flow of ideas which leads to insight and innovation.
- It eliminates redundant processes, streamlines operations, and enhances employee retention rates.
- It improves customer service and efficiency.
- It can lead to greater productivity (OSD Comptroller iCenter 2002).

2.8 Summary

The research asks the following questions;

- To what extent is there evidence of knowledge management at the LAB?

- To what extent does the leadership of the LAB actively encourage and support knowledge-sharing?
- To what extent does knowledge-sharing occur at the LAB?
- Does the environment at the LAB actively facilitate knowledge-sharing?
- Are there incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing?

Answers to these questions will unfold as the research report progresses. However, the researcher discussed knowledge management as a way of contextualizing the research within the knowledge management paradigm.

For many organizations, the core competency for survival in the new global knowledge environment is knowledge management. Therefore, knowledge management is seen as a significant component of a business strategy that has the ability to equip an organization with opportunities to manage new market challenges. Organizations are recognizing the value of employing knowledge management strategies that focus on the importance of employee skills, and talents. The above chapter argues that the precipitator of knowledge management was the rise of information technology and the concomitant development of globalization. However, any discussion on knowledge management first requires a discussion on knowledge. Knowledge is the key to knowledge management, as is sharing which, is the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: KNOWLEDGE-SHARING (IN THE CONTEXT OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT) AND LEGAL ORGANIZATIONS

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research is to investigate knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. Consequently, this chapter will consider, in some detail, knowledge-sharing and knowledge management in the legal environment. There is a dearth of information on knowledge-sharing and knowledge management with regard to legal aid. Therefore the researcher investigated the legal environment more broadly. This chapter will view knowledge-sharing in the context of the GWU model of knowledge management. This model is founded on four pillars – namely leadership, learning, technology and organization (Calabrese 2005). Leadership refers to the role of the leading figures in the organization and their impact upon knowledge-sharing. Learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge for the purpose of uplifting the conditions of the staff and the organization. Senge (1990) argues that learning is not merely an acquisition process – in order for it to be effective it must be related to a higher goal. Technology acts as an enabler in the process of knowledge-sharing, that is, it acts as a means in the knowledge-sharing process. It is the conduit that allows the exchange of knowledge. Organization refers to the operational aspects of knowledge assets, including functions, processes, formal and informal organizational structures, control measures and metrics, process improvement and business process re-engineering (Stankosky 2005). Organization also includes the culture of the organization. This chapter emphasises the culture of the organization.

It is the view of the researcher that the leadership of an organization is important in inculcating knowledge-sharing into the organization. Knowledge-sharing goes “hand in glove” with learning, as sharing ‘sponsors’ learning, leading to further learning and innovation. Although the

jury is hung on the contribution of technology to knowledge-sharing, it is the view of the researcher that without technology, the discipline of knowledge management would not have been advanced. The setting of this research – The LAB – provides an ideal opportunity for the researcher to investigate knowledge management and knowledge-sharing. The LAB is a legal organization and legal organizations, by their nature, are knowledge-intensive ones. It is the view of the researcher that, especially knowledge-intensive organizations can benefit from knowledge-sharing, as knowledge-sharing implies learning and can promote innovation. Learning and innovation can improve the efficiency and effectiveness of the organization.

The ensuing chapter will discuss leadership, learning technology and organization in the context of knowledge-sharing, knowledge management and the legal environment.

3.2 What is knowledge-sharing?

Seng, Zannes and Pace (2002) argue that there are five steps in managing knowledge: capturing knowledge, storing knowledge, processing knowledge, sharing knowledge and using knowledge. According to them, sharing knowledge involves the distribution of knowledge through information systems or by face-to-face interaction. Knowledge-sharing can be defined as the dissemination of information and knowledge through the whole department and / or organization (Yang 2004). Knowledge-sharing is the process through which individuals mutually exchange their (implicit or explicit) knowledge and jointly create new knowledge. This process is essential in translating individual knowledge into organizational knowledge. Every knowledge- sharing process consists of bringing (or “donating”) knowledge and getting (or “collecting”) knowledge. Knowledge-sharing consists of both the supply of new knowledge and the demand for new knowledge. Thus knowledge donating refers to communicating to others what one’s personal intellectual capital is. Knowledge collecting, on the other hand, refers to consulting colleagues in order to get them to share their intellectual capital (van den Hooff and de Ridder 2004).

Knowledge-sharing is a set of behaviours that involve the exchange of information or assistance to others. It is separate from information sharing, which typically involves management making information about the organization (for example, financial statements) available to employees at every level. Whereas knowledge-sharing contains an element of reciprocity, information sharing can be unidirectional and unsolicited. According to Ardichivili (in van den Hooff and de Ridder 2004), this reciprocity will involve a dynamic relationship between donating and knowledge collecting. Although knowledge-sharing must be voluntary, it is not necessarily spontaneous and it often has to be developed consciously.

As indicated earlier, this chapter will be dedicated to the discussion of knowledge-sharing. This will be done in the context of the GWU model of knowledge management, which is founded upon four pillars: leadership, learning, technology and organization. The following section in the discussion will reflect upon the relationship between leadership and knowledge-sharing, knowledge management and the legal environment.

3.3 Leadership

Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive for group objectives (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy 2009). Leadership has the capacity to influence people to share knowledge. Many organizations have concluded that effective knowledge-sharing is a crucial avenue to lever their core competencies and gain a competitive advantage. In today's highly paced competitive environment, knowledge-sharing should become a group objective. Leadership can affect the outcome of the knowledge-sharing objective of an organization. The following section will discuss the chief characteristics of an effective leader. Thereafter the researcher will relate each characteristic to knowledge-sharing. The chief characteristics of an effective leader are (Schein 2004):

- **Visionary** – the leader must have the capacity to formulate visions and translate them into goals. The leaders must develop rich images of the future. Images are achievable and desirable;
- **Facilitate learning** – since organizations and the environment are constantly changing, leaders have to meet the challenge of 'unlearning' what is old and irrelevant, develop new mental models, acquire new knowledge and develop new skills. In as much as the leaders need to develop personally, they have to be effective facilitators of unlearning and re-learning to their followers.
- **Leaders need to empower followers** – leaders must create an empowering climate that allows maximum potential contribution.

Thus the role of the leaders is to create vision, develop others, be an example and ensure that tasks are completed. With reference to knowledge-sharing, the leaders must create the vision of knowledge-sharing, influence others to share, develop the capacity to share and create the climate to share. The leaders must demonstrate a personal habit of sharing and inspire the value, attitudes and behaviour that tasks can be completed more efficiently as a consequence of knowledge-sharing. Knowledge-sharing is efficient as it reduces redundancy and duplication. Members of the organization do not have to repeat processes and procedures that have been used before. Lessons from the past can be shared. This saves time, as people learn from one another (Zhang, Dawes, Sarkis 2005).

The following discussion concentrates on the above characteristics of leadership as suggested by Schein (2004).

3.3.1 Characteristics of leadership

Schein (2004) asserts that there are three characteristics of leadership, namely to be visionary, to facilitate learning and to empower followers. These characteristics are discussed below.

3.3.1.1 Visionary

It is common practice to choose leaders on the basis of their education, experience (and concomitant knowledge), influence and potential to make a difference in an organization. Apart from the above, leaders must demonstrate values, behaviour and attitudes that are visionary. The researcher believes that the concept of being visionary involves understanding the past and the current circumstances to map a path for the future. In terms of the literature, Kapur (2007) and Nanus (1992) believe that visionary leadership should:

- Be forward-thinking;
- Persevere in the face of challenges;
- Be connected to a higher wisdom and societal purpose;
- Be able to identify opportunities;
- Be able to overcome resistance through breakthrough;
- Be prudent;
- Monitor change;
- Be able to make the necessary mid-course corrections; and
- Know when to initiate change.

Thus it is logical to assume that a visionary leader will set a vision and mission of the organization. A vision is the ability to know where one wants to go and to see the road ahead (Hayes 2009). A vision statement is an 'aspirational' description of what an organization would like to achieve or accomplish in the future. It is intended to serve as a clear guide for choosing current and future courses of action (McCarthy 2009). A mission statement lets people know what one's organization does (Kennen 2006). The vision of the LAB is "a South Africa, in which all the rights enshrined in our Constitution are respected, protected and defended to ensure peace and justice for all" (Legal Aid Board 2009). The mission of the Board is "to be a leading provider of quality, professional legal services, ensuring effective access to justice for the poor and vulnerable, in an independent and caring manner" (Legal Aid Board 2009).

Setting the vision and mission of an organization is part of the visionary role of a leader. In today's burgeoning knowledge environment, knowledge-sharing should be included in, at the very least, the mission of an organization. Once the vision and the mission of an organization have been established, a set of plans to achieve the vision and define the mission is set in place. In other words, once the organization defines where it wants to go and its purpose, a plan of action needs to be instituted to achieve the goals and objectives defined. Thus strategies and policies are implemented.

3.3.1.1.1 Strategies and policies

Managers are always seeking effective policies that encourage employees to share their knowledge with others in an organization (Yang and Wu 2008). A policy is a decision or set of decisions made to achieve a goal. A policy is described as a deliberate plan of action to guide decisions and achieve rational outcomes (Definition of policy 2009). A strategy is a plan of action intended to accomplish a specific goal (Strategy 2009). Clearly according to above

definitions, strategies and policies involve mapping out a plan to achieve the vision and mission of the organization.

Organizational management and leadership can also influence the outcome of a knowledge management strategy by influencing the nature of knowledge resources present in the organization, their deployment and their utilization. To ensure the successful implementation of a knowledge management strategy, management should ideally create the conditions that cultivate employee acquisition and use of knowledge management skills by enabling convenient access to the needed knowledge resources in the organization. Managers are also responsible for the proper co-ordination of an organization's activities by aligning employees' knowledge with the organizational strategy, allocating the appropriate financial resources and assigning the staff to infrastructural roles. Management can influence the outcome of a knowledge management strategy by installing the mechanisms necessary for measuring and evaluating organizational resources and knowledge management activities (Steyn and Kahn 2008). In a study undertaken by Christensen (2007) it was found that senior managers are in a favourable position to encourage knowledge-sharing behaviour actively and establish an organizational culture of knowledge-sharing. That is, unlike middle managers and other professionals, senior managers are in a strong position (owing to their autonomy, prestige and power) to promote knowledge-sharing mechanisms in business environments and cultures.

With regard to knowledge-sharing and knowledge management in legal organizations, Rusanow (2004) and Tziahanas (2003) argue that lawyers must consider both the strategic and operational elements of knowledge management and knowledge-sharing. They argue that to ensure the successful implementation of knowledge management and knowledge-sharing, the following needs to happen:

- Knowledge management must be closely tied to the law firm's business objectives.

- The initiatives of knowledge management need to be supported by management.
- Knowledge management has to have the organization's support.
- Knowledge management needs a culture to facilitate it.
- Corporations and lawyers must be willing to commit a modest amount of capital to achieve their knowledge management objectives.

The second characteristic of leaders mentioned by Schein (2004) is that of leaders being able to facilitate learning. This characteristic is discussed next.

3.3.1.2 Facilitate learning

While learning (one of the pillars of the GWU model of knowledge management) and knowledge-sharing will be discussed as a separate component, its relationship to leadership, in the context of knowledge-sharing, cannot be excluded. Visionary leaders need to create visionary organizations. Visionary organizations are capable of learning and adapting to change (Nanus 1992). Learning can be used to augment and enhance an individual's performance (Van Schaik, Pearson and Barker 2002). Senior managers could contribute significantly to the development of core competencies and skills through their role as facilitators of learning in the workplace, specifically by establishing a knowledge-sharing environment in which employees are encouraged to apply their explicit and tacit knowledge to problem-solving situations (Lin and Lee 2004).

Managerial intervention is needed to encourage and facilitate systematic knowledge-sharing. Leadership, conceptualized, as a process of influencing others within a group context, aims for a goal and helps define an organizational reality in knowledge-sharing (Søndergaard, Kerr and Clegg 2007). Leaders act as role models for the manner in which knowledge-sharing occurs, as well as setting the incentives for doing so. Leaders, furthermore, can facilitate networks of

knowledgeable members of the organization and provide best practice in coordination and collaboration activities. In this way leaders facilitate learning through knowledge-sharing.

3.3.1.3 Leaders need to empower followers

The leader has the power to influence. Power had been defined as the capacity to produce effects on others, or the potential to influence others (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy 2009). Thus leaders have a strong ability to influence their followers and this has the potential to introduce a spirit of respect and trust in the organization. Once the leader gains the respect and trust of his or her followers it is not difficult to influence the organization. If the organizational membership has respect and trust for the leadership, the potential of leadership to influence behaviour, attitudes and values to share knowledge becomes much more of a reality. Leadership, apart from having intangible power, also has tangible power. The close access that leadership has to resources (human, technology and technical) empowers the leadership to assume an influential position. Leaders can empower followers, as suggested by Brower (1995: 23), through:

- Allowing followers the authority to make decisions (but not unlimited); and
- Being accountable to their followers.

This can be achieved through:

- Providing information, in more depth, volume and usefulness than is normal;
- Providing support; and
- Creating the structures and conditions for empowerment.

Lowe (2009) believes that leaders in law firms and law organizations can empower followers through:

- **Helping lawyers with branding** in order to communicate the character, personality and value of the organization's people and services.
- **Training and mentoring staff** – leaders can facilitate training and mentoring in order to allow lawyers to work effectively and balance their work and personal lives.
- **Sparking change** – in some ways, the legal profession is slow to change. However, leaders can innovate their firms, be recognized as thought leaders in their field and effect cultural change to make business development more effective. Innovation and improved service delivery can emerge through communication and knowledge-sharing.

The above discussed the three characteristics of leadership according to Schein (2004). The following discussion will relate to the challenges and opportunities facing the leadership in a dynamic environment.

3.3.2 Challenges and opportunities

Leadership in an organizational context is always faced with both challenges and opportunities. Levy (2009) and Martin (2009) believe that some of the challenges and opportunities facing current leaders are:

- **Responding to globalization**

  In responding to globalization and the concomitant abundance of knowledge, individuals will find it difficult to keep pace with new knowledge. Knowledge-sharing can address this challenge and indeed create an opportunity for a new mental model – that is, of sharing knowledge rather than hoarding it.

- **Managing workforce diversity**

  Workforce diversity can be managed through knowledge and information. It is ignorance that creates prejudice and consequent tension within an organization.

- **Improving people skills and empowering people**

  People can become empowered and improve their skills through learning the 'new' (that which was previously unknown. Knowledge-sharing is one method of learning the new.

- **Stimulating innovation and change**

  As the pace of the world is increasing, changes in thinking and doing become necessary in order to be efficient and to remain relevant. Increasingly, the attitude that since knowledge is power, "I won't share my knowledge and hence dilute my power" is becoming outdated. Knowledge generates more knowledge and this leads to stimulating innovation and change. The innovation and change have the potential benefit of improving the organization as a whole – including all the individuals.

- **Improving quality and productivity**

  Knowledge-sharing can improve quality and productivity. It can avoid redundancy and individuals having to learn something that has already been learnt in the organization. The stimulation of innovation and change through acquisition of knowledge can improve quality and productivity. Innovation and change are important to learning. Learning is the second leg of the GWU model of knowledge management.

Terret (1998) and Wolfe and Lorass (2008) argue that the leadership of legal organizations should take heed of the following challenges:

- **Individuality**

  It is claimed that lawyers do not work in groups and therefore accumulate specialized individual expertise more quickly than their professional counterparts in accounting or management consultancy. One of the fundamental problems that a law firm consequently faces is its reliance on individual 'stars' within the firm. The firm may want a client to hire the firm, not individual lawyers.

- **Success**

  It is often said that success is the enemy of innovation. Many of the larger law firms have done very well from providing legal advice to clients, growing year-on-year, expanding overseas and paying their partners very well without any recourse to knowledge management or even partially, innovative use of IT. For someone attempting to introduce new thinking into the firm, this can be a serious impediment.

- **Lack of incentives**

  The culture of informal sharing of experiences over the coffee-machine or the water-cooler may not be strong in all law firms. Instead, lawyers increasingly feel the need to be recording time. It is clear that if incentives are not established through the appraisal system, the existence of a knowledge market-place will be obscured. The firm must back up its commitment by demonstrating the value it places on knowledge exchange. In order to encourage sharing of knowledge workers' proprietary knowledge rewards must outweigh the perceived costs of knowledge-sharing, regardless of the type of incentive.

3.4 Learning

Knowledge-sharing occurs when an individual is willing to assist as well as to learn from others in the development of new competencies (Yang 2007). Learning refers to the concerted activity that increases the capacity and willingness of individuals, groups, organizations and communities to acquire and productively apply new knowledge and skills, to grow and mature and to adapt successfully to changes and challenges (PacifiCorp Foundation 2004). According to Senge (1990: 142) learning is not merely the acquisition of more information, but rather the "expanding the ability to produce the results we truly want in life". It is lifelong generative learning. As mentioned earlier in the chapter, knowledge-sharing is the exchange and transfer of knowledge with the purpose of creating new knowledge. Therefore, it is the view of the researcher that the purpose of learning is equally to create new knowledge. Hence, knowledge-sharing can be instrumental in "lifelong generative learning" (Senge 1990: 142). It is the view of the researcher that knowledge-sharing cannot be separated from the process of learning. Spinello (2000 in Yang 2007) in this regard claims that organizational learning and knowledge-sharing are intimately connected. Organizational learning and knowledge-sharing result in the prevention of knowledge depreciation and the reinforcement of organizational capabilities and effectiveness (Senge 1990). Any discussion on learning begs a definition of learning.

3.4.1 What is learning?

According to Paulo Freire (in Madron 2004) learning begins with action, is then shaped by reflection, which gives rise to further action. Learning is thus a continuous process, directed at enhancing the learners' capacity to act in the world and change it. It is the opinion of the researcher that the act of knowledge-sharing is also shaped by action, reflection and further action. The knowledge acquired through exchange or transfer can only have meaning if it is relevant to the receiver. Once relevancy is established this exchange or transfer is a source of

empowerment. Argyris and Schön (1978) identified three types of learning: single-loop learning, double-loop learning and deutero-learning.

- **Single-loop learning**

In single-loop learning, also called adaptive learning by Senge (1990), the members of the organization respond to changes in the internal and external environments of the organization by detecting errors, which they then correct. The focus is thus on "survival learning" (Senge 1990). This is the type of learning that enables an organization to remain stable in a changing context. Single-loop learning has a single feedback loop, which links detected outcomes to organizational strategies and assumptions that are adapted so as to keep organizational performance within the range set by organizational norms. The norms themselves, however, remain unchanged (Argyris and Schön 1978). An individual at a single-loop level just conforms to the set standards and will focus on solving the problem. Single-loop learning tends to occur more frequently in traditional organizations (Hitt 1995).

- **Double-loop learning**

Double-loop learning, also called generative learning by Senge (1990), occurs when flaws have been detected and corrected in a manner that results in the modification of an organization's underlying norms, policies, strategies, objectives and assumptions associated with the norms (Argyris and Schön 1978). This type of learning has a double feedback loop, which connects the detection of flaws or errors not only to strategies and assumptions for effective performance but also to the very norms which define effective performance (Argyris and Schön 1978). In other words, double-loop learning differs from single-loop leaning in that products and services are not the focus of mediation when error is detected, but the organization's underlying norms, policies,

strategies and objectives associated with the norms. People operating at a double-loop level will not just conform to the standards and norms that have been set, but will question whether the standards and norms are the proper ones, and will ask what could be done to design the system so that problems will not occur again. Double-loop learning seems to be more aligned with learning organizations (Hitt 1995).

- **Deutero-learning (second-order learning)**

Deutero-learning is the type of learning where organizations learn how to learn, in other words how to carry out single-loop and double-loop learning (Argyris and Schön 1978). Through deutero-learning, an organization's members also learn about previous contexts for learning. Previous episodes of organizational learning, or failure to learn, present opportunities for reflection to discover what they do that facilitates or inhibits learning (Argryis and Schön 1978). Consequently, they invent new strategies for learning, which they then produce, evaluate and generalize (Argyris and Schön 1978). Deutero-learning can be regarded as the type of learning where organizations learn about learning.

In summary, single-loop learning relates to "survival learning" and double-loop learning relates to "generative learning". Deutero-learning is a type of learning where the organization learns to learn. As the complexity of the environment and organizations increases, so too does the evolution of the type of learning. With the interconnectivity of globalization, organizations are becoming increasingly complex. Consequently learning in an organization becomes complex. The size of the organization and the abundance of knowledge calls for strategic endeavours in knowledge-sharing. In order for an organization to evolve into a learning organization, knowledge hoarding has to be a thing of the past. New mental models need to be adopted, ensuring that knowledge-sharing and learning become part of the organizational values and behaviours. Resolving challenges, reflecting on experiences and learning from them constitute

the cycle of learning. However, in the current exponentially changing environment, the ability to learn to learn is crucial to be adaptive. Learning enables employees to acquire knowledge and skills and to replenish creativity, imagination, exploration, discovery, and intentional risk-taking (McGill in Yang 2004). In particular, learning organizations can provide the opportunity for employees to be empowered.

3.4.2 Learning organizations

Learning organizations are those that have in place systems, mechanisms and processes that are used to continually enhance their capabilities and those who work with it or for it, to achieve sustainable objectives - for themselves and the communities in which they participate (Skyrme 2003b). The phrase 'learning organization' refers to the organization-wide activity of creating and using knowledge to enhance competitive advantage. 'Organizational learning' means the process of improving actions through better knowledge and understanding. 'Learning capability' involves the development of the capacity to assimilate existing and problem-solving skills representing a capacity to create new knowledge (Liao 2006). 'Learning orientation' is an organizational characteristic which reflects the value that a firm places not only on quick responses to environmental change but also on constantly challenging the assumptions that frame the organization's relationship with the environment (Liao 2006).

Senge (1990) presents the theoretical groundwork in the art of building learning organizations. The key tenets of his theory on learning organizations comprise:

- **Personal mastery** – an individual continually clarifies and deepens his or her personal vision, focusing on one's energies, developing patience and seeing reality objectively;
- **Mental modes** – a person is challenged to unseat deeply ingrained assumptions and generalizations;

- **Building shared vision** – it involves the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future which the organization wants to create;
- **Team Learning** – dialogue is encouraged and members argue through and discover insights which cannot be obtained as individuals. It speaks to the power of the collective;
- **Systems thinking** – the world is not seen as a fragmentation but in terms of interconnectivity. Senge argues that personal mastery, mental modes, building shared vision and team learning are interwoven to produce systems thinking.

For long-term success, organizations should be able to learn continuously, to leverage from the knowledge they capture, to apply it to reality and to increase innovative knowledge. The process of effective organizational learning enables individuals and organizations to reflect on the consequences of their behaviour and actions, to obtain insights from the environment where they operate, to understand the environment, and ultimately to interpret the meaning and react to it in more accurate approaches. A learning organization is informed by a learning culture – one where knowledge-sharing is part of the culture.

3.4.3 Learning culture

Organizational culture refers to the shared meanings and manifestations of organizational behaviour, and as such emphasizes the common beliefs, values and assumptions of organizational members (Bates and Khasawneh 2005). The culture of an organization, that is, its norms and values, represent a key mediating factor in the development of a learning culture (Davies 1999). A learning culture is an integral part of a learning organization (Sta.Maria and Watkins 2003). The authors believe that an organization's "learning culture" is its ability and willingness to embrace individual and organizational learning as a strategic part of its business strategy. Learning organizations embody the degree to which firms are committed to knowledge-sharing by systematically challenging the fundamental beliefs and practices. A

learning culture encourages organizations to question not only the information they process but also whether their particular approach to innovation is applicable (Liao 2006). An organization can demonstrate its learning culture, in part, through the knowledge-sharing behaviour of its members. Sharing knowledge in a company is, almost always, not an official task.

Connelly and Kelloway (2003: 298) argue that the following factors influence the knowledge-sharing culture and the learning culture of an organization:

- **Employees' perception of management's support for knowledge-sharing**

  The employees' perception of management support for knowledge-sharing contributes significantly to the use of knowledge-sharing to create a learning culture. The demonstration of management sharing of knowledge may have a positive influence on the learning culture of the organization. A demonstration of the opposite will have a negative influence. Members may take the attitude: "if my boss doesn't share, then why should I?"

- **Employees' perception of the organization's social interaction culture**

  If the social interaction of an organization is perceived to be warm and congenial, the employees will feel relaxed, free of suspicion, and this will encourage communication. Furthermore, if the perception is that the social interaction culture is based on trust and operates in an open environment, learning can take place through knowledge-sharing, thus building a learning culture.

- **The size of the organization**

  Often the size of an organization leads to alienation, where its members form small groups rather than work within the large organization. It is alleged that the bigger the organization, the less likely it is that knowledge-sharing will occur. However, an established culture of learning can negate this tendency, by for example establishing inter-team sharing and learning.

- **The organization's available knowledge-sharing technology**

  Larger organizations may mean that they have better resources to purchase technology that will facilitate the sharing of knowledge and consequently lead to a learning culture. However, with the availability of social networking technologies, an organization may use technology to share without going to great expense.

Skyrme (2003b) identified the following as characteristics of an organization that contribute to a learning culture:

- **Future, external orientation –** Organizations of such an orientation develop an understanding of their environment; senior teams take time to think about the future. Widespread use of external sources and advisors are common, for example, customers on planning teams.
- **Free exchange and flow of information** - systems are in place to ensure that expertise is available where it is needed; individuals **network** extensively, crossing organizational boundaries to develop their knowledge and expertise.
- **Commitment to learning, personal development** - support is forthcoming from top management; people at all levels are encouraged to learn regularly; learning is rewarded.

Time to think and learn (understanding, exploring, reflecting, developing) should be factored into the working hours.

- **Valuing people** - ideas, creativity and "imaginative capabilities" are stimulated, made use of and developed. Diversity is recognized as strength. Views can be challenged.
- **Climate of openness and trust -** individuals are encouraged to develop ideas, to speak out, to challenge actions.
- **Learning from experience** - learning from mistakes is often more powerful than learning from success. Failure is tolerated, provided lessons are learnt.

Knowledge-sharing not only has the potential to inform and enlighten, thus making the experience of work more comfortable, it can lead to the invention of new ideas. Inventions in themselves are not good enough. Inventions have to be translated into innovations. Senge (1990) argues that an invention becomes an innovation when applied widely. Patel and Patel (2008) claim that past researchers have suggested that organizational learning may lead to innovation.

3.4.3.1 Innovation

Innovation involves finding a new and better way of doing something (Hofstrand 2006). In their study Mei and Nie (2007) highlight the importance of knowledge-sharing to the firm's innovation. They found that a firm with a high degree of knowledge-sharing can produce more innovation. Ruggles and Little (1997) support this view when they argue that knowledge management activities (such as knowledge-sharing) add value to the organization by enhancing innovation and innovativeness.

Peter Drucker (in Hofstrand 2006), a leading authority on innovation and entrepreneurship, identified five principles of innovation and seven innovative opportunities. The five principles of innovation as identified by Drucker (in Hofstrand 2006) are:

- Begin with an analysis of opportunity.
- Analyze the opportunity to see if people will be interested in using the innovation.
- To be effective, keep the innovation simple and clearly focused on a specific need.
- Keep in mind that effective innovations start small. By appealing to a small, limited market, a product or service requires little money and new people to produce and sell it. As the market grows, the company has time to fine-tune its processes and stay ahead of the emerging competition.
- Aim at market leadership. If an innovation does not aim at leadership in the beginning, it is unlikely to be innovative enough to establish itself successfully. Leadership, at this stage, can mean dominating a small market niche.

The seven innovative opportunities as identified by Drucker (Hofstrand 2006) are:

- The unexpected – an unexpected success, an unexpected failure or an unexpected outside event can be a symptom of a unique opportunity;
- The incongruity – a discrepancy between reality and what everyone assumes it to be, or between what is and what ought to be, can create an innovative opportunity;
- Innovation based on process need – when a weak link is evident in a particular process, but people work around it instead of doing something about it, an opportunity is presented to the person or company willing to supply the ‘missing link’;

- Changes in industry or market structure – the opportunity for an innovative product, service or business approach becomes available when the underlying foundation of the industry or market shifts;

- Demographics – changes in the population size, age structure, composition, employment, level of education and income can create innovative opportunities;

- Changes in perception, mood and meaning – innovative opportunities can develop when a society's general assumptions, attitudes and beliefs change;

- New knowledge – advances in scientific and non-scientific knowledge can create new products and new markets.

The researcher believes that the opportunity for innovation refers to a situation where the conditions are ripe to introduce new ideas and processes through invention and innovation. It is the view of the researcher that there is a relationship between learning and innovation. Senge (1990) writes that innovation starts with invention. An invention develops when a new idea has been invented and has proven to be workable. This typically happens in a "laboratory". "The idea becomes 'innovation' only when it can be replicated reliably on a meaningful scale at practical costs" (Senge 1990: 5-6). The formulation of an invention is precipitated by learning. Finding the new is founded upon knowing the old. It is through learning that people know. Equally the new (invention and innovation) can have an impact on learning. Therefore, there is a reciprocal relationship between learning and innovation. Indeed, both are informed by knowledge and encouraged and communicated through sharing.

3.4.4 Ways of learning through knowledge-sharing

In the above discussion, the relationship between learning and knowledge-sharing was explored. Finally, the researcher will include ways of learning through sharing. This part is deemed to be important. A theoretical understanding of learning and knowledge-sharing is limited without being translated into the tangible. In looking at the ways of sharing knowledge, the researcher believes that this provides the opportunity for learning. Some of the ways of learning through knowledge-sharing are:

- **Storytelling**

  Tobin (2006) believes that storytelling is an effective way of sharing knowledge. Storytelling refers to the narration of one's experience. He argues that the benefit of sharing knowledge through storytelling is that story telling allows communication of complex ideas in a simple and memorable form.

- **Teams**

  People share knowledge within a team. Teams are the building blocks of an organization. They consist of a number of people with a common goal and joint accountability for results; they are tightly integrated units that are driven by deliverables, defined by managerial tasks, and bound together by their members' collective commitment to results. Teams, however, can become silos where information is hoarded and not shared with other teams. In such a case, they can become isolated and can develop a team myopia where ideas from the outside are rejected, resulting in them losing the ability to generate new ideas. Teams can also easily neglect long-term capacity building (van Wyk 2005).

- **Communities of interest**

  Communities of interest and communities of practice are very closely related. Communities of interest exist in the first stage of the life cycle of a community of practice. The second stage of communities of practice is where communities of practice are actually formed. Communities of interest thus have the potential to develop into communities of practice, but not necessarily so. When a community of practice becomes institutionalized and formalized, it can develop into a full-blown team, but then loses some of its vitality. The sharing of tacit knowledge then becomes difficult (van Wyk 2005).

- **Communities of Practice**

  Communities of practice, on the other hand, are driven by the value they have for their members, are defined by knowledge-sharing, their members learn together, they create common practices, and they are bound by identity. Communities of practice compensate for the limitations of teams by linking experts from different teams together, thereby overcoming the isolation of teams. They also provide information on tools, analyses and approaches current in the discipline, and can also be of great help in finding knowledgeable individuals who can help solve specific problems (van Wyk 2005). Communities of practice are increasingly seen as a central means to foster and enhance knowledge-sharing and learning – processes crucial for innovation (Zboralski, Salomo and Gemuenden 2006).

- **Training and mentoring**

  As organizations forge ahead in the twenty-first century, knowledge management has become a significant differentiator in getting the relevant information at the relevant time to the relevant person. To gain maximum benefit from new knowledge, it must be

> efficiently integrated into the organization within a continuous knowledge life cycle. In this respect, training and mentoring are becoming ever more effective as a means to facilitate knowledge creation and sharing and build intellectual capital (Karkoulian, Halawi and McCarthy 2008). Researchers in applied psychology and management have recently argued that training and mentoring relationships provide a means for firms to share knowledge, encourage learning and build intellectual capital (Bryant and Terborg 2008).

The above was a discussion of the ways of learning through knowledge-sharing. The next section will discuss knowledge-sharing in the context of legal organizations.

The intellectual capital of a legal organization is its chief means of production. Changes in the legal environment, such as larger law firms and changes in the economy (Heintz 1981), marketing orientation (Bradlow 1988), review of basic professional values written in the code of conduct (Goldsmith 2008), changes in cultural and social norms (Mah 2005) and the demands of globalization (Mossman 2003) produce a steep learning curve for the legal professional (Vandrovec 2003). It is the view of this researcher that learning and especially critical learning should be encouraged at and embedded in law schools. Arthurs (1998) argues that legal educators should commit their critical skills and intellectual talents to efforts to alter the larger political economy. While technical knowledge is important to lawyers, Hever (2006) argues that universities place greater emphasis on cognitive knowledge as opposed to experiential knowledge. Howe (2007) asserts that experiential learning involves the creation of an experience, whether that is real or metaphorical, and then with expert review and facilitation, it gives individuals and teams the opportunity to understand and assess their behaviour, its impact on their own success and the success or results of others. The absence of such learning causes the lawyer to be ill-prepared when he or she leaves law school. Howe (2007) argues that this creates a mindset that looks for flaws rather than for creative solutions. The increasing complexity of law in high modernity urgently requires the skill of self-learning (Tiersma 2008).

Self-learning will include continuing education. The purpose of continuing legal education is to maintain or sharpen the skills of licensed attorneys and judges. Accredited courses examine new areas of the law or review basic practice and trial principles. In South Africa, the Legal Education and Development Programmes of the Law Society of South Africa provide opportunities for practising attorneys, candidate attorneys (CAs) and employees to enhance their legal skills by keeping abreast of developments in the law and pursuing study in different areas of practice. The Law Society of South Africa's (2009) Legal Education and Development division offers:

- Vocational training for candidate attorneys;
- Continuing education for attorneys; and
- Skills development, skills transfer and mentorship.

The training and skills acquired by lawyers invite them to be strong candidates for learning and being involved in the learning process. The above attempts to refute the claim, made by Rose (2009), that lawyers are reluctant to change. On the contrary, lawyers are indeed learners. In the preceding discussion, the relationship between learning and knowledge-sharing was explored. As mentioned in the above discussion, Connelly and Kelloway (2003) identified technology as one of the factors that influenced knowledge-sharing. Technology is one of the pillars upon which the GWU model of knowledge management is founded. The next part of the discussion will look at technology in the context of knowledge-sharing.

3.5 Technology

Technology is a broad term that refers both to artefacts created by humans, such as machines, and the methods used to create those artefacts. More broadly, technology can be used to refer to

a way of doing something or a means of organization: for instance, democracy might be considered a social technology. Technology comes from the Greek *technologia*, which is a combination of "techne", meaning "craft", and *logia*, meaning "saying". So technology might be considered the articulation of a craft. The word is also used to describe the extent to which a society can manipulate its environment (Anissimov 2009). The term information technology (IT) defines an industry that uses computers, networking, software programming and other equipment and processes to store, process, retrieve, transmit and protect information (Salaam 2009). One of the dominant themes in the contemporary knowledge management literature is the importance of the role accorded to IT. In addition, technology is one of the components of the GWU model of knowledge management.

According to Skyrme (1998 in Steyn and Kahn 2008) ITs enable the knowledge creation process through the conversion of knowledge from inputs to outputs. IT enhances knowledge inputs by condensing, filtering and presenting data, processing that data, storing it, facilitating its flow though the organization and finally supporting the thinking processes that inform effective decision-making. IT is supported by information systems. The term information systems is used to refer to an arrangement of people, data and processes that interact to support daily operations, problem solving and decision making in organizations. Organizations use different information systems to facilitate knowledge-sharing through creating or acquiring knowledge repositories, where employees share expertise electronically and access to shared experience becomes possible to other staff (Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed 2007).

3.5.1 IT and knowledge-sharing

As alluded to above, IT, in itself, does not lead to knowledge-sharing - it is the information systems that support the technology that create knowledge-sharing opportunities, actions and behaviours. IT offers many opportunities to develop, augment and improve the services within

an organization. The use of IT within knowledge management, and specifically knowledge-sharing, lends itself to storage, retrieval, dissemination and sharing of information and knowledge (du Plessis 2004). Organizations such as law firms and legal organizations are ideal for knowledge-sharing and knowledge management, as these firms and organizations are knowledge-based (Starbuck, 1993). Consequently, they are well suited to knowledge management and knowledge-sharing applications of IT. While IT solutions may be well suited for knowledge-sharing in a knowledge-intensive organization, IT alone does not guarantee knowledge-sharing (Davenport and Prusak 2000). With reference to the GWU model of knowledge management, there are other factors, such as leadership, organization and learning, which have an impact upon the sharing habits of its members. Technology does not guarantee knowledge-sharing. It is the knowledge-sharing culture that will determine the extent of knowledge-sharing in an organization (du Plessis 2004).

Du Plessis (2004) believes that knowledge-intensive organizations will employ information technology in the following areas:

- Office automation, administrative support, content and document management;
- Legal information systems, artificial intelligence and case analysis support;
- Professional development and electronic learning management; and
- Communication and collaboration management.

Muthukumar and Hedberg (2005) assert that there is growing recognition that the world is shifting towards being knowledge-based, where knowledge will be cherished as the most prized asset. Implicit in the above statement is the impact of globalization upon knowledge-sharing and technology. Furthermore, it has regularly been mentioned in the literature that IT is an enabler in support of knowledge management and its concomitant sharing. The American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (2005: 18) reiterates this belief when it states that “technology is

the greater enabler". The researcher understands the term "enabler" to mean a conduit or a means. Thus technology can act as a conduit for sharing knowledge. As already mentioned, technology is an enabler, and the pivotal enabling role that technology can play, in the context of knowledge management and knowledge-sharing, is that of communication.

Technology can allow various members of an organization to communicate and interact with one another regardless of time and spatial boundaries (Gottschalk and Khandelwal 2004). Gottschalk and Khandelwal (2004) state that knowledge can be created and transferred speedily and efficiently by using the enabler of technology. Technology defies time and space by bringing people together virtually. Some of the technologies used to do so are video-conferencing and Skype. Thus, with the development of new communication technologies, the world has become a global village where sharing of knowledge can be facilitated (Yang and Chang 2008). Skype is a type of software that allows people and businesses to use Skype's voice-over-Internet-Protocol (VOIP) network. Using VOIP people can make voice calls over the internet from their personal computers. Skype software has added a video feature, allowing callers with a webcam to view each other live while chatting (Kayne, T. 2009).

Although technology has the potential, as an enabler, to facilitate knowledge creation and sharing, it can also provide a learning opportunity (Williams 2007). Members of an organization who need to use the technology need to be trained. This training opportunity can aid in team-building as people learn together. Equally, technology as an enabler has the potential to alienate or discriminate. Essentially, members of the organization who have access to technology can be inter-connected. However, those who do not have can be marginalized. Apart from excluding individuals, technologies have the potential to create elitist communities who only share among one another.

In a study (Society for the Advancement of Education 2009) undertaken by Robert Hall he found that 25 percent of lawyers studied believed that the greatest factor to influence the legal industry

in the next five years will be technology. Technology has changed the work conventions of legal workers to the extent that it has produced a new type of lawyer. Wall and Johnstone (1997) refer to the new type of lawyer as the "electric lawyer". In the age of instantaneous communication, lawyers have been forced to find quicker ways to render traditional legal services. Morris (1983) argues that technological innovations must be introduced if costs are to be kept in line. Many of these changes have increased the economic efficiency and viability of the practice while also improving access to the legal system for the broader segment of the population. With regard to technology and lawyers, the use of e-mail, listservs and the Internet are the most popular (Kuhluthau and Tama 2001).

3.5.2 Technology in knowledge-sharing: some criticisms

Knowledge-sharing practices are not free-floating phenomena, but rather arise in a strategic, organizational and operational context (Søndergaard, Kerr and Clegg 2007). As there are supporters of technology in knowledge-sharing, so too there are critics. Too great an emphasis on technologically based knowledge management initiatives has been shown to reinforce existing cultures rather than help transform them (Hislop 2002).

Studies drawn from a diverse range of contexts have shown that, where knowledge is highly tacit, the effectiveness of sharing requires a significant amount of intense social interaction. However, information technology systems are likely to be most useful in situations where knowledge has a significant explicit element. Therefore, even where knowledge is partly explicit, knowledge-sharing will be most effective where IT-based knowledge-sharing is supported by other mechanisms. Hislop (2002) argues that electronic transferral of text will not transfer the tacit elements; only partially explicit components of knowledge will be transferred. However, without its tacit elements, such as the tacit values that underlie it, the full meaning of knowledge will not be communicated.

Another important factor in terms of IT is the degree of common knowledge that exists between the parties involved in knowledge-sharing. IT systems are particularly disadvantaged in this context as they prove a much less "rich" medium of communication than face-to-face interaction owing to the loss of social cues. One of the articulated advantages of communities of practice is that participants in the community develop a significant stock of common knowledge (such as tacit assumptions and values) through working intensely together, which makes knowledge-sharing within a community relatively straightforward. The 'best case scenario', where IT systems may be able to play a useful role, is thus likely to be where a significant degree of common knowledge exists among the individuals sharing knowledge. This is true particularly when there is such a degree of trust between these individuals that they are willing to share their knowledge in this way and when the degree of explicitness of the knowledge is relatively high. Not all of these circumstances are simultaneously necessary for effective IT-based knowledge-sharing to occur, but the more there are, the greater the likelihood of successful knowledge-sharing.

Elmholdt (2004) adds his dissenting voice by arguing that a company's overtly technological approach to knowledge management is counterproductive to the goal of enhancing knowledge creation and sharing. He states that the cultivation of a culture where viable communities of practice and collegial networks can flourish may be more important than technological advancement. In his study of a Danish middle-sized software production company, A-Soft, he found that the more credible knowledge-sharing database was one initiated by a fellow worker rather than the ones initiated by the company. He continues by asserting that knowledge is an enactment and in order for its full meaning to be advanced, it has to be embedded in a "situatedness". Technology lacks the capacity to do this.

3.5.3 Social networking technology

The burgeoning growth of the Internet has now witnessed the emergence and outcomes of tools facilitating socially based interaction and participation. This virtual environment is characterized by self-organization around a common interest or causes, typically, non-hierarchical and meritocratic, requiring only interest, time, application and contribution from membership. This can be seen in a number of socially driven technology-based developments: the Open Source Movement and the Creative Commons approach to copyright. Each emphasises increased levels of sharing, sociability and contribution, with diverse and non-hierarchical end-user involvement, adopting a more bottom-up-oriented approach over the typically rigid corporate locking down of the top-down approach (Patrick and Dotsika 2007). The Social Software movement can be seen to build directly upon this ethos, with Web 2.0 emerging as a similar off-shoot. Web 2.0 refers to a new wave of Web applications built for user-added content that is made to change continuously to accommodate new data and technology (Bauman 2006).

According to the American Bar Association's annual Legal Technology Survey Report (Adams 2008) the bulk of legal professionals are only now on the verge of beginning to use Web 2.0 tools in their daily professional lives. The survey, based on responses from approximately 850 lawyers across the United States, showed that websites and e-mail newsletters are still the digital way in which most attorneys stay current with the news. A small minority reported reading blogs but even fewer actually created a blog. Social networks are catching on only now. However, the one area where lawyers really do appear to be on the cutting edge is mobile devices. Smartphones and BlackBerrys have become an electronic umbilical cord connecting lawyers to their offices and clients, with younger lawyers and those at the largest firms leading the way. Colman (2009) found that lawyers were extremely reliant on e-mail to find information. However, she found that wikis were ideal solutions because they are quick and easy to set up, require very little IT support and could serve as central repositories.

It is the view of the researcher that technology has the potential to enable knowledge-sharing. However, if the organization does not facilitate knowledge-sharing, then technology will have little effect upon it. Organizational culture – spearheaded by the leadership of the organization – has a profound influence on knowledge-sharing.

The last section of chapter three will discuss the final column of the GWU pillar, namely organization.

3.6 Organization

Organization is one of the pillars upon which the GWU model of knowledge management rests. An organization is formed when a group of people come together for a common purpose or purposes. An organization is a complex entity whose elements of structure, strategy and environment coalesce through cooperation and are governed by rules and regulations (Chowdhury 2004, Miller and Friesen 1984, Heyel 1963). This chapter will discuss the cultural environment of an organization and the structure. The aspect of strategy has already been raised in the section under leadership. However, part of the organizational strategy may extend to include organizational performance by using knowledge-sharing as a strategic imperative. Knowledge-sharing requires the dissemination of individual employee's work-related experiences and collaboration among individuals, subsystems and organizations. Collaboration with other agencies and stakeholders is also required for improved knowledge-sharing. Furthermore, knowledge-sharing entails the development and retrieval mechanisms for quick and easy access to information that is used for adjusting strategic direction, problem solving and improving organizational efficiency (Kim and Lee 2006).

3.6.1 Knowledge-sharing and organizational performance

Knowledge-sharing can improve organizational performance. Knowledge-sharing implies an increase in knowledge, which in turn could lead to better understanding and improved productivity. An increase in personal performance through knowledge-sharing will lead to

greater collective or organizational performance. According to Kim and Lee (2006) there is increasing emphasis on the importance of knowledge-sharing for organizational performance and effectiveness in both the private and public sectors. Knowledge-sharing activities create opportunities for private organizations to maximize their ability to meet customers' changing needs and to generate solutions to gain competitive advantage.

However, Serenko, Bontis and Hardie (2007) argue that public organizations (as opposed to private organizations referred to above) tend to be more formalized and exhibit a more bureaucratic structure, regardless of their size. This means that public organizations would tend to inhibit knowledge flows. In contrast to private organizations, public organizations have multiple, intangible and non-financial objectives that are difficult to define, measure and report on. Therefore, knowledge donors in the public sector may not directly observe the outcomes of their contributions, in other words, they are less likely to receive measurable feedback on their knowledge-sharing activities than employees of commercial companies. Thus public organizations are less likely to share knowledge because they are less likely to be rewarded or acknowledged – which has an impact on organizational performance.

While some theorists hold the view that knowledge-sharing can lead to greater organizational performance, there are those who argue that it does not. Knowledge-sharing is a test of human nature and accessing the knowledge of colleagues and unknown others can be difficult (Hsu 2008). As a result, knowledge-sharing within organizations, very often, is not successful and organizational performance is thus not improved. More importantly, researchers caution that organizational knowledge management sharing practices do not directly lead to an improvement in organizational performance. Rather, organizational performance is improved through an improvement of intermediate (or individual) outcomes, following the implementation of knowledge management or knowledge-sharing practices (Hsu 2008).

While there is debate regarding the improvement of organizational performance through knowledge-sharing, there is little debate when it comes to the relationship between organizational culture and knowledge-sharing. Most theorists agree that in order to improve

knowledge-sharing, the value of knowledge-sharing must be embraced by the organizational culture.

3.6.2 Knowledge-sharing and organizational culture

Organizational structure and organizational culture combine to effect a knowledge-sharing environment. Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007: 32) list the following factors affecting organizational culture in terms of knowledge-sharing:

- **Trust** - interpersonal trust or trust between co-workers is an essential attribute in organizational culture, which is believed to have a strong influence over knowledge-sharing. Team members require the existence of trust in order to respond openly and share their knowledge.
- **Communication between staff** – communication here refers to human interaction through oral conversations and use of body language while communicating. Human interaction is greatly enhanced by the existence of social networking in the workplace. This form of communication is fundamental in encouraging knowledge-sharing.
- **Reward system** – according to Syed-Ikhsan and Rowland (2004), employees need a strong motivator in order to share knowledge. It is unrealistic to assume that all employees are willing to offer knowledge easily without considering what may be gained or lost as a result of doing this.
- **Managers** – they must consider the importance of collaboration and sharing best practices when designing reward systems. The idea is to introduce processes in which sharing information and horizontal communication are encouraged and rewarded. Such rewards must be based on group rather than individual performance.

There are other factors relating to organizational culture which may also influence whether employees will choose to share their knowledge. Employees with shorter organizational tenure are more likely to share knowledge. This could be as a result of the new employee wanting to fit in. In wanting to fit in, new employees are unlikely to antagonize older employees by hoarding

knowledge. Furthermore, employees with a shorter organizational tenure know less about the organization and its processes than people with longer tenure. In wanting to increase the chances of learning more about the organization, newer employees will want to share in the hope that others will share with them. Conversely, people with longer organizational tenure may share their knowledge simply because they know more of the right people in the organization.

In a study undertaken by Connelly and Kelloway (2003), they found that gender was not a significant predictor of organizational knowledge-sharing. In addition, Connelly and Kelloway (2003) found that employees in smaller organizations are more likely to rely on one another and to interact with one another both professionally and socially. The organizational culture of smaller organizations lends itself to knowledge-sharing because necessity dictates it.

Steyn and Kahn (2008) believe that while technology can greatly enable effective knowledge-sharing, the willingness of people in organizations to share knowledge and information can prove to be a critical constraint to the implementation of knowledge management and developing a knowledge-sharing culture. Conditions of trust, shared norms, values and obligations and expectations, common content and language are crucial to the establishment of a knowledge-sharing culture. In this instance, the human resources management (HRM) function can play a crucial role in enabling knowledge-sharing by creating and maintaining an organizational climate conducive to such conditions. Scarborough and Carter (2000) suggest that HRM practices can best contribute to managing knowledge by influencing employee behaviour. Through practices such as performance management, career structuring, recruitment and selection, career management and organizational development, an environment conducive to knowledge acquisition, utilization and sharing can be created.

In many instances, the organizational culture may be formed by the organizational structure. As in the case of the bureaucratic organizational structure of public organizations, knowledge-sharing may be slow and cumbersome. Thus organizational structure may have an impact upon the organizational culture of knowledge-sharing.

The success of knowledge management initiatives in an organization rests heavily upon its culture (Platt 1998). Organizational culture has proven to be a strong predictor of intention to share knowledge. Creating a work environment where lawyers are intellectually stimulated and challenged is very important. Minimizing the low value-added work in a lawyer's practice is just one way in which knowledge management creates a more rewarding work environment. Knowledge management involves identifying low value-added work and developing systems and processes to minimize the time spent on those elements. This results in lawyers having more time to spend on intellectually stimulating and challenging work. They may also be able to work fewer hours and lead a more balanced life.

Peer behaviour, in particular the expectation that one's peers will share, is a significant contributor to the organizational culture of sharing. Wolfe and Loraas's (2008) study found that incentive schemes contribute to the culture of sharing. At a firm where lawyers are not rewarded financially for referring work to colleagues, there is no incentive to promote knowledge-sharing across practice groups. In some law firms, the 'knowledge is power' culture means that lawyers believe their career prospects largely depend on the ability to amass a unique base of knowledge. Sharing that knowledge with others would dilute its value because of the importance of billable hours. To date, most law firms consider expertise to be a support staff issue and have concentrated more on the technology than on cultural change. They have also failed to implement any form of incentive to encourage lawyers' participation – they rely on goodwill instead (White 2002). However, if peers believe that co-workers are not contributing to sharing, then incentives do not act as a significant motivator (Wolfe and Loraas 2008). According to Rusanow (in White 2002) one of the biggest cultural barriers to knowledge-sharing is the time-based billing model, which has the potential to create a disincentive to maximizing efficiency. Any time spent on sharing knowledge is time not spent on billing – in a law firm time is money.

According to Rusanow (2004) most large law firms are generally taking knowledge management very seriously. They recognize that theirs is a knowledge business, and they too suffer from the

challenges of connectivity, globalization and speed (Rusanow 2004). However, it is difficult for lawyers to see the intrinsic value of many of the practices that knowledge managers try to enforce. The legal profession is an exclusivist one: it reaps value from being able to deploy specialist knowledge that is not generally accessible. The knowledge management mantra that says indiscriminate knowledge-sharing is good, does not make sense to this culture (Lambe 2003). However, Rusanow (2009) believes that when introducing a knowledge-sharing culture to the organization, all stakeholders need to become involved. Sharing is not the prerogative of lawyers only. Other members of the organization also contribute to it.

The next section of this chapter will draw a link between organizational structure and design and knowledge-sharing.

3.6.3 Organizational structure and design: impact upon knowledge-sharing

Traditional organizational structures are usually characterized by complicated layers and lines of responsibility with certain details of information-reporting procedures (Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed 2007). Nowadays, most managers realize the disadvantages of bureaucratic structures in slowing the processes of knowledge-sharing. Syed-Ikhsan and Rowland (2004) argue that knowledge-sharing prospers with structures that support ease of information flow and fewer boundaries between divisions. According to the findings of Søndergaard, Kerr and Clegg (2007), there appears to be a strong link between organizational structure and knowledge-sharing.

Paul Myers (1996) regards organizational design as one of the key enablers of successful knowledge management and the concomitant act of knowledge-sharing. Organizational design encompasses elements of an organization's structure and includes the division of labour, the allocation of decision rights, the delineation of organizational boundaries and networks of informal relationships. Specifically regarding organizational structure, Pinchot and Pinchot (1997) maintain that in order for knowledge to be utilized effectively in the knowledge economy,

organizations will have to make a number of fundamental shifts in terms of organizational structure. These shifts include a move from individual work to teamwork, from functional work to project-based work, single-skilled to multi-skilled employees and from co-ordination from above to co-ordination among peers.

Serenko, Bontis and Hardie (2007) suggest that as the size of an organizational unit increases, the effectiveness of internal knowledge flows dramatically diminishes and the degree of intra-organizational knowledge-sharing decreases. As the size of the workforce of an organizational unit increases, organizational structures become more bureaucratic and formalized, interpersonal relationships deteriorate – the level of interpersonal trust decreases, connective efficacy diminishes, and interpersonal communication is reduced. This impedes intra-unit knowledge flows. Specifically, this effect dramatically emerges as the unit size exceeds one hundred and fifty (150) employees. While Serenko, Bontis and Hardie (2007) refer to organizations in general, their argument could be applicable to legal organizations.

This chapter has thus far raised the concept of knowledge-sharing within the GWU model of knowledge management. The next section will raise the challenges and critical conditions to knowledge-sharing.

3.7 Challenges and critical conditions to knowledge-sharing

While Elmhodt (2004) sees the value of co-worker knowledge-sharing initiatives he holds a cynical view of management's approach to sharing knowledge. He believes that management interest in sharing knowledge lies in control and ownership. Steyn and Kahn (2008: 45) view knowledge management as a discipline lacking "an over-arching theory" and they believe that this theory is yet to emerge. In addition, they believe that knowledge management debates and discussions are more anecdotal and case-based and lacking any critical analysis.

Chistensen (2007) argues that there are a few problems inherent in organizational knowledge-sharing, namely:

1. **No common identity**

Common identity often facilitates knowledge-sharing since individuals within one specialist group understand one another better than people from outside the group – they are more or less believed to possess the same absorptive capacity. However, if there is no common identity, there will be a greater challenge in sharing.

2. **No relation between the receiver and sender of knowledge**

Personal organizational networks play an important role in accessing knowledge. The sharing of knowledge is facilitated by some kind of personal or virtual network. Networks can be maintained by formal or informal face-to-face meetings, or – the latest trend – by physical structures that do not allow individual cubicles, but emphasize transparent community spaces. Without networks there is no opportunity for accessing and sharing knowledge.

3. **No willingness to share knowledge**

No willingness to share knowledge deals with the social dilemmas of the power of possessing knowledge.

4. No knowledge of knowledge

Not having the knowledge that one is supposed to share will, of course, make it impossible to start with the process of sharing knowledge.

Serenko, Bontis and Hardie (2007) accumulated a list of converging factors affecting knowledge-sharing. They segmented the list into three categories: individual, organizational and technological. The challenges in each category relate to knowledge-sharing. In other words, the challenges to knowledge-sharing are faced at an individual (personal) level, at an organizational level and at a technological level. Table 1 below depicts the challenges according to the above categories.

Table 1: Challenges of knowledge-sharing

Individual	Organizational	Technological
• General lack of time to share knowledge, and time to identify colleagues in need of specific knowledge; • Apprehension or fear that sharing may reduce or jeopardize job security; • Low awareness and realization of the value and benefit of personal	• Integration of knowledge management strategy and sharing initiatives into the company's goals and strategic approach is missing or unclear; • Lack of leadership and managerial direction in terms of clearly communicating the benefits and values of knowledge-	• Lack of integration of IT systems and processes impedes the way people do things; • Lack of technical support (internal and external) and immediate maintenance of integrated IT systems obstructs work routines and communication flows; • Unrealistic expectations

knowledge to others; • Dominance in sharing explicit over tacit knowledge such as expertise and experience that requires hands-on learning, observation, dialogue and interactive problem solving; • Insufficient capture, evaluation, feedback, communication, and tolerance of past mistakes that would enhance individual and organizational learning effects; • Differences in experience levels; • Lack of contact time and interaction between knowledge sources and recipients; • Poor verbal/written communication and interpersonal skills;	sharing practices; • Shortage of formal and informal spaces to share, reflect and generate (new) knowledge; • Lack of transparent rewards and recognition systems that would motivate people to share more of their knowledge; • Existing corporate culture does not provide sufficient support for sharing practices; • Deficiency of company resources that would provide adequate sharing opportunities; • External competitiveness within business units or functional areas and between subsidiaries can be high (e.g. not invented here syndrome); • Communication and knowledge flows are	of employees as to what technology can do and cannot do; • Lack of compatibility between IT systems and processes; • Mismatch between individuals' needs and requirements and integrated IT systems and processes restricting sharing practices; • Reluctance to use IT systems owing to lack of familiarity and experience with them; • Lack of training regarding employee familiarization of new IT systems and processes; • Lack of communication and demonstration of all advantages of any new system over existing ones.

• Age differences; • Gender differences; • Lack of social network; • Differences in education levels; • Taking ownership of intellectual property owing to fear of not receiving just recognition and accreditation from managers and colleagues; • Lack of trust in people because they misuse knowledge or take unjust credit for it; • Lack of trust in the accuracy and credibility of knowledge owing to the source; • Differences in national culture or ethnic backgrounds; and values and beliefs associated with it (language is part of this).	restricted in certain directions (e.g. top-down); • Physical work environment and layout of work areas restrict effective sharing practices; • Internal competitiveness with business units, functional areas, and subsidiaries can be high; • Hierarchical organization structure inhibits or slows down most sharing practices; • Size of business units is often too big and unmanageable to enhance contact and facilitate ease of sharing.	

(Serenko, Bontis and Hardie 2007)

The above figure raised the challenges facing individuals and organizations affecting knowledge-sharing. While this figure was categorized in terms of 'individual', 'organizational' and 'technological', these categories can be grouped into leadership, learning, organization and technology. This grouping forms the pillars of the GWU model of knowledge management – the theoretical framework of this study. In order to justify the above argument, the researcher randomly selected a few of the points to illustrate the message. Reference to the 'lack of leadership and managerial direction in terms of clearly communicating the benefits and values of knowledge-sharing practices' concerns the leadership aspect of the model. 'Communication and knowledge flows are restricted in certain directions (for example top-down)' may refer to learning. It implies that the organization is authoritative. An organization that does not allow for openness and discussion impedes learning. The 'lack of integration of IT systems and processes impede the way people do things' relates to technology. 'Existing corporate culture does not provide sufficient support for sharing practices' relates to organization.

The following discussion will concentrate on the critical conditions that contribute to knowledge-sharing.

According to Lin and Lee (2006), Al-Alawi,Al- Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007), Riege (2007) and Yang (2007) the following are critical conditions that facilitate knowledge-sharing:

- Internal compensation structures or sufficient extrinsic rewards are necessary to motivate people to share knowledge. At the same time, over-reliance on compensation alone may dramatically impede knowledge flows because of the threat of system abuse or collusion. So-called sharers of knowledge can exaggerate their sharing of knowledge and this could consequently lead to abuse.

- Intrinsic motivators that include the enjoyment of sharing knowledge, the positive mood resulting from helping others, higher knowledge self-efficacy, feelings of contributing to overall organizational performance, or confidence in one's ability to provide important knowledge are all key drivers of knowledge flows.

- Top-level management commitment and support (that is, senior executives who exhibit behaviours of knowledge-sharing) and getting other influential organizational members to share their knowledge publicly also act as drivers of overall collaboration.
- National cultural influences have an impact on the propensity of organizational members to share knowledge (for example collectivistic societies such as Japan versus individualistic cultures such as the United States).
- Connective efficacy and feedback on the quality and usefulness of knowledge donated and received are also precursors to sharing.
- Organizational structures that are less bureaucratic support knowledge flows better.
- Technological issues related to system integration, support, IT training, and understanding the capabilities and limitations of current systems.
- Workforce heterogeneity/homogeneity (for example differences in age, rank, experience, education, gender) has an impact on knowledge-sharing.
- The intra-organizational work climate also drives knowledge-sharing behaviour. Examples here include the degree of affiliation with the organization, perceptions of job security, innovativeness and tolerance to failure, freedom in decision-making and degree of monitoring, interpersonal relationships (i.e. degree of familiarity between knowledge donor and recipient), interpersonal trust and interpersonal communication.

3.8 Summary

Knowledge-sharing is an integral part of knowledge management. It involves giving and receiving expertise. While technology may be able to assist the sharing of knowledge, it is the culture of the organization that precipitates it. This research argues that in order for knowledge-sharing to succeed, it should be absorbed into the culture of the organization, and it has to have

the support of management. One way of guarding against opportunistic behaviour in terms of only receiving knowledge, is to manage knowledge-sharing as an exchange rather than as a transfer. Unlike a transfer, an exchange of knowledge implies a two-way transaction where both partners benefit in an approximately equal fashion (Carayannis, Alexander and Ioannidis 2000).

Knowledge management in law firms is about recognizing that practising law is a knowledge-based profession and managing one's knowledge is key to managing one's business. In essence, knowledge management is about working smarter. It is the view of this researcher that the convergence of leadership, learning and technology influences the structure and culture of an organization. A top-down structure is less conducive to sharing knowledge. This evidently affects the nature of the culture of the organization. This researcher believes that culture has a significant impact on sharing. Hence the above discussion focused heavily on the cultural component of organizations.

In an attempt to address the research questions of this investigation, the above chapter viewed knowledge-sharing in the context of the GWU model of knowledge management. The components of this model are leadership, organization, learning and technology. All these components fit neatly into the questions asked in this research.

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CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of the research was to investigate knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. The investigation was carried out at the nine justice centres in Gauteng. A questionnaire was constructed and the research participants (that is, the legal professionals) were invited to complete them. Upon collection of the completed questionnaires the researcher recorded the data on MS Access, thus creating a database. This database provided the source of information that was to be interpreted according to the research questions asked and the literature reviewed.

This chapter presents a detailed account of the research methodology and the research trajectory that this research assumed.

4.2 Research design

A research design is a plan or blueprint of how the researcher intends conducting the research (Mouton 2001). The first of the two crucial components guiding this research was the detailed review of the related literature which is presented in Chapters Two to Three. The second was the collection of the data through a survey of the relevant population, that is, the legal practitioners of the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. The data were collected using self-administered questionnaires. A self-administered questionnaire is used when respondents are asked to complete the questionnaire themselves (Babbie 2007).

4.2.1 Review of related literature

The review of the related literature is fundamental, as it identifies issues and variables related to the research topic, which is one of the more specific purposes of a literature review (Kaniki 1999: 19). Furthermore, Mouton (2001) argues that the purpose of a literature review is to find out what had been done in the field of the studies to be researched. The researcher presents some of the issues examined in the literature chapters, that is, Chapters Two and Three. This is to create a link between the conceptual framework and the data to be gathered.

The core issue that Chapter Two examined was knowledge management. The chapter described the rise of information technology resulting in the discipline of knowledge management. The rise in information technology has advanced the proliferation of information and knowledge. The discipline of knowledge management was born in order to capture, store and disseminate salient information and knowledge in an era of information and knowledge abundance. In other words, knowledge management means giving the right knowledge to the right person at the right time. Knowledge is crucial in knowledge management and therefore a discussion of the two was put forward. Apart from considering knowledge management, per se, Chapter Two included discussions on knowledge workers and the benefits of knowledge management. Finally, the Chapter contained the theoretical perspective of knowledge management. The theoretical perspective put forward was that of the GWU model of knowledge management. It is upon this theoretical perspective that this research was based.

Chapter Three continued the literature review by looking into the issue of knowledge-sharing, knowledge management and the legal environment. This chapter considered knowledge-sharing particularly in the context of the GWU model of knowledge management. The model is based on four pillars, namely leadership, learning, organization and technology.

4.2.1.1 Limitations of the review of the literature

As already stated, Mouton (2001) argues that the purpose of a literature review is to find out what has been done in the field of the topic to be researched. Thus the purpose of the literature review is to familiarise the researchers with the area of the research. Unfortunately, the researcher had to rely on material regarding the relationship between knowledge management and legal firms, as there was very little information on knowledge-sharing (or knowledge management) and **legal aid** organizations or firms. Legal organizations or firms are knowledge-intensive organizations and are ideally suited to the implementation of knowledge management and knowledge-sharing strategies. Since the LAB itself is a legal organization and by implication knowledge-intensive, the researcher believed that the scenarios of a legal organization and the LAB were similar. Hence, in the absence of information about legal aid organizations and knowledge management and knowledge-sharing, the researcher decided to use legal organizations.

4.2.2 Data collection

The primary source of empirical data was a survey of the relevant population. Neuman (2003) asserts that population is the name for the large general group of many cases from which a researcher draws a sample. However, the researcher did not draw a sample but surveyed all cases in the population. Surveying all cases in a population is called undertaking a census (Leedy and Ormrod 2005). The cases that the researcher surveyed were the legal professionals at the Justice Centres of the LAB in Gauteng. The data were collected from the following Gauteng Justice Centres. The number in brackets represents the number of potential respondents in each centre.

- Alexandra (22);
- Benoni (39);
- Germiston (19);
- Johannesburg (65);
- Krugersdorp (28);
- Pretoria (60);
- Soweto (37);
- Tembisa (20);
- Vereeniging (35).

Data collection is the process of gathering data (Glossary of statistical terms 2005). Mouton (2001) classified data collection into four methods, namely:

- Observation;
- Interviewing;
- Testing; and
- Selecting and analysing texts.

With regard to this research, the method identified by Mouton (2001), that is, interviewing, was used. Mouton (2001: 105) further defined four types of interviewing:

- Structured self-administrated questionnaires;
- Structured telephone interviewing;
- Semi-structured focus group interviewing; and
- Free attitude interviewing methods.

The particular method that this research employed was structured self-administered questionnaires. Neuman (2003) argued that the first step in data collection is gaining access to the research population. Thus the second component of this study was the collection of data through a survey of the relevant population, that is, professional employees of the nine Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. A questionnaire was sent to each potential respondent.

4.2.2.1 Questionnaires

The social research method used most frequently is that of administering questionnaires. This assertion is confirmed by Walliman (2001) when he states that the most obvious method of collection data for both quantitative and qualitative research is by asking questions of the potential participants using questionnaires as the conduit. Walliman (2001) goes on to say that the questionnaire enables the researcher to organize the questions and receive replies without actually having to talk to every respondent. As a method of data collection, the questionnaire is a very flexible tool.

The main feature of the questionnaire is its impersonality. The questions are fixed, that is, they do not change according to how the replies develop. Furthermore, the questions are the same for each respondent and the person posing the question is remote. The responses can be completely anonymous, allowing potentially embarrassing questions to be asked with a fair chance of getting a true reply. Another feature is that there is generally no geographical limitation with regard to the location of the respondents. Questionnaires can be a relatively economic method, in terms of cost and time, of gathering data from a large number of respondents. Time for checking facts and pondering on the questions can be taken by the respondents, which tends to lead to more accurate information (Busha and Harter 1980; Bless and Higson-Smith 2000 and Walliman 2001).

Yet questionnaires have their drawbacks as well. The literature (Mouton 2001; Neuman 2003; Leedy and Ormrod 2005 and Babbie 2007) identifies the following disadvantages of the questionnaire as a data collection tool:

- Questionnaires preclude personal contact with the respondents and therefore do not allow respondents the opportunity to qualify ambiguous questions. Therefore, it is necessary to keep the questions relatively simple and straightforward. In taking this advice, the researcher, as far as possible, attempted to avoid the use of technical language; however, in cases where such use was unavoidable, the researcher provided a definition of the technical terms used.
- Poorly worded or direct questions might arouse antagonism or inhibitions on the part of the respondents. The researcher used pretesting to rectify this problem..
- If the prepared instrument does not arouse respondents' emotions (that is, when the questionnaire is too impersonal), valid responses might not be elicited. On the basis that knowledge is the chief mode of production of the respondents, the researcher assumed that the respondents would be interested in the study. Furthermore, in conversation with the Manager: Special Projects (of the LAB), she indicated an interest in implementing knowledge management in the organization.
- Typically, the majority of people who receive questionnaires do not return them. In other words, there may be a low response rate. As mentioned in the above, the Manager: Special Operation was interested in the project, hence she lent her support by encouraging the respondents to fill in the questionnaire.
- Most questionnaires lack the depth to ask probing questions, such as uncovering causes or reasons for respondents' attitudes, beliefs, or actions. Internationally, there is a dearth of research conducted in the field intersecting knowledge management and legal aid. This situation is even poorer in the South African context. Therefore, for all intents and purposes, this study was exploratory and as such did not delve in-depth into attitudes, beliefs or actions.

4.2.2.1.1 Construction of the questionnaires

The researcher used a combination of open-ended and closed questions. It is often argued that lawyer's hours are billable; therefore, in not wanting the respondents to spend too much time on the questionnaire, open-ended questions were used sparingly, given that they typically take more time to answer (Rotthoff 2006). Open-ended questions ask respondents to provide their own answers to the questions (Babbie 2007). Most of the questions asked in the instrument used in this research were closed questions. The use of closed questions was prompted by the understanding that most legal professionals are busy people. The researcher believed that using closed questions would yield a higher response rate. Closed questions are ones in which the respondent is asked to select an answer from a list provided by the researcher (Babbie 2007).

4.2.2.1.2 Pretesting the questionnaire

Once the questionnaire had been constructed, it was pretested. Pretesting involves testing a questionnaire or other type of survey on a small number of cases first in order to test the procedures and quality of responses (Walliman 2005). Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 110) believe that pretesting is "an excellent way to determine the feasibility of your study". Babbie (2007) points out that it is "not usually essential that the pretest subjects comprise a representative sample". Taking this advice, the questionnaire was pretested on librarians at the University of Johannesburg. In addition, certain members from the head office of the LAB were invited to take part in the pretesting. Five questionnaires were sent out to the librarians at the University of Johannesburg while ten questionnaires were pretested at the LAB. Feedback from the pretesting was used in addressing inconsistencies and ambiguities in the questionnaire that was finally administered. Item 13 and item 14 of the questionnaire were initially combined. In other words, the questions on the frequency of use of technology for social and work purposes were listed in

one table and asked as one question. This confused the respondents in the pretest, hence the questions were separated in the final questionnaire.

In hindsight, the researcher believes that instead of leaving item 1.2 of the questionnaire (job designations) open, she should have guided the respondents by listing the job designations. This would have made filling in the questionnaire slightly more efficient.

4.2.2.1.3 Distribution of questionnaires

In terms of the distribution of the questionnaires, the researcher identified a single person at each Justice Centre, which was either the Justice Centre Executive (that is, the head of the justice centre) or a representative appointed by him or her, to assist. The researcher physically delivered the questionnaires to the identified person at each Justice Centre. Thereafter, upon being informed that the completed questionnaires were ready to be fetched, the researcher physically visited each Justice Centre to collect the completed questionnaires. The researcher adopted this method as it was felt that physically delivering and collecting the questionnaires would be expeditious.

In distributing and collecting the questionnaires, the researcher did not make direct contact with the respondents. The contact person in each Justice Centre managed the internal distribution and collection. The time span between delivering the questionnaires and collecting the completed ones was three weeks. During the three weeks the researcher contacted the coordinator once a week, per telephone, to ascertain the stage of completion of the questionnaires. The researcher likens the method of distribution of questionnaires employed by this research to that of mail questionnaires. The basic method for collecting data through mail has been to send a questionnaire accompanied by a letter of explanation and a self-addressed, stamped envelope for

returning the questionnaire. The respondent is expected to complete the questionnaire, put it in the envelope, and return it (Babbie 2007). With regard to the questionnaire in the present study, a letter of explanation was attached to the questionnaire. However, instead of posting the questionnaire, the respondents were required to deposit the questionnaires in a collection box.

4.2.2.1.4 Response rate

A response rate is the actual percentage of questionnaires completed and returned (Glossary of terms 2008). Leedy and Ormrod (2005) advise the researcher to consider the following in order to increase the response rate:

- Consider the timing;
- Make a good first impression;
- Motivate potential respondents;
- Include self-addressed envelopes with return postage;
- Offer to disclose the results of your study; and/or
- Be gently persistent.

All of the issues raised in Leedy and Ormrod (2005) were taken into consideration when administering the questionnaire. Of the 325 questionnaires distributed, 143 were returned. This translates to a response rate of 44 percent. The method of distribution of questionnaires used in this study was mentioned above. As also mentioned above, the researcher likens the method employed in this research to that of mail questionnaires. In terms of the response rate for mail questionnaires, there is no clear consensus on what percentages of the response rate constitutes an acceptable completion rate. Babbie (2007) suggests that an acceptable response rate is 50 percent, while Neuman (2003) suggests that it lies between 10 percent and 50 percent and Czaja

and Blair (1996) believe that a response rate of between 20 percent and 30 percent is acceptable. The percentage yielded in this research is within the range that the authorities indicate as being acceptable. In terms of the guidance offered by the authorities, the researcher believes that 44 percent is an acceptable response rate. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the Manager: Special Projects lent her support to this study. She encouraged the respondents to fill in the questionnaires. However, care was taken to mention to the potential respondents that the exercise was a voluntary one.

4.2.3 Data analysis

According to Durrheim (1999) the first stage of data analysis is the preparatory stage during which the raw data (for this research it was the completed questionnaires) are transformed into a data set in machine-readable format. This preparatory stage involves coding, entering and cleaning of the data.

4.2.3.1 Preparing the data

The researcher drafted a questionnaire that generated two sets of data, that is, quantitative data and qualitative data. The preparation of the two sets of data, for analysis and interpretation, differed.

4.2.3.2 Quantitative data

The mass of data that the researcher receives must be reduced and then analyzed so that a succinct set of conclusions can be reported. The process of reducing the data to a form suitable for analysis is referred to as data reduction. Essentially, data reduction is the transformation of the raw data into a form that can be analyzed. This may involve transforming qualitative data into quantitative data by some form of numerical coding, or recoding existing numerical data into different categories. The coding of the data is done to make the data suitable for computer analysis. Data analysis consists of running various appropriate statistical procedures and tests on the data (Bailey 1994, Neuman 2003, Blaikie 2000).

The primary method of reducing quantitative data is by coding. Coding for computer analysis generally consists of assigning a code number to each answer category so that the answers can be stored in the computer. It is much easier to store and retrieve numbers than it is to store and retrieve letters or words. Therefore, it is necessary to change word or sentence responses to numbers. In essence it means that rather than key in a 'yes' or a 'no' response into the computer, it is much simpler and takes less space to assign each answer a number (for example 'yes' equals 1 and 'no' equals 2) and simply key in the appropriate number into the computer (Bailey 1994).

The keying-in of the appropriate number into the computer is in essence capturing the data. The data entered onto the computer has to be 'cleaned', especially if a survey has a large number of respondents, as proofreading is very difficult. As an alternative to proofreading, researchers resort to a compromise with a crude method of checking for clerical errors. This is often referred to as data cleaning (Bailey 1994). Therefore, it is important to check the accuracy of the coding and entering and to 'clean' the data to ensure that it is free of errors. The programme that the researcher used in this study to capture the data was MS Access. After capturing the data, the researcher checked for accuracy by double-checking the data of 35 questionnaires (every fourth

questionnaire was selected). Thirty-five questionnaires constituted almost a quarter of all the questionnaires received. In all cases the data were captured correctly.

4.2.3.3 Qualitative data

Analysing and interpreting qualitative data are the processes of systematically organizing data received from open-ended questions thus making the data meaningful. It entails organizing the data into ' categories' and giving meaning to those 'categories' (interpretation) (Rossman and Rallis 1998; Blaikie 2000). Qualitative analysis focuses on identifying frequently occurring phenomena, which are often referred to as patterns of behaviour.

The researcher used a number of open-ended items in the questionnaire. The data received in response to the open-ended items were subjected to content analysis. Neuman (2003) points out that content analysis is a technique used for gathering and analysing the content of the text. The researcher grouped text responses with common themes into "categories" and analysed these "categories" of data.

4.2.3.4 Presenting the data

The second stage of data analysis is the selection of relevant sets of data from huge amounts of data. The researcher must select and represent the basis data in a concise but understandable format. The researcher used a combination of tables, graphs and charts to present those data (see Chapter Five).

Cornford and Smithson (1996) state that the purpose of empirical research is not merely to describe what is happening in particular areas but rather to find evidence to support (or reject)

certain ideas or theories. The researcher must ensure that the data are presented with conclusive evidence of relationships between particular sets of data.

4.2.4 Evaluation of the research methodology

Bless and Higson-Smith (2000: 126) argue that no measurement technique in social science is perfect. Therefore, it is important for social science researchers to use reliability and validity to evaluate the measures that have been used. Before engaging in a discussion of reliability and validity, it is important to examine the ethical considerations that guided the study.

4.2.4.1 Ethical considerations

The common understanding of ethics is discerning between what is legitimate or acceptable in pursuit of an aim. With regard to the ethical obligations of the researcher, May (1999: 54) argues that ethical decisions are concerned with what is right or just in the interests of the research and the participants in that research. Ngulube (2003: 23) argues that the variables that form the basis of ethics are honesty, integrity, courtesy and consideration. These variables are expanded by Neuman (1997: 452) to include privacy, anonymity, confidentiality and voluntary consent. With regard to the above, every effort was made to meet the obligations stated in the above. The letter accompanying the questionnaire assured the respondents of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality. The research was supported by the leadership of the LAB and accordingly, an e-mail was sent by the Manager: Special Projects to the Justice Centre Executive or his or her representative, thanking them for supporting the research by completing the questionnaire. Furthermore, the Manager gently urged the Justice Centre Executive to remind their teams to support the research by filling in the questionnaires. An effort was made not to badger the respondents. While the potential respondents were urged to fill in the questionnaire,

they were reminded that their participation was voluntary. The Justice Centre Executive or the representative assisted the researcher in co-ordinating the research.

In reporting the findings the researcher was careful to report honestly without falsifying the findings. Even if the findings were not complimentary of the organization, the researcher made every effort to present the findings reached. The researcher attempted to reveal all processes and data as accurately as possible.

4.2.4.2 Reliability and validity

There are two important considerations, according to Leedy (1993: 40) in social research, namely reliability and validity. Reliability deals with accuracy of the instrument. It asks questions such as how accurate the instrument is that is used in making the measurement (Leedy 1993: 42). Validity, on the other hand, is concerned with the soundness or the effectiveness of the instrument. Validity will raise questions such as what the test measures, whether it measures what it is supposed to measure and how well, comprehensively and accurately it measures it? Kidder in May (1999: 68) sums up these two important concepts when he states that the research is valid when the conclusions are true. It is reliable when the findings are repeatable.

It is clear that the principle of replicating the survey with the same results using the same type of sampling and questionnaire is central to reliability and validity. However, in the case of this research, replication of the study was not feasible. As mentioned throughout this study, legal professionals are pressed for time, hence it was the opinion of the researcher that the possible respondents may not accord the researcher their time to complete the questionnaire more than once. However, the researcher did make every attempt to ensure that there was internal consistency in the instrument, that is, all the items meant the same to all the possible

respondents. This was done by conducting pretests. Pretesting was discussed earlier in this chapter.

In this study, the researcher began with an in-depth review of the literature to determine the theoretical background to the study. Such a review enabled the researcher to determine the information that was relevant to the study and which instrument was best suited to uncover this information. It was on this basis that the questions were designed to secure the relevant information. By following this process the researcher was able to link the items in the questionnaire (and thus the instrument as a whole) to the theoretical components of the research, thereby contributing to the validity of the study.

4.3 Summary

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) discussed the importance of the researcher bringing all the research components together and creating a link, as advised by Durrheim (1999), between the research objectives and the questions and the implementation of the research. This chapter discussed the research methodology and the data-collection technique employed in the study. The data-collection technique employed in this study was the questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed to the professional members of the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. The data received from the questionnaires were fed into a database created through MS Access. After the data had been cleaned, by randomly checking its accuracy, this chapter sought to put forward how the data were presented and discussed. Both the presentation and the discussion of the data were set against the background of the GWU model of knowledge management.

CHAPTER FIVE: PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This research investigated knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management, at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. The primary focus of this chapter is to present the findings of the research which will contribute significantly to the analysis chapter (Chapter Six). As advised by Guidry (2003), the value of the presentation of data is to "enlighten" the reader. Hence, the presentation of the data in this chapter is intended to provide that enlightenment in preparation for the discussion in the ensuing chapters.

The researcher acknowledges that a presentation chapter should be devoid of discussion; however, there are elements of discussion and cross-tabulations in this presentation chapter. The rationale for this deviation from the norm is based on the argument that the presentation chapter was expounded item by item while the discussion chapter was constructed thematically. This difference meant that some of the items presented in this chapter could not be included in the discussion chapter. The researcher believed that adding these items were meaningful and contributed to the strength of the research. The discussion chapter was constructed thematically in order to add value by providing a global perspective of the relevant issues.

In this chapter, the researcher will present the data collected via the questionnaires (**Appendix 1**) administered to legal professionals at the various Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. For the purpose of clarification, " **No**" used in the tables denotes number; and "**%**" denotes percentage.

5.2 Presentation of findings

As indicated above, the data-collection technique used was the questionnaire. The findings, after using the aforementioned technique, are presented in terms of the research questions and sub-questions, which were discussed in Chapter Four and are reiterated below:

The questionnaire was designed to address the five core research areas. The first research question is 'To what extent is there evidence of knowledge management at the LAB?' The sub-questions associated with the above core research question are:

- Have personnel members been dedicated to knowledge management?
- Is the concept of knowledge management understood at the LAB?

The second research question is, 'To what extent does the leadership (at national, regional and justice centre levels) actively encourage and support knowledge-sharing at the LAB?'.

The third research question is, 'To what extent does knowledge-sharing occur at the LAB?' The related sub-questions are:

- The actual experiences of sharing knowledge; and
- Reasons for sharing.

The fourth research question is, 'Does the working environment at the LAB actively facilitate knowledge-sharing?' The sub-questions, related to the main research question, are:

- The communication that occurs;
- The training and mentoring practices; and
- Whether the technology at the LAB acts as an enabler for knowledge-sharing.

The fifth and final research question is, 'Are there incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing?'

To reiterate, to answer the above research questions, the research technique employed was the questionnaire.

The researcher presents the findings, item by item, as reflected in the questionnaire.

5.2.1.1 Distribution of respondents

The first four items in the questionnaire concern biographical details. The results of the first item, that is - "**At which justice centre do you work**?" - is presented below. The researcher chose to include only the professional staff of the Justice Centres of the LAB. The researcher identified a professional as one who had a law degree. The rationale for this was that the researcher believed that the highest level of work-related knowledge resides with those that hold a law degree. Having been educated by obtaining a degree implied that the complexity of the work increased. As the complexity of the work increased, so too did the requirement for knowledge.

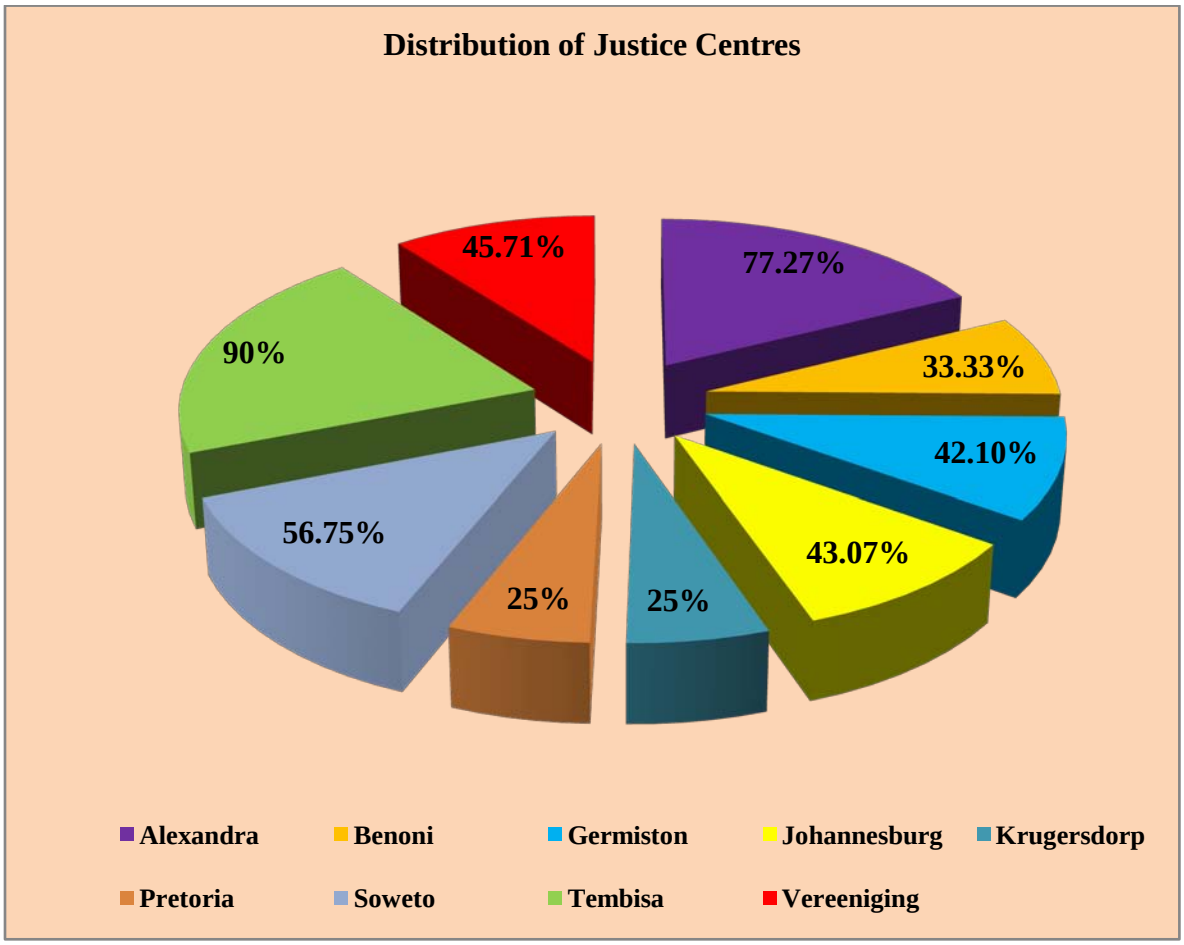
Table 2: Distribution of respondents

Justice Centres	Numbers of questionnaires distributed	Number of responses received	% of responses received
Alexandra	22	17	77.27 %
Benoni	39	13	33.33 %
Germiston	19	8	42.10 %
Johannesburg	65	28	43.07 %
Krugersdorp	28	7	25 %
Pretoria	60	15	25 %
Soweto	37	21	56.75 %
Tembisa	20	18	90 %
Vereeniging	35	16	45.71 %
Total	**325**	**143**	**44** %

The aggregate response was **143 (44 percent)** of the **325** respondents to whom the questionnaire was administered. Thus the response rate was 44 percent. The **Tembisa Justice Centre** yielded the highest response with a **90 percent response rate**. The lowest responses were from the **Krugersdorp Justice Centre** and the **Pretoria Justice Centre**. The completion rate, for both **Krugersdorp and Pretoria Justice Centres** was **25** percent each.

The distribution of the responses received is presented in the figure below, clearly demonstrating the **90 percent** response rate by the **Tembisa Justice Centre**.

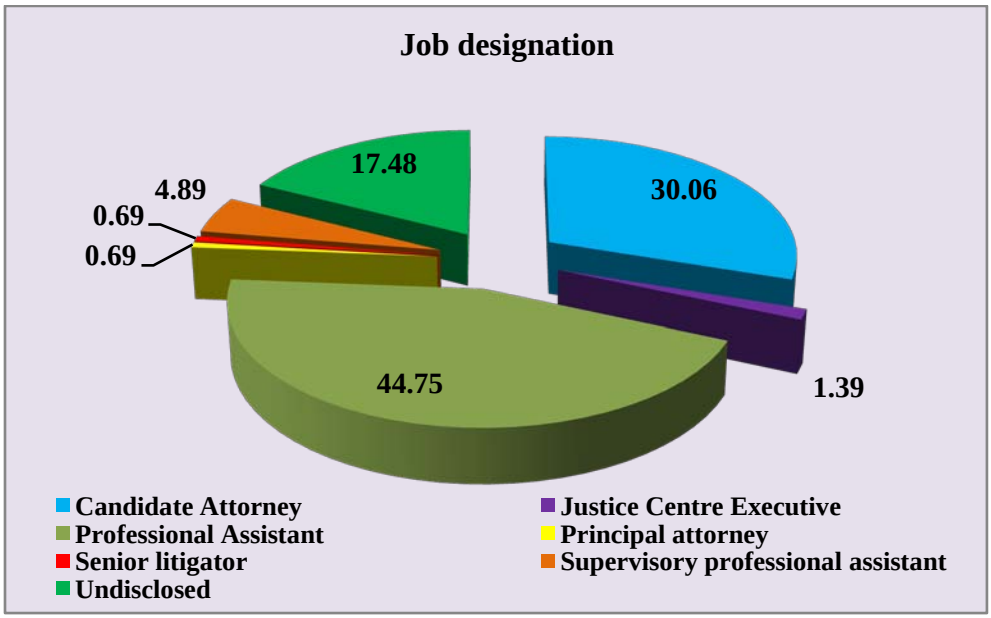
Figure 3 (N = 143)



5.2.1.2 Job designation

As indicated earlier, the researcher targeted only professional staff. Among the professional staff there are various job designations. The researcher thought it would be important to identify the group in which the level of sharing was highest. The researcher asserts that the lower the professional is on the hierarchical rung, the higher the level of sharing is. In order to substantiate this assertion, the researcher cross-tabulated job designations to item 2.1. Item 2.1 asked the respondents if they believed that sharing took place at the LAB. A hundred (100) percent of the justice centre executives claimed that there was sharing at the LAB. However, in comparison with CAs, 88.38 percent claimed that sharing did take place. This contradicts the assertion made by the researcher. However, note should be taken of the difference in responses from the two job designations – 43 of the total number of respondents were CAs while 2 were justice centre executives.

Figure 4 (N = 143)

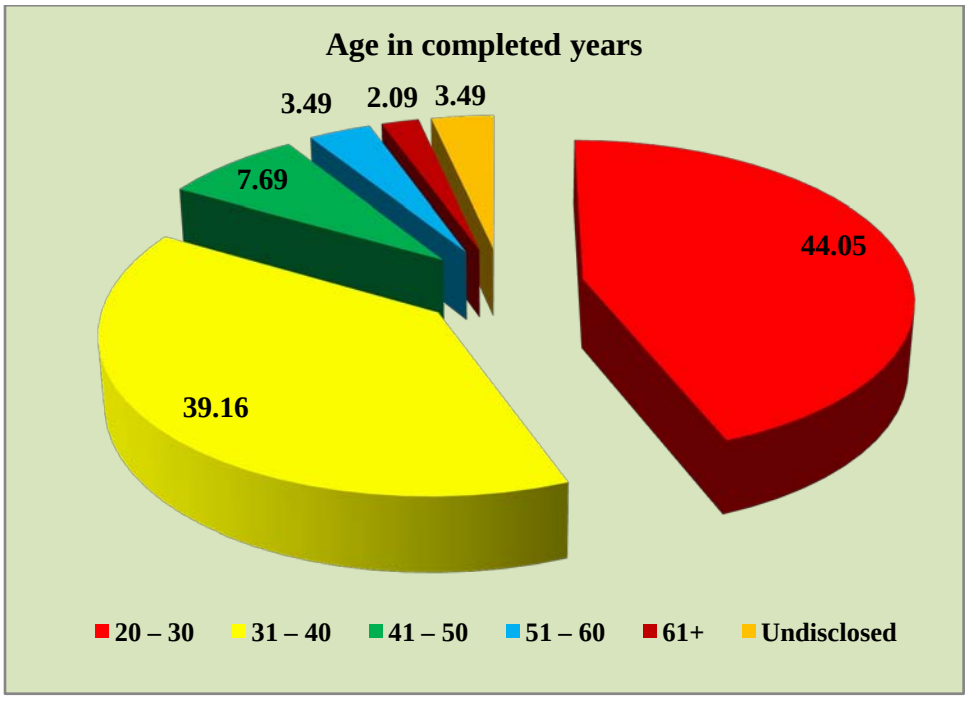


The **highest** number of **responses (64),** which equates to **44.75 percent**, was received from the **professional assistants**. This was followed by the **CAs**, of whom **43** completed the questionnaires. This translated to a return rate of **30.06 percent**. This is measured against the total number of completed questionnaires received.

5.2.1.3 Age

The **highest number** of responses in the age category was from the age group **20 to 30**. The **CAs** fell into this category. CAs are those lawyers who have graduated recently. CAs are entry-level lawyers and will rely on knowledge-sharing in order to gain experience in the profession. The level of the responses decreases as the age increases.

Figure 5 (N = 143)



5.2.1.4 Sex

Of the **143** respondents, **60** (**41.9 percent**) respondents were **female**, **82** (**57.34 percent**) were **male** and **1** (**0.60 percent**) did not disclose his or her sex. There was a higher response from males. Connelly and Kelloway (2003) found in a study that there was no direct link between sex and knowledge-sharing. Nevertheless they inferred that females are more 'socialable' than males and consequently more likely to share than males. To test Connelly and Kelloway's assertion, the researcher did a cross-tabulation between sex and sharing. The results of the cross tabulation indicate that **98.3 percent of females** were of the opinion that knowledge-sharing occurred at the LAB while **92.7 percent of males** were of the opinion that sharing took place. The researcher acknowledges that she should have probed the issue of whether or not respondents personally engaged in knowledge-sharing to corroborate the findings of the literature. Nonetheless, the view of the respondents (**135 respondents, 94.4 percent**) is that knowledge-sharing does take place at the LAB.

However, Lin and Lee (2006) argue that there is greater sharing of knowledge among females when it comes to performing work and facilitating the transfer of physical informational or financial resources in a group. This is regarded as workplace partnerships. However, more knowledge-sharing occurred among males with regard to friendships based outside and within the workplace (Lin and Lee 2006).

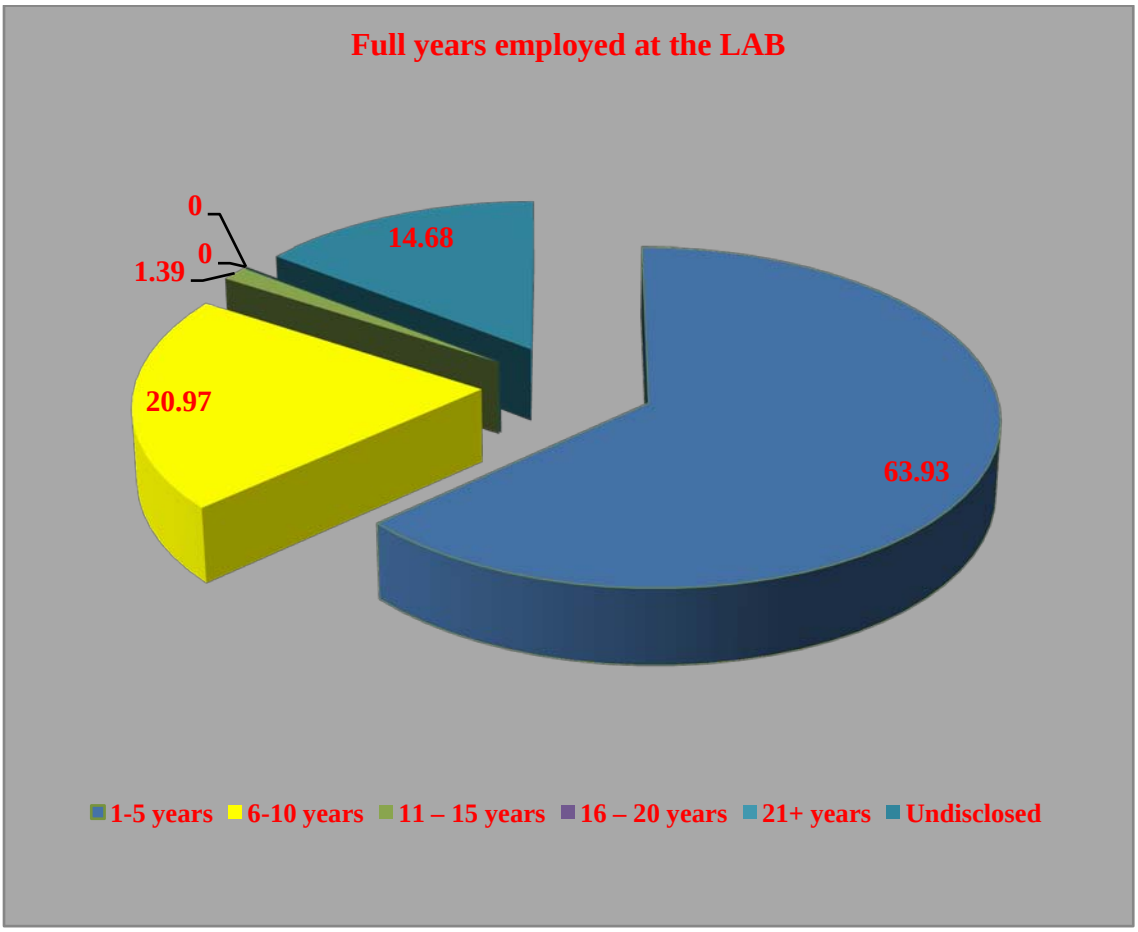
In terms of age, the following results were identified:

- Age group 20 to 30: 63 (44.05%)
- Age group 31 to 40: 56 (39.16%)
- Age group 41 to 50: 11 (7.69%)
- Age group 51 to 60: 5 (3.49%)
- Age group 61+: 3 (2.09%)
- Undisclosed: 5 (3.49 %)

5.2.1.5 Work Tenure

Connelly and Kelloway (2003) found that there was a link between workplace tenure and knowledge-sharing. According to the authors, employees with a shorter organizational tenure were more likely to share knowledge and information. There were **90** respondents (**63.93 percent**) who remarked that they had worked at the LAB for from **1 to 5 years**. This was the highest category in which people were working.

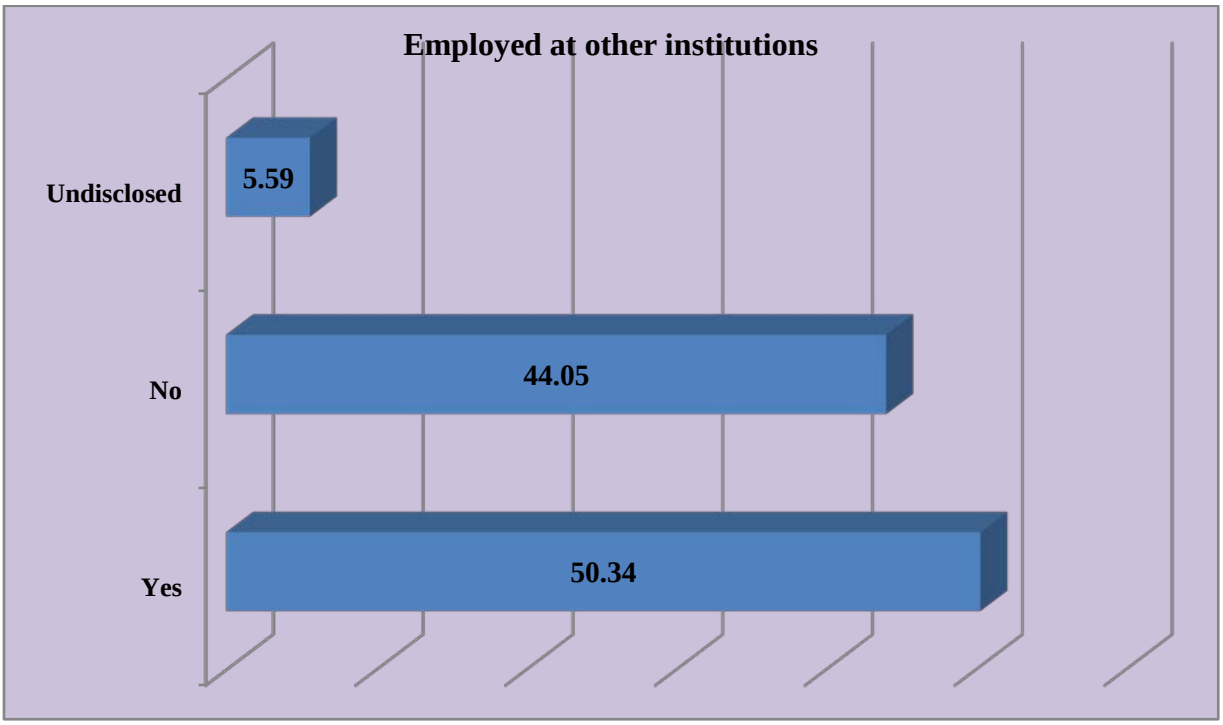
Figure 6 (N = 143)



5.2.1.6.1 Employment at the LAB

The '**yes**' response to the question of whether the respondents had worked at other institutions other than the LAB received **72** answers (**50.34 percent**), while **63** respondents (**44.05 percent**) did not work in any institution other than the LAB.

Figure 7 (N = 143)

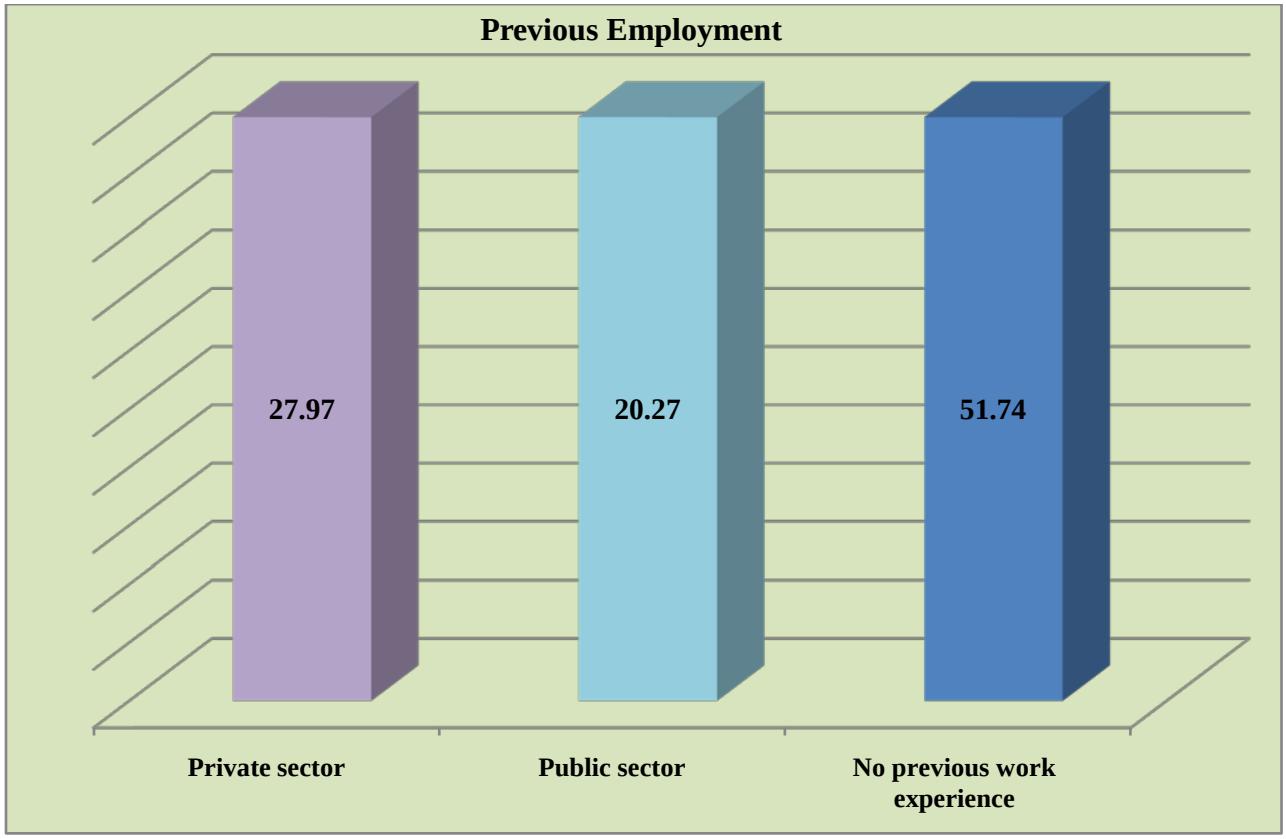


5.2.1.6.2 Employment history

Serenko, Bontis and Hardie (2007) posit that there is a higher level of knowledge-sharing in private-sector organizations than in public organizations. It was in response to the assertion made by these authors that the researcher drew from the various responses received from the questionnaires, three categories of previous work experience, namely private-sector experience, public-sector experience and not having previous work experience. The completion rate for those **not previously** employed was the **highest** in the three categories. Seventy-four (**74**) respondents (**51.74 percent**) were **not previously employed**. Forty (**40**) individuals (**27.97 percent**) who completed the questionnaire alleged to have worked previously in the **private**

sector, while **29** respondents (**20.27 percent**) remarked that they had previously worked in the **public sector**.

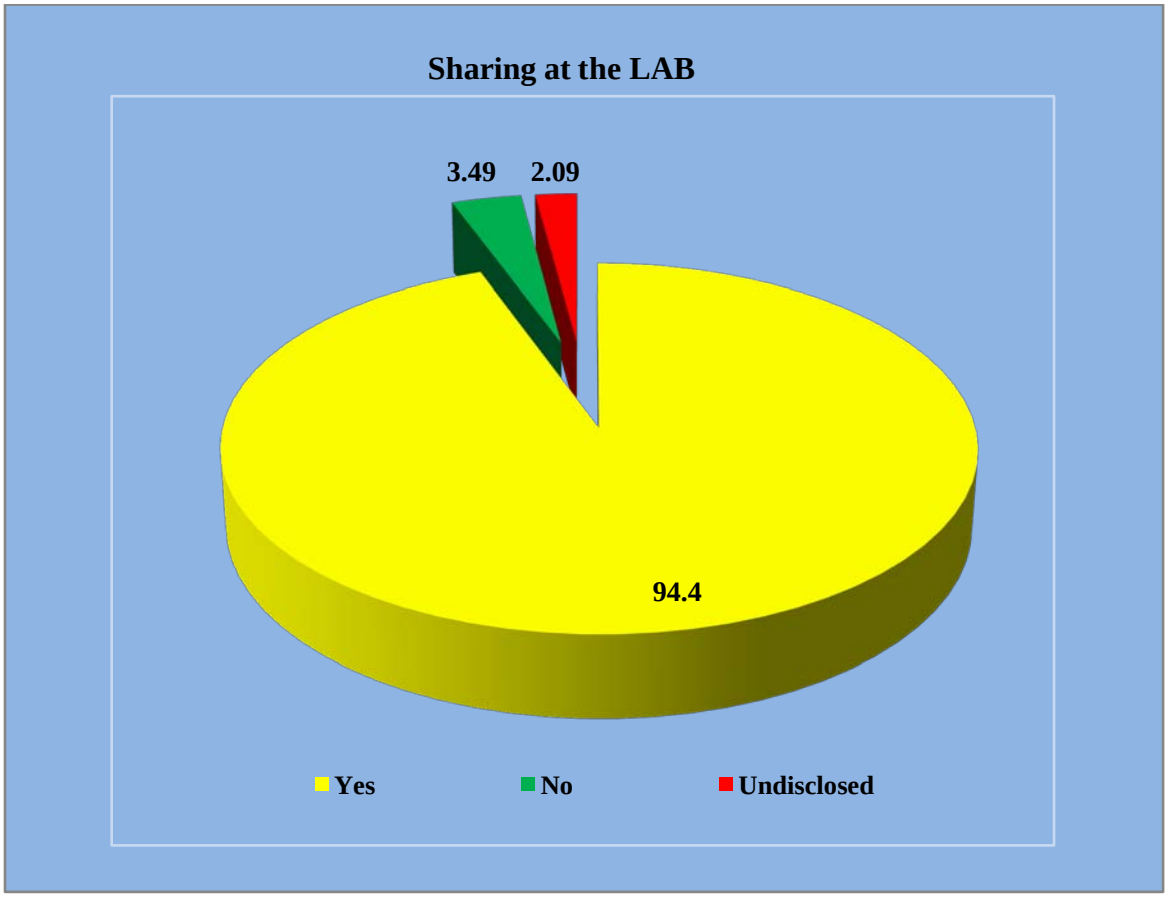
Figure 8 (N = 143)



5.2.2.1 Knowledge-sharing at the LAB

Lambe (2003) asserts that legal organizations are knowledge-intensive organizations. Legal organizations are well poised to become knowledge-sharing entities. There were a high number of respondents who claimed that sharing of knowledge took place at the LAB. A hundred and thirty-five (**135**) respondents were of the opinion that **sharing** of knowledge took place at the LAB. Five (**5**) respondents (3.49 percent) said that **no sharing** of information occurred at the LAB.

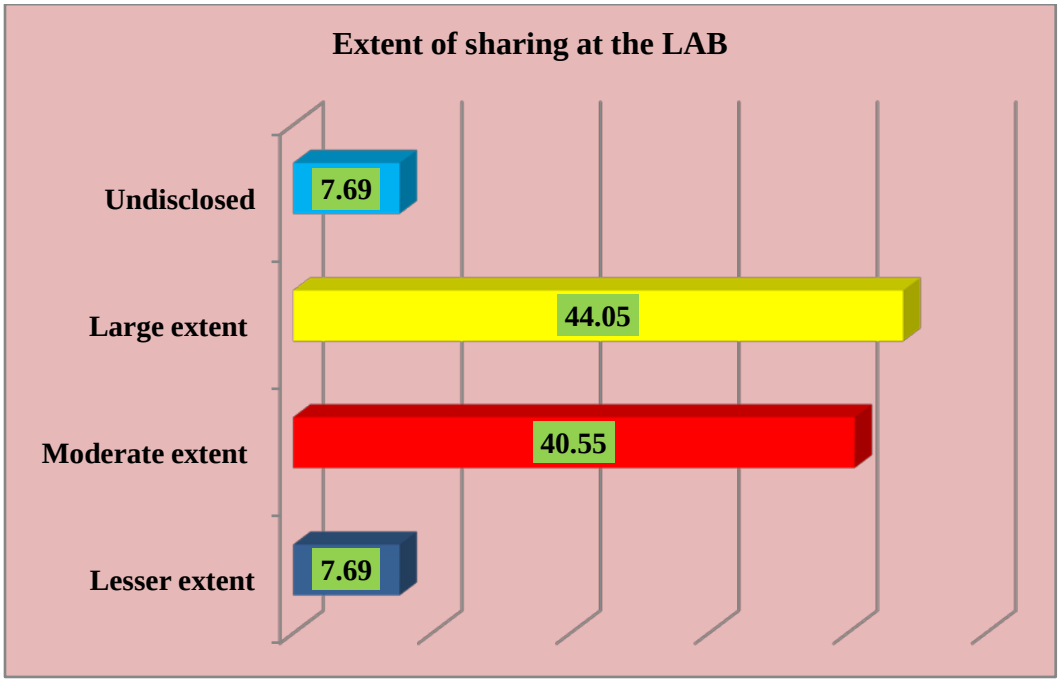
Figure 9 (N = 143)



5.2.2.1.1 Extent of knowledge-sharing at the LAB

Sixty-three (**63**) respondents (**44.05 percent**) believed that a large degree of knowledge-sharing occurred at the LAB. Fifty-eight (**58**) respondents (**40.55 percent**) remarked that sharing of knowledge was done to a **moderate extent**. Eleven (**11**) respondents (or **7.69 percent**) believed that sharing at the LAB occurred to a l**esser extent**. The graph below represents the extent of sharing of knowledge at the LAB.

Figure 10 (N = 143)

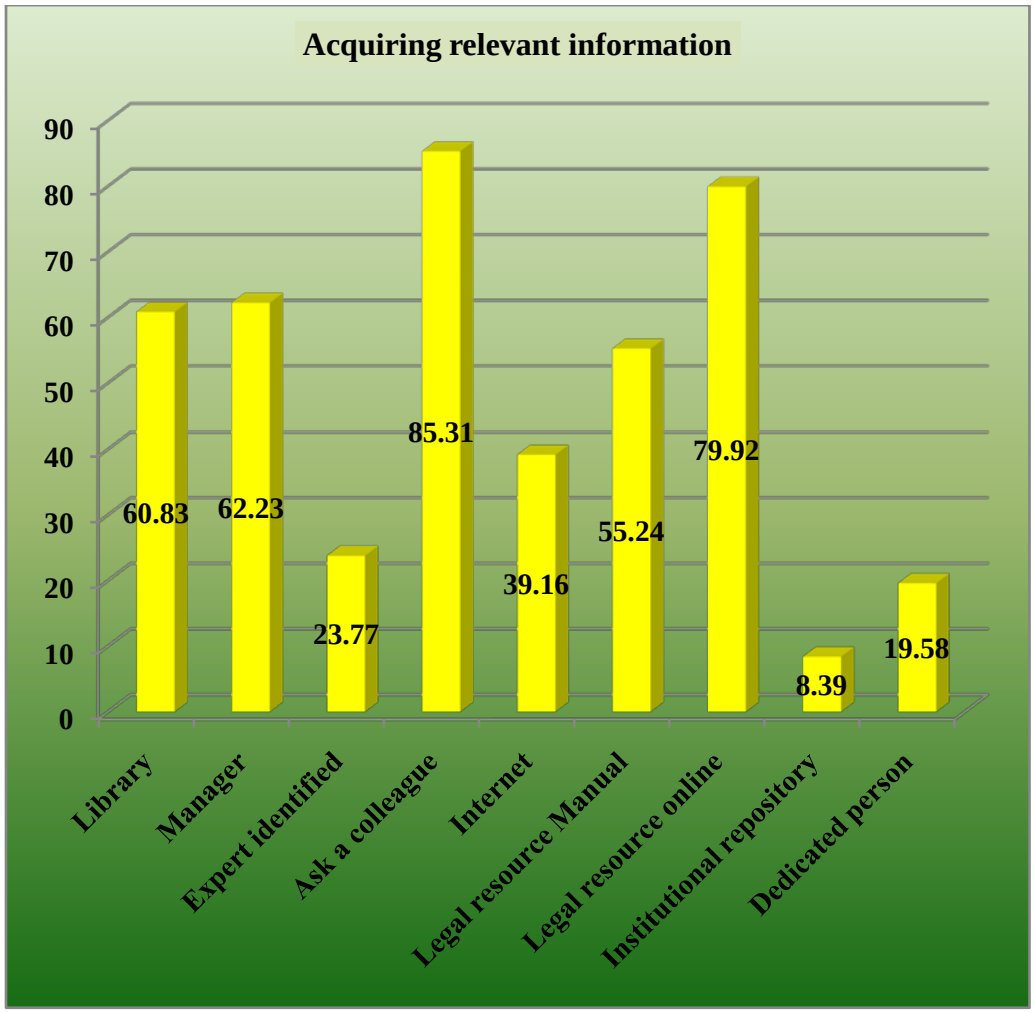


Although the above questions do not fall neatly into any of the pillars of the GWU model of knowledge management, the researcher believes that knowledge-sharing is closely aligned to learning. The GWU model of knowledge management comprises four pillars, namely,

leadership, learning, organization and technology (Stankosky 2005). The purpose of the above was to understand whether the respondents believed that sharing of knowledge occurred at the LAB and secondly, the extent of that sharing.

5.2.2.2 Acquisition of information for work purposes

Figure 11 (N = 143)



Efficient acquisition of knowledge and information improves the efficacy of an organization. Members of an organization employ a variety of tools in their quest to find knowledge and information. Peer-to-peer learning is strong at the LAB. A hundred and twenty-two (**122**) respondents (**85.31 percent**) **asked a colleague** for assistance with acquiring information. This was followed by the use of **online legal resources**. A percentage of **79.72** used the **legal online resources**. Twelve (**12**) respondents (**8.39 percent**) used the **institutional repository** and **28** respondents (**19.59 percent**) used a **dedicated person**.

5.2.3 Benefits and climate of knowledge-sharing

Table 3: Benefits and climate of knowledge-sharing

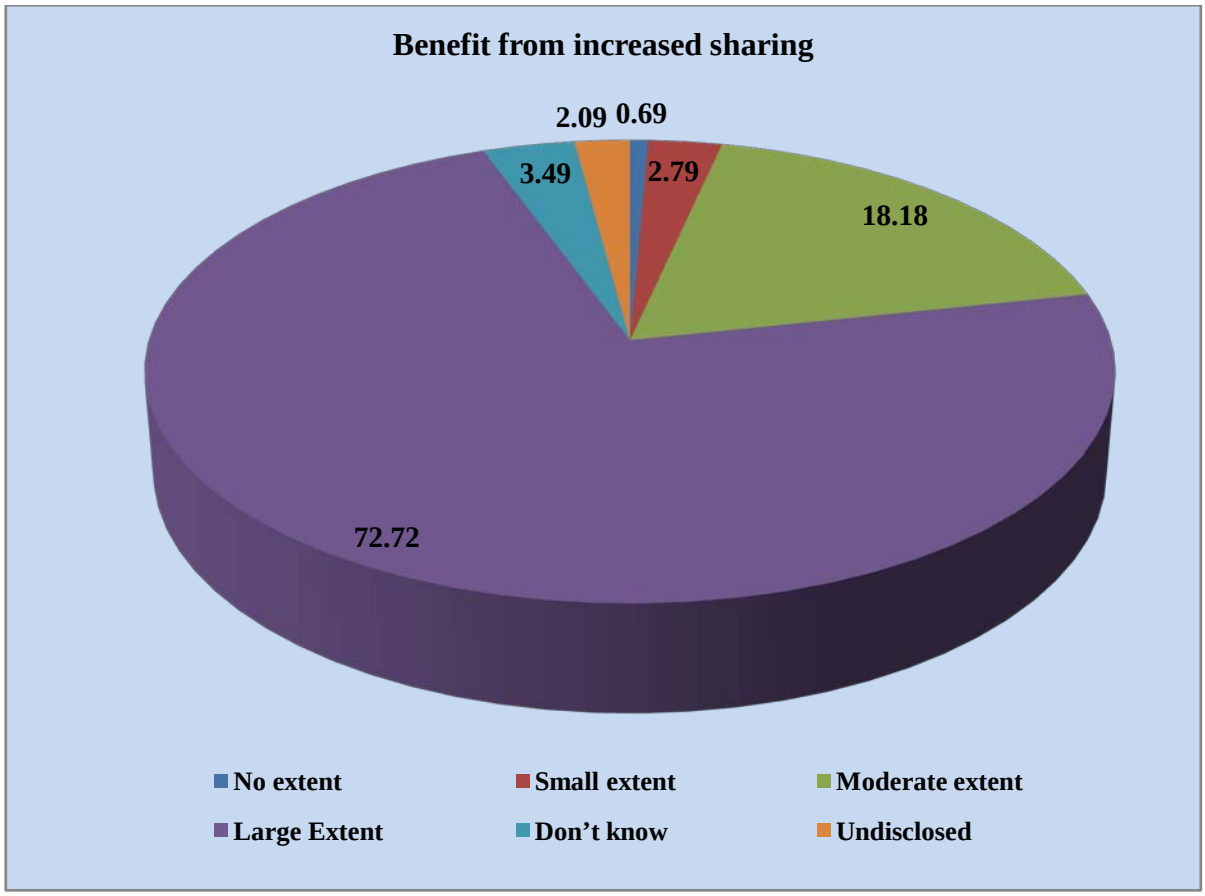
	No extent		Small extent		Moderate extent		Large Extent		Don't know		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
You will benefit from increased sharing	1	0.69	4	2.79	26	18.18	104	72.72	5	3.49	3	2.09
Knowledge-sharing is encouraged and promoted	1	0.69	8	5.59	42	29.37	88	61.53	1	0.69	3	2.09
Knowledge-sharing is facilitated	5	3.49	11	7.69	49	34.26	70	48.95	2	1.39	6	4.19
Climate of trust at the LAB	8	5.59	16	11.18	49	34.26	60	41.95	5	3.49	5	3.49
Climate of openness at the LAB	8	5.59	15	10.48	48	33.56	63	44.05	4	2.79	5	3.49

The above item related to the organization pillar of the GWU model of knowledge management. In terms of the GWU model of knowledge management, **organization** refers to the operational aspects of knowledge assets, including functions, processes, formal and informal organizational structures, control measures and metrics, process improvement, and business process re-engineering operations (Stankosky 2005). The four pillars of the GWU model of knowledge management are discussed in Section 2.6 of Chapter Two. The above item addressed the cultural aspect of organization. It looked at the benefits and habits of sharing. The highest number of responses fell into the category of "**large extent**" in the categories of **benefit from increased sharing** and **knowledge-sharing is encouraged and promoted**. A hundred and four (**104**) respondents (or **72.72 percent**) and **88**

respondents (or **61.53 percent**) commented on the above, respectively. One (**1**) respondent in each case (**0.69 percent**) alleged that there was **no extent** of **benefit from increased** sharing and **knowledge-sharing is encouraged and promoted**.

5.2.3.1 Benefit from increased sharing

Figure 12 (N = 143)

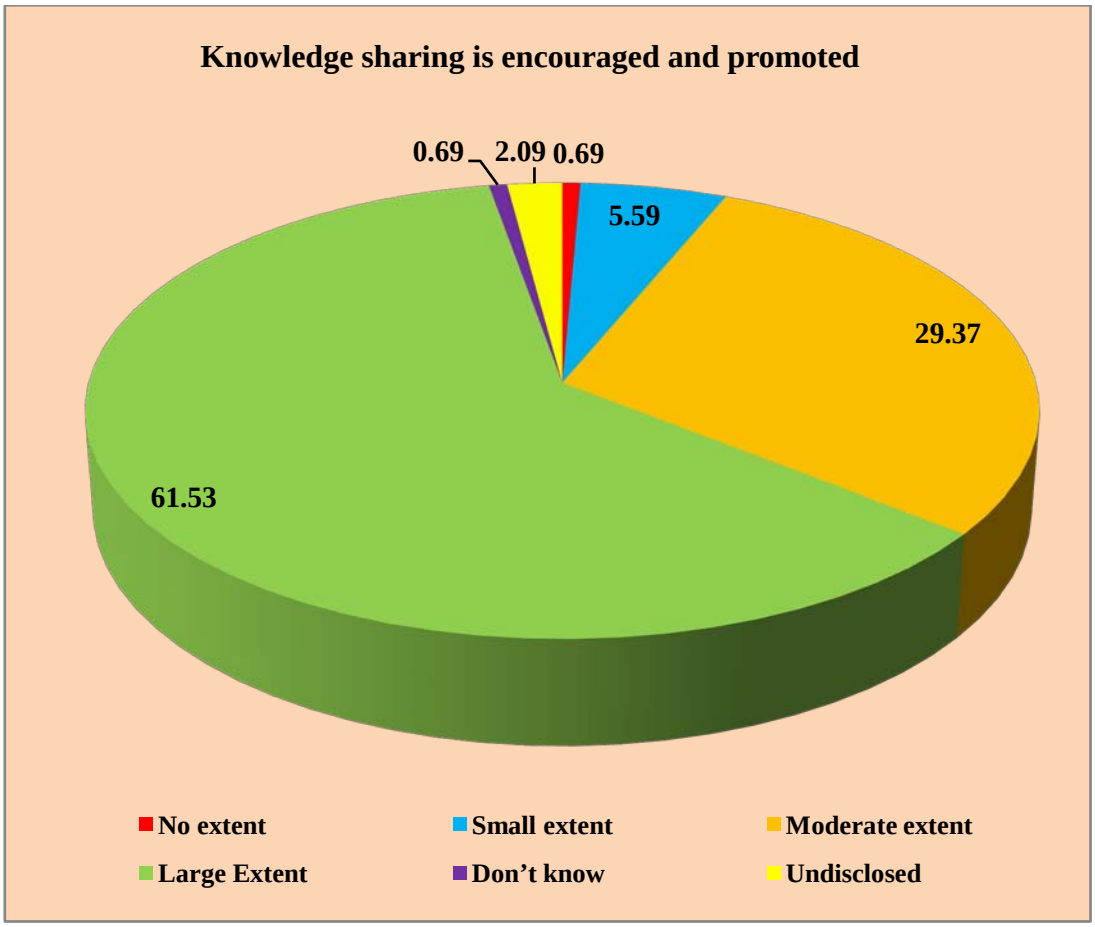


One (**1**) (**0.69 percent**) respondent alleged that there was **no extent** of benefit from increased sharing. Four (**4)** respondents (**2.79 percent**) felt it contributed to a **small extent** and **5** respondents (**3.49 percent**) **did not know**. However, **104** respondents (**72.72 percent**) believed that the benefits of increased sharing were determined to a **large extent**. This means that the large majority of respondents believed that there could be significant benefits from sharing knowledge. According to the literature, Yang (2004) defines knowledge-sharing as the dissemination of information and

knowledge through the whole organization. Senge (1990) admits to Yang's definition but adds that knowledge-sharing involves producing the results that one wants out of life. In order words knowledge-sharing has a purpose.

5.2.3.2 Knowledge-sharing is encouraged and promoted

Figure 13 (N = 143)

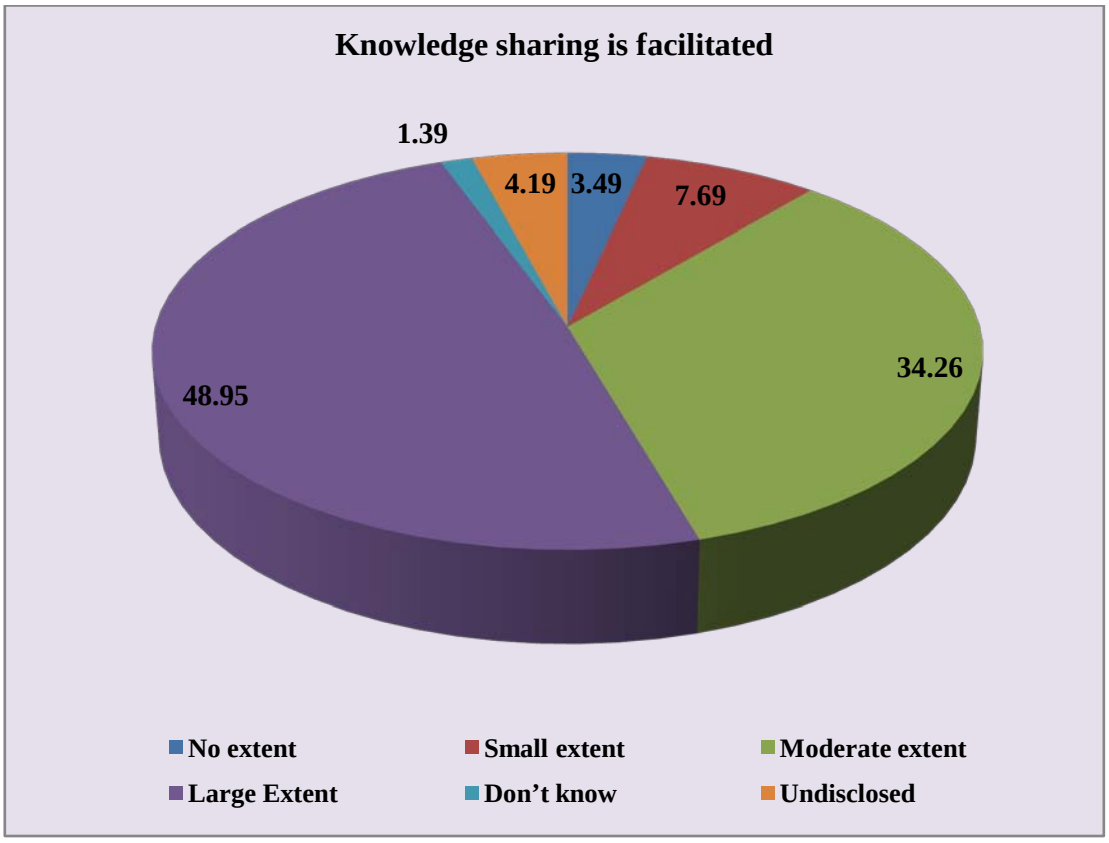


This item was included to test whether knowledge-sharing was encouraged and promoted at the LAB. In response to the item, forty-two (**42**) respondents (**29.37 percent**) believed that knowledge-sharing is, to a moderate extent, encouraged and promoted at the LAB. The respondents who claimed a **large extent** numbered **88** individuals (**61.53** percent). One (**1 or 0.69 percent**) respondent believed that **knowledge-sharing is not encouraged and promoted** to **any extent.** A

further respondent (**0.69 percent**) indicated that he or she **did not know** whether knowledge-sharing was encouraged and promoted at the LAB.

5.2.3.3 Knowledge-sharing is facilitated

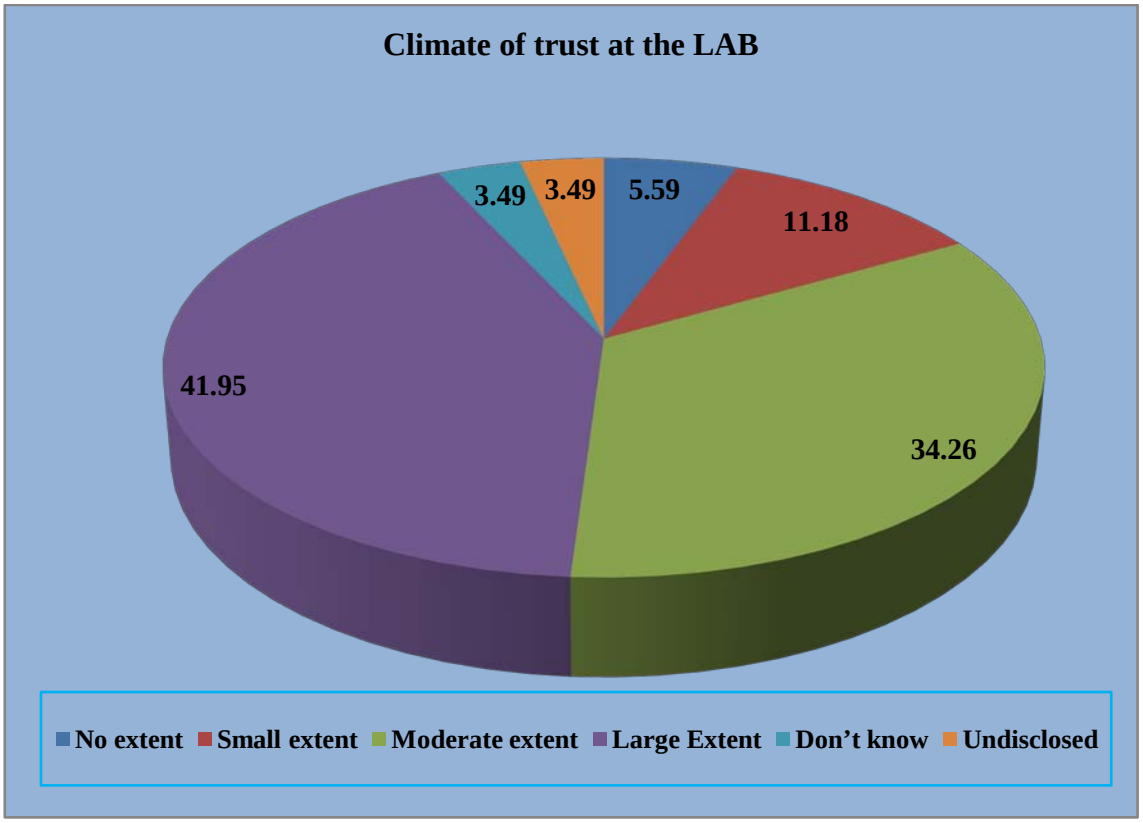
Figure 14 (N = 143)



Two (**2**) respondents (**1.39 percent**) did not know whether knowledge-sharing was facilitated at the LAB. Seventy (**70**) respondents (**48.95 percent**) believed that it was to a large extent; while **49** respondents (**34.26 percent**) believed that it occurred to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.3.4 Climate of trust

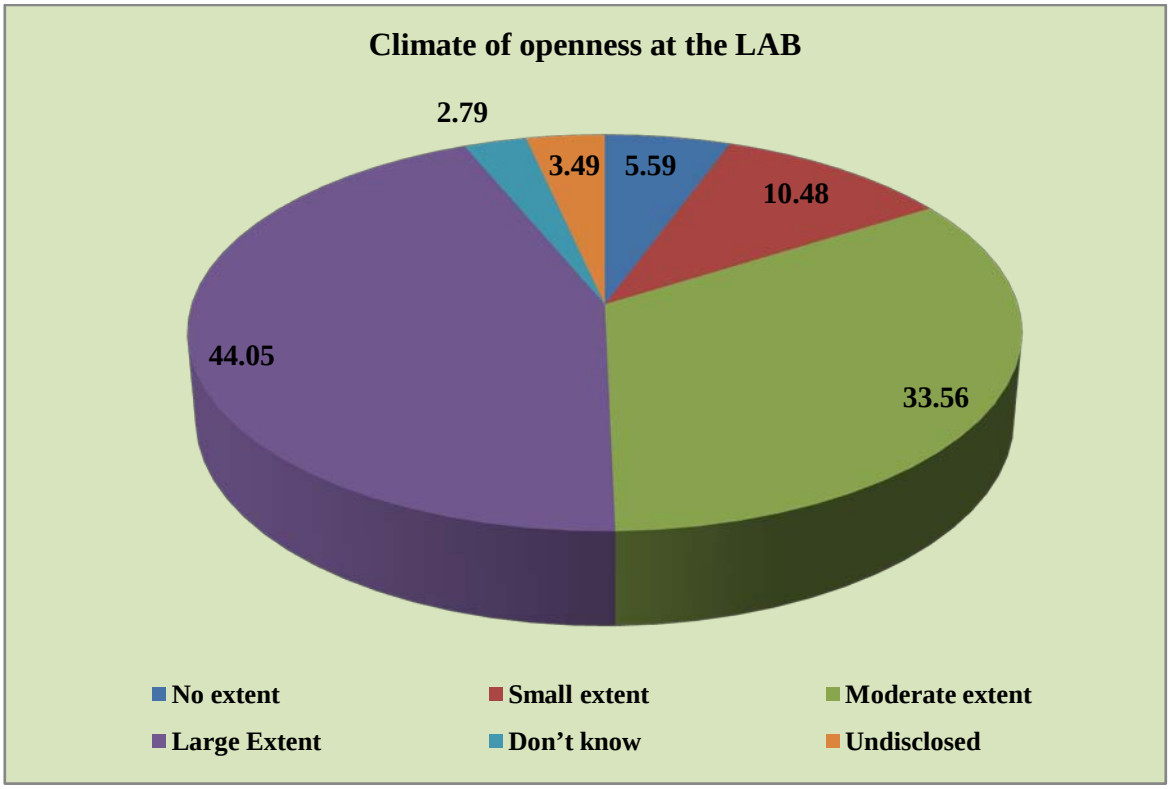
Figure 15 (N = 143)



The issue of trust is raised in Chapter Three under the heading knowledge-sharing and organizational culture. Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007) cite trust as an important factor in developing an organizational culture where knowledge-sharing becomes part of the culture of the members of the organization. Sixty (**60**) respondents (**41.95 percent**) claimed that to a **large extent** a **climate of trust** existed at the LAB, while **5** respondents (**3.49 percent**) **did not know**. Sixteen (**16)** respondents (**11.18 percent**) alleged that a climate of trust existed to a **small extent**. Forty-nine (**49**) respondents (**34.26** percent) declared that it was noticeable to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.3.5 Climate of openness

Figure 16 (N = 143)



A climate of openness implies that there is openness of communication between the leadership and the rest of the organization. Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007) believe oral communication between all members of the organization is important in the knowledge-sharing culture of an organization. Four (**4**) (**2.79 percent**) of the respondents believed that they **did not know** whether a climate of openness existed at the LAB. Eight (**8)** respondents (**5.59 percent**) believed that there was **no extent** to which it occurred. This means that 5.59 percent of the respondents believed that there was absolutely no climate of openness at the LAB. Sixty-three (**63**) respondents (**44.05 percent**) believed that a climate of openness prevailed at the LAB to a **large extent**. A further **48** respondents (**33.56 percent**) felt that such a climate existed to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.4 Motivation for sharing knowledge

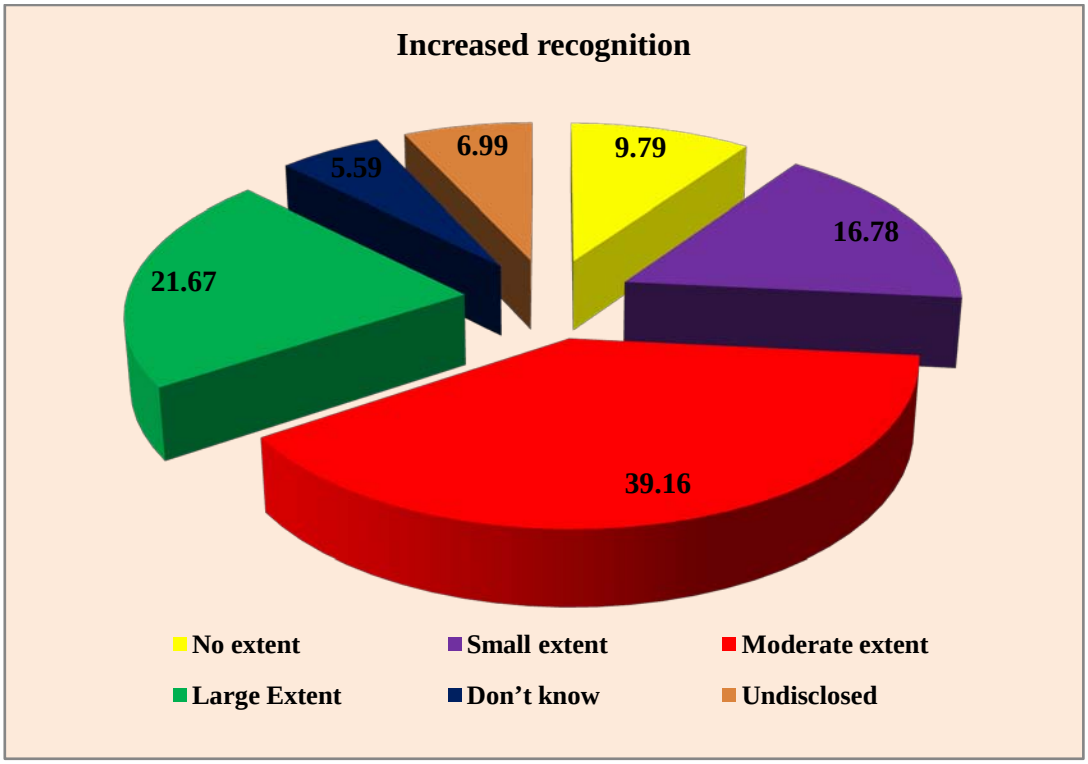
Table 4: Motivation for sharing knowledge

	No extent		**Small extent**		**Moderate extent**		**Large Extent**		**Don't know**		**Undisclosed**	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Increased recognition	14	9.79	24	16.78	56	39.16	31	21.67	8	5.59	10	6.99
Support strategic objectives of the LAB	13	9.09	27	18.88	52	36.36	31	21.67	9	6.29	11	7.69
Enhance career opportunities	5	3.49	18	12.58	44	30.76	60	41.95	6	4.19	10	6.99
For altruistic intentions	12	8.39	15	10.48	51	35.66	28	19.58	17	11.88	20	13.98

The rationale for including the above item in the questionnaire was to understand the motivation behind knowledge-sharing at the LAB. In order words, the researcher wanted to understand the reasons for knowledge-sharing at the LAB. The researcher identified "**increased recognition**", "**enhance career opportunities**" and "**altruistic intentions**" as producing intangible personal rewards. "**Support strategic objectives of the LAB**" occurs as organizational motivation. Syed-Ikhsan (2004) asserts that employees need a strong motivator in order to share knowledge. Of the **143** respondents, the category "**enhance career opportunities**" yielded the highest number of responses. Sixty (**60**) respondents (**41.95 percent**) indicated that sharing to enhance career opportunities took place to a **large extent**. This was followed by **39.16 percent** (**56** respondents) who indicated that **increased recognition** contributed to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.4.1 Increased recognition

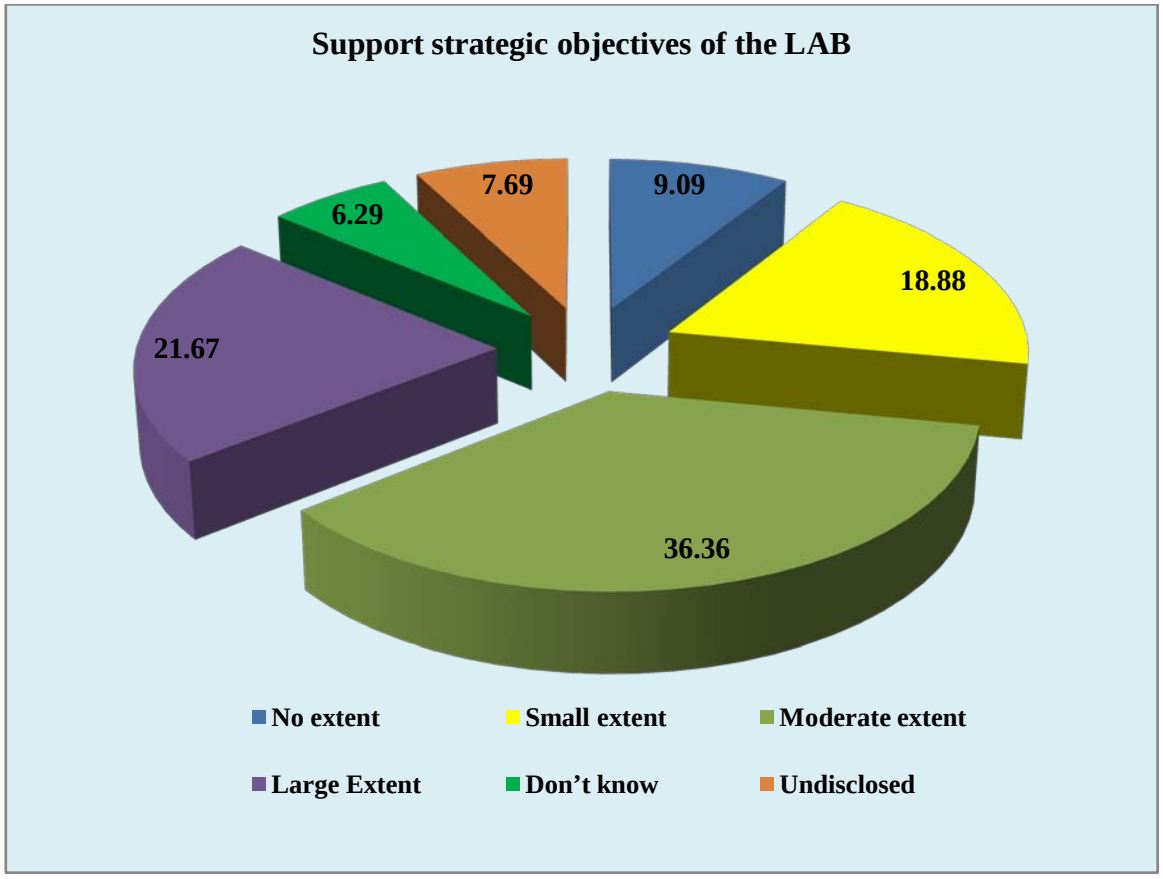
Figure 17 (N = 143)



Increased recognition means that the respondents will share their knowledge provided that others are aware of the sharing. Fifty-six (**56**) respondents (**39.16 percent**) indicated that increased recognition adds to a **moderate extent** to the reasons for sharing. Eight of the respondents (**5.59 percent) s**aid that they **did not know** whether increased recognition contributed to knowledge-sharing at the LAB.

5.2.4.2 Support strategic objectives of the LAB

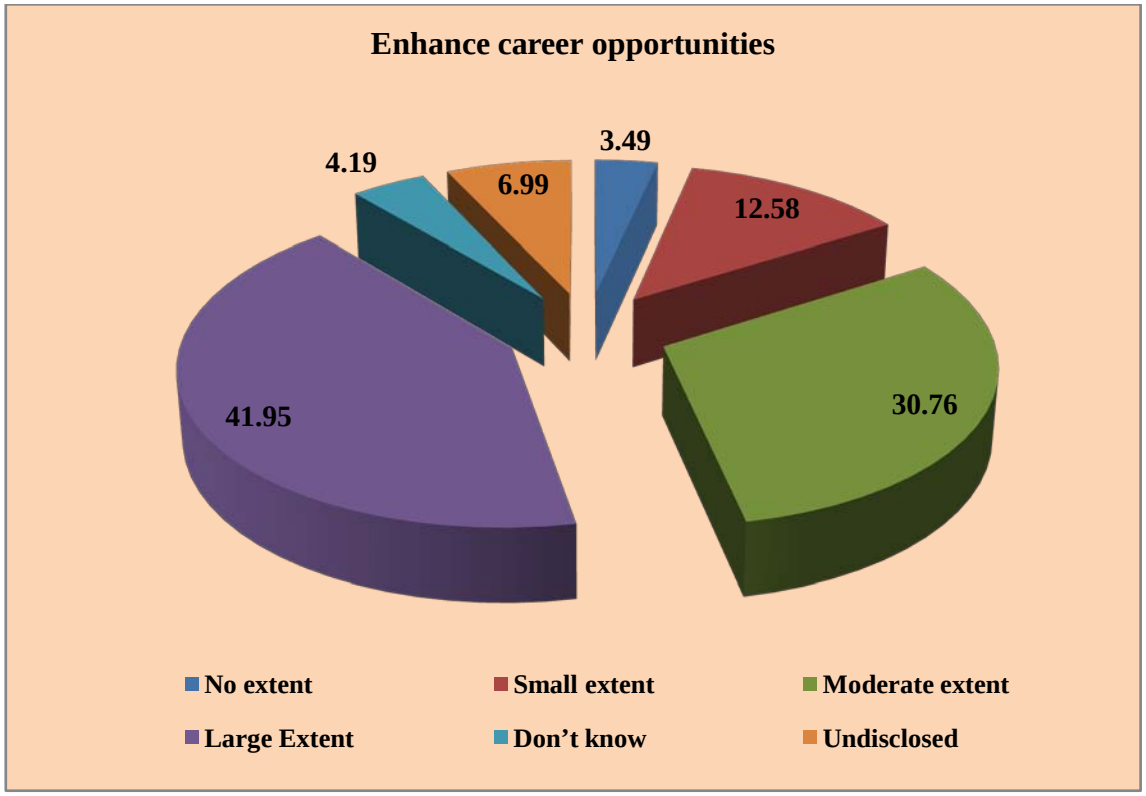
Figure 18 (N = 143)



Fifty-two (**52**) of the respondents (**36.36 percent**) found that **sharing to support the strategic objectives** of the LAB occurred to a **moderate extent**. Thirty-one (**31**) respondents (**21.67 percent**) claimed that the above took place to a **large extent**. Nine (**9**) (**6.29 percent**) **did not know**.

5.2.4.3 Enhance career opportunities

Figure 19 (N = 143)

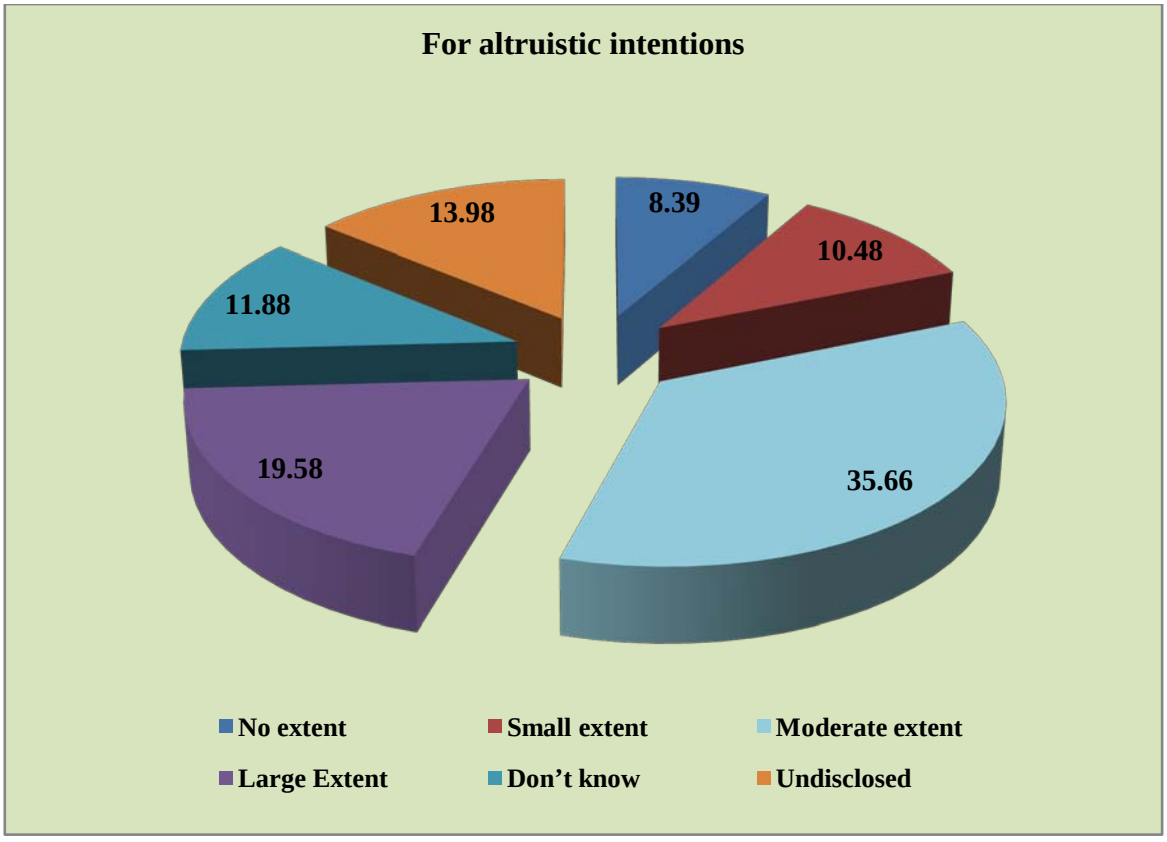


This item looked at whether knowledge-sharing influenced career ambitions. In response to this issue **60** respondents (**41.95 percent**) found that knowledge-sharing, to a **large extent**, **enhanced career opportunities.** Five (**5**) respondents (**3.49 percent**) indicated that enhancing of career opportunities occurred to **no extent** and **6** respondents (**4.19 percent**) **did not know**.

5.2.4.4 Altruistic intentions

The researcher interpreted "altruistic" as "common good". Therefore, this item probed this issue in an attempt to understand whether advancing the "common good" affected knowledge-sharing at the LAB. It was found that more than a third of the respondents (**35.66 percent**) found that sharing "for **altruistic intentions**" contributed **moderately**. Twelve (**12**) respondents (**8.39 percent**) remarked that it occurred to **no extent**, while **17** respondents (**11.88 percent**) **did not know**.

Figure 20 (N = 143)



5.2.5 Learning

Table 5: Learning

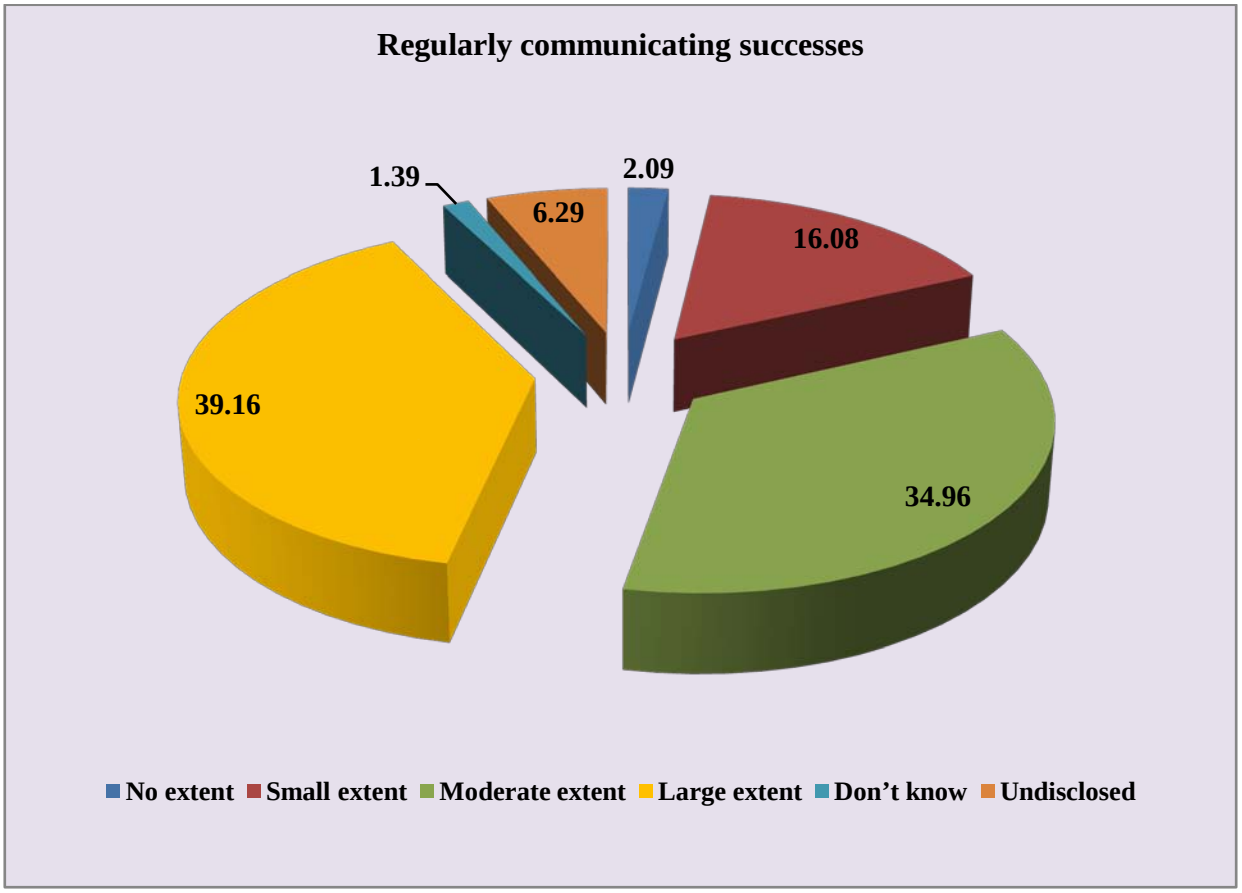
	No extent		Small extent		Moderate extent		Large extent		Don't know		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Regularly communicating successes	3	2.09	23	16.08	50	34.96	56	39.16	2	1.39	9	6.29
Facilitating collaborative work by project teams	10	6.99	31	21.67	60	41.95	32	22.37	2	1.39	8	5.59
Coaching and mentoring	4	2.79	31	21.67	40	27.97	55	38.46	1	0.69	12	8.39
Transfer of expertise	8	5.59	28	19.58	63	44.05	26	18.18	6	4.19	12	8.39
Arranging special focus meetings	5	3.49	31	21.67	55	38.46	38	26.57	4	2.79	10	6.99
Participating in cross functional teams	13	9.09	34	23.77	45	31.46	27	18.88	7	4.89	17	11.88
Story telling	18	12.58	36	25.17	43	30.06	28	19.58	8	5.59	10	6.99
Communities of practice	12	8.39	38	26.57	46	32.16	24	16.78	9	6.29	14	9.79
Face-to-face conversations	3	2.09	15	10.48	55	38.46	57	39.86	5	3.49	8	5.59

Section 5.2.5 addresses the learning facet of the GWU model of knowledge management. This model is the theoretical basis upon which this research rests. The GWU model comprises four legs: Leadership, learning, technology and organization. Chapter Three of the literature review includes in its discussion some ways of learning through knowledge-sharing. The following discussion will provide a global presentation of the categories indicated in the above table. Fifty six (**56**) respondents (**39.16 percent**) indicated that **regularly communicating on successes** occurred to a **large extent**. Sixty (**60**) respondents (**41.95 percent**) alleged that **facilitating collaborative work**

by project teams occurred to a **moderate extent**. Fifty-five (**55**) respondents (**38.46 percent**) declared that **coaching and mentoring** occurred at the LAB to a **large extent**. The **transfer of expertise** elicited a response from **63** respondents (**44.05 percent**) who claimed that it occurred at the LAB to a **moderate extent**. Fifty-five (**55**) respondents (or **38.46 percent**) believed that **arranging special focus meetings** happened to a **moderate extent**. **Face-to-face conversations** received **3** responses (or **2.09 percent**) from respondents who claimed that face-to-face conversations took place to **no extent**. This means that 3 respondents believe that members of the justice centres do not share knowledge by speaking to one another.

5.2.5.1 Regularly communicating successes

Figure 21 (N = 143)

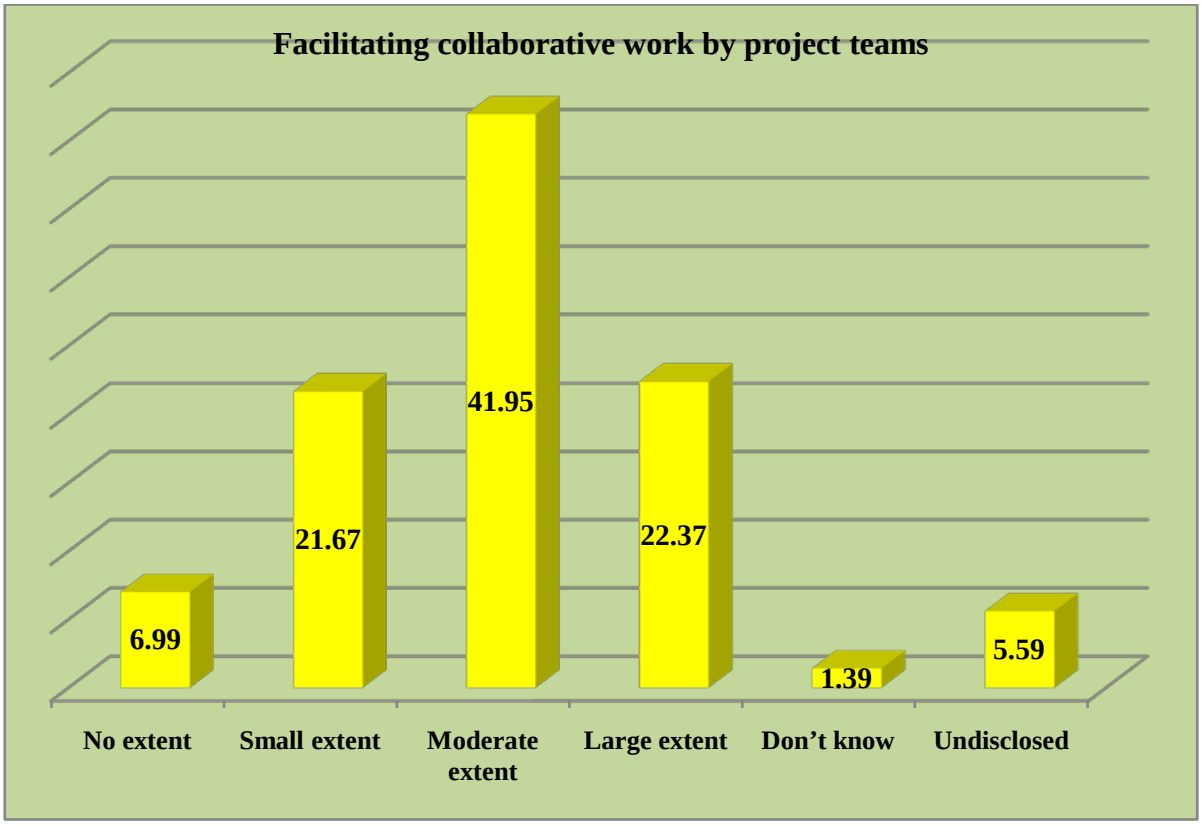


Fifty (**50**) (**34.96 percent**) of the respondents claimed that, to a **moderate extent**, **regular communication on successes** took place at the LAB; while **56** respondents (**39.16 percent**)

believed it occurred to a **large extent**. Two (**2**) respondents (**1.39 percent**) remarked that they **did not know** about regularly communicating successes.

5.2.5.2 Facilitating collaborative work by project teams

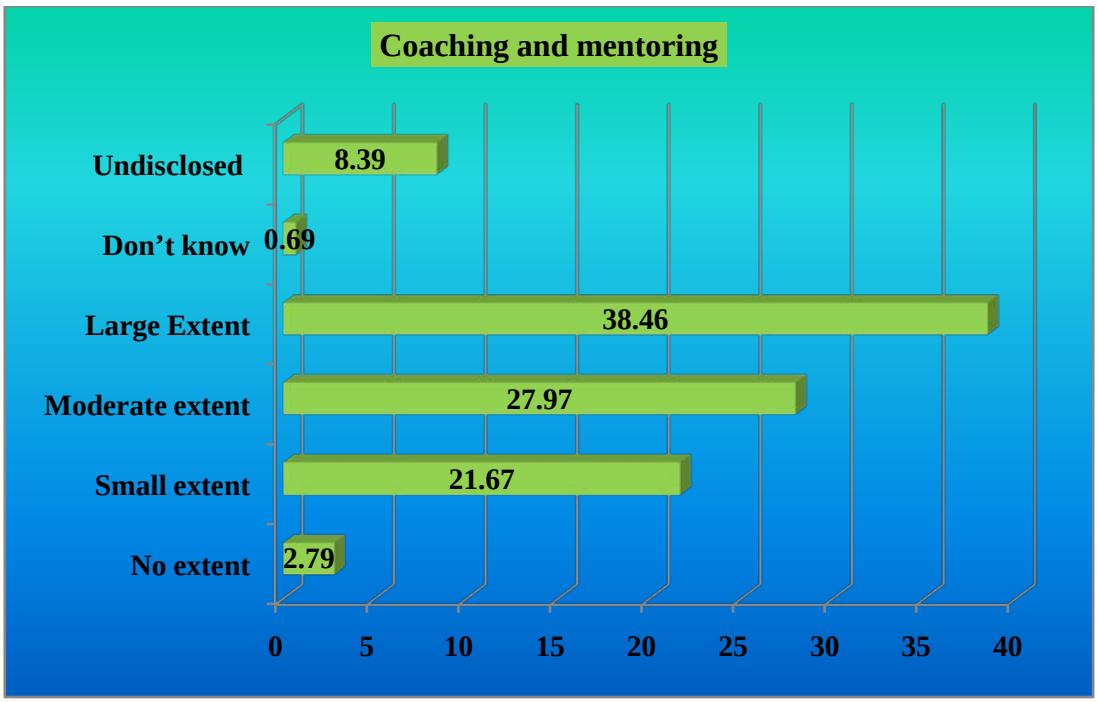
Figure 22 (N = 143)



The researcher highlighted three figures as they represented the lowest, middle (one of the middle) and highest responses. Ten (**10**) respondents (**6.99 percent**) were of the opinion that f**acilitating collaborative work by project teams** took place to **no extent**. Sixty (**60**) respondents (**41.95 percent**) expressed the view that this occurred to a **moderate extent**. Two (**2**) respondents (**1.39 percent**) indicated that they **did not know** whether facilitating collaborative work by project teams took place at the LAB.

5.2.5.3 Coaching and mentoring

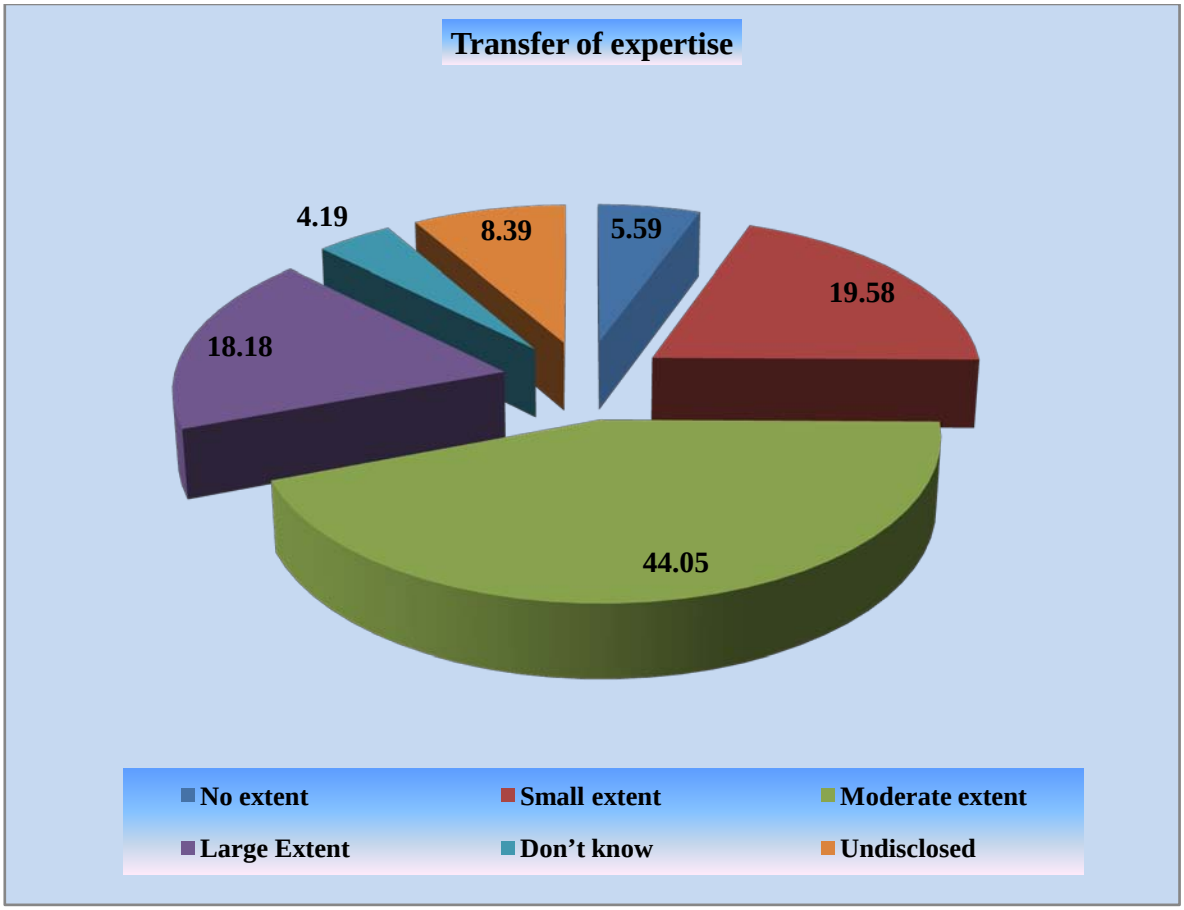
Figure 23 (N = 143)



Forty (**40)** respondents (or **27.97 percent**) believed **coaching and mentoring** took place to a **moderate extent**. Fifty-five (**55**) respondents (**38.46 percent**) asserted that coaching and mentoring happened to a **large extent**. One (**1**) respondent (**0.69 percent**) **did not know** whether coaching and mentoring took place.

5.2.5.4 Transferring of expertise

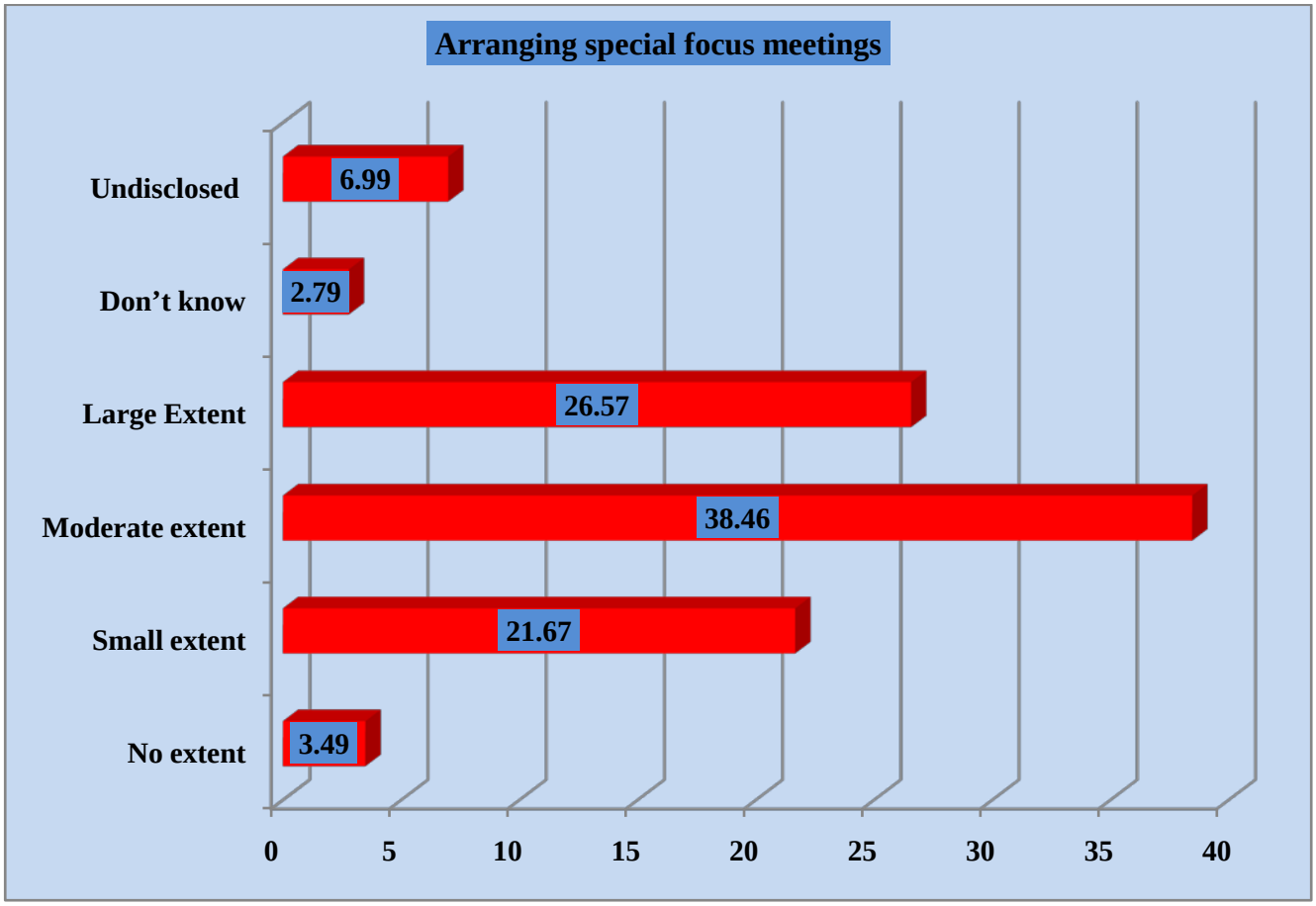
Figure 24 (N = 143)



Eight (**8**) respondents (**5.59 percent**) declared that the **transfer of expertise did not take place** at the LAB. Sixty-three (**63**) respondents (**44.05 percent**) claimed that it occurred to a **moderate extent**. Six (**6**) respondents (**4.19 percent**) alleged that they **did not know** about the transfer of expertise.

5.2.5.5 Arranging special focus meetings

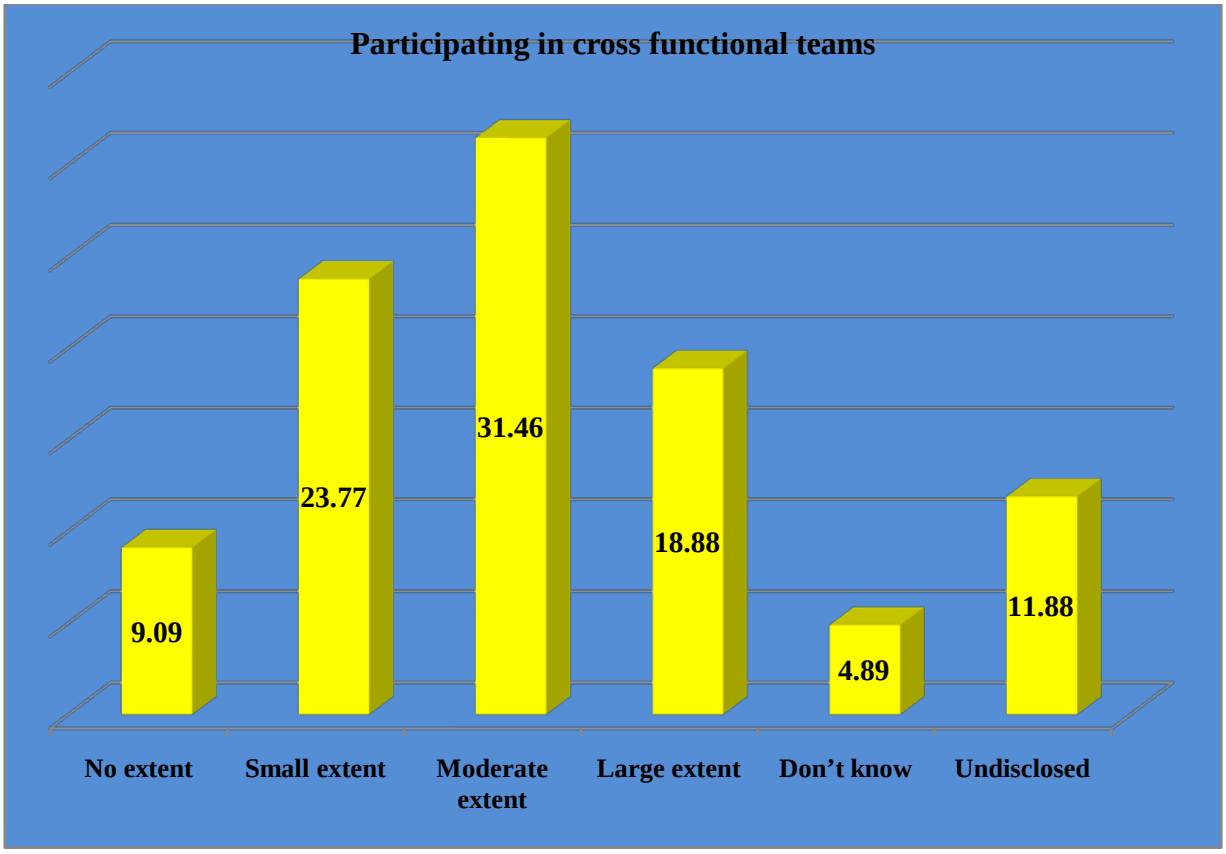
Figure 25 (N = 143)



With regard to the item "**Arranging special focus meetings**", **31** (**21.67 percent**) of the respondents indicated that arranging special focus meetings took place to a **small extent** at the LAB. Fifty-five (**55**) respondents (**38.46 percent**) claimed that arranging special focus meetings took place to a **moderate extent**. Four (**4**) respondents (**2.79 percent**) alleged that they **did not know** if arranging special focus meetings took place at the LAB.

5.2.5.6. Participating in cross functional teams

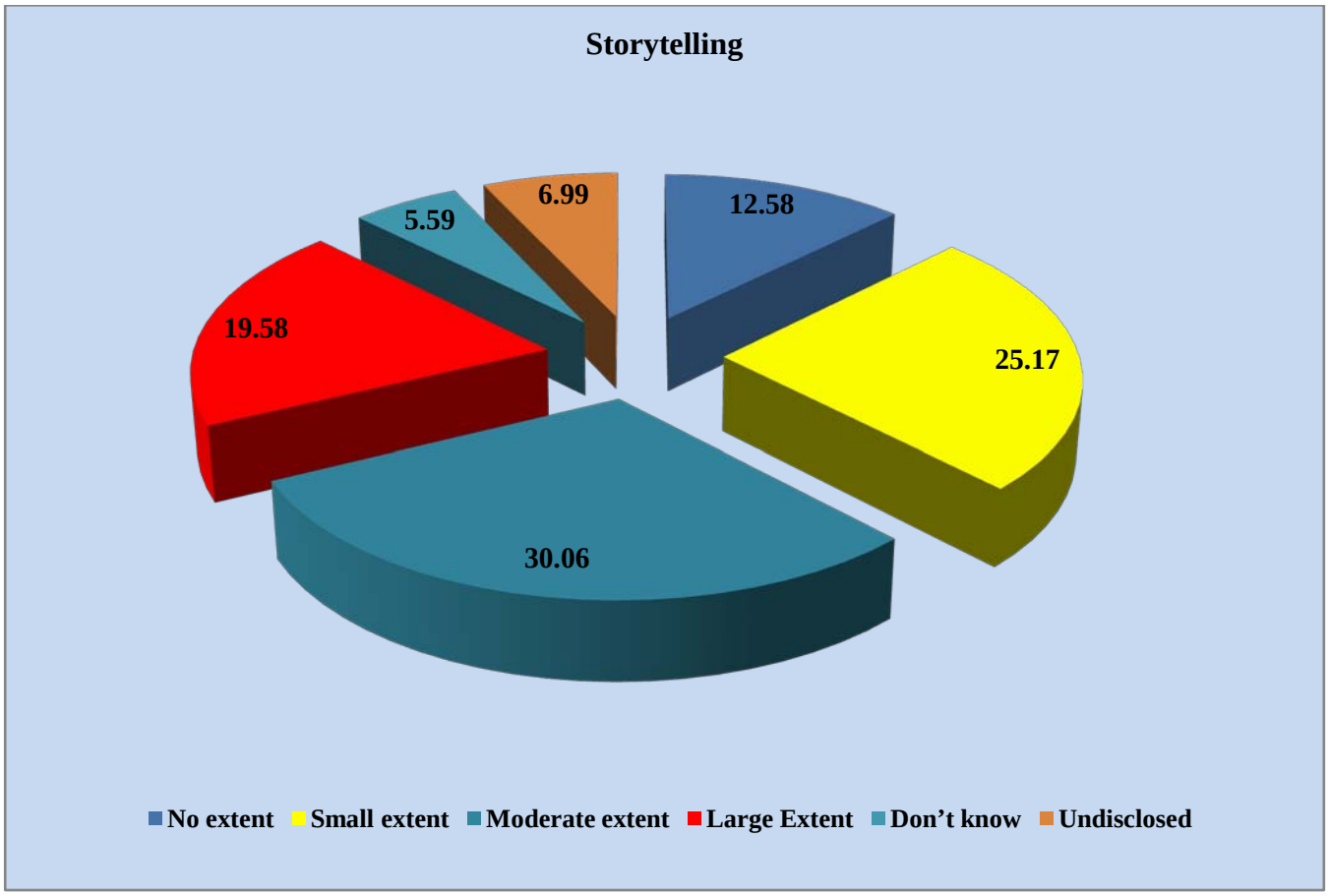
Figure 26 (N = 143)



Participating in cross-functional teams occurred to a **moderate extent** as reflected by **45** (**31.46 percent**) of the respondents, while **27** respondents (or **18.88 percent**) claimed that it occurred to a **large extent** and **7** respondents (**4.89 percent**) claimed that they **did not know**.

5.2.5.7. Storytelling

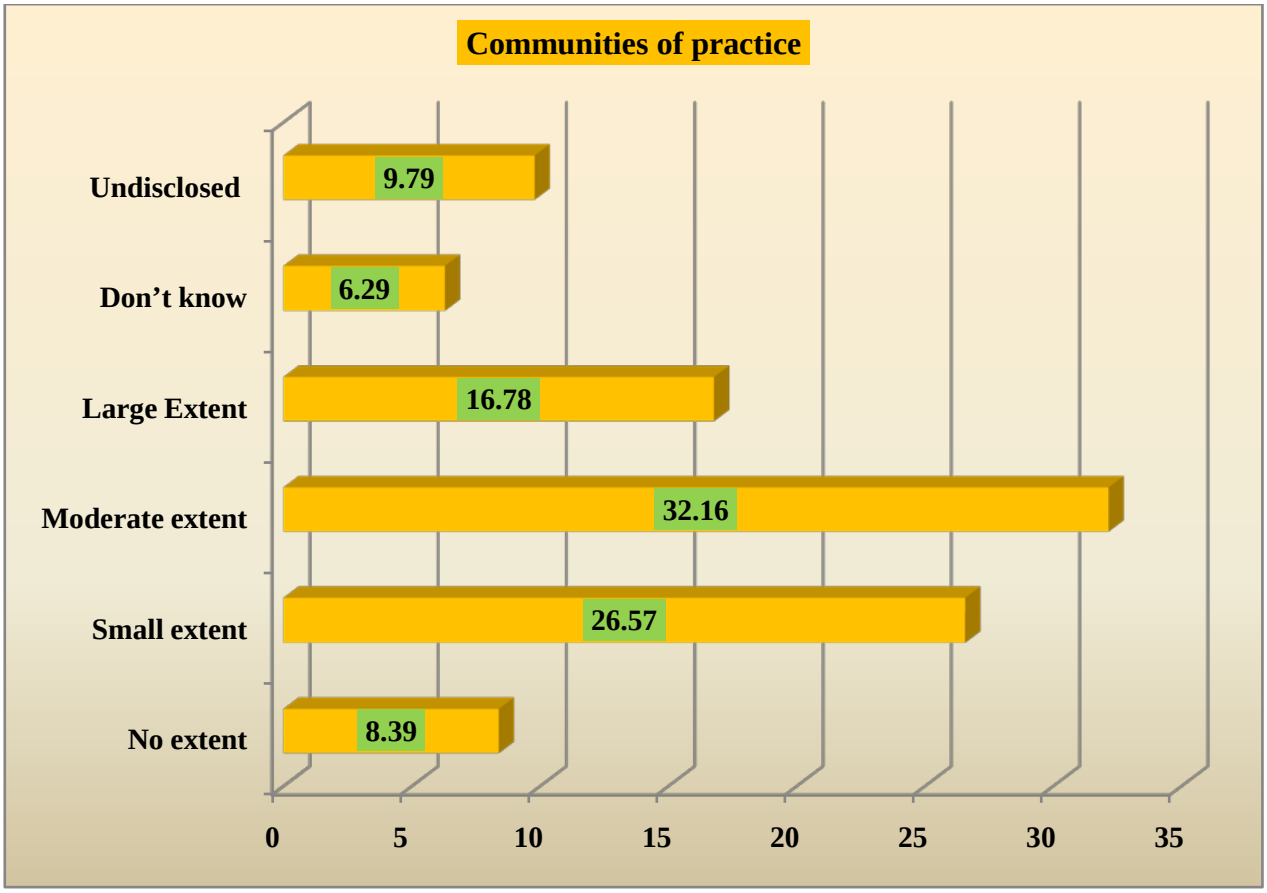
Figure 27 (N = 143)



Eighteen (**18**) respondents (**12.58 percent**) stated that storytelling **did not** occur at the LAB. Forty-three (**43**) respondents (**30.06 percent**) claimed that storytelling occurred at the LAB to a **moderate extent**. Twenty-eight (**28**) respondents (**19.58 percent**) declared it occurred to a **large extent**.

5.2.5.8. Communities of practice

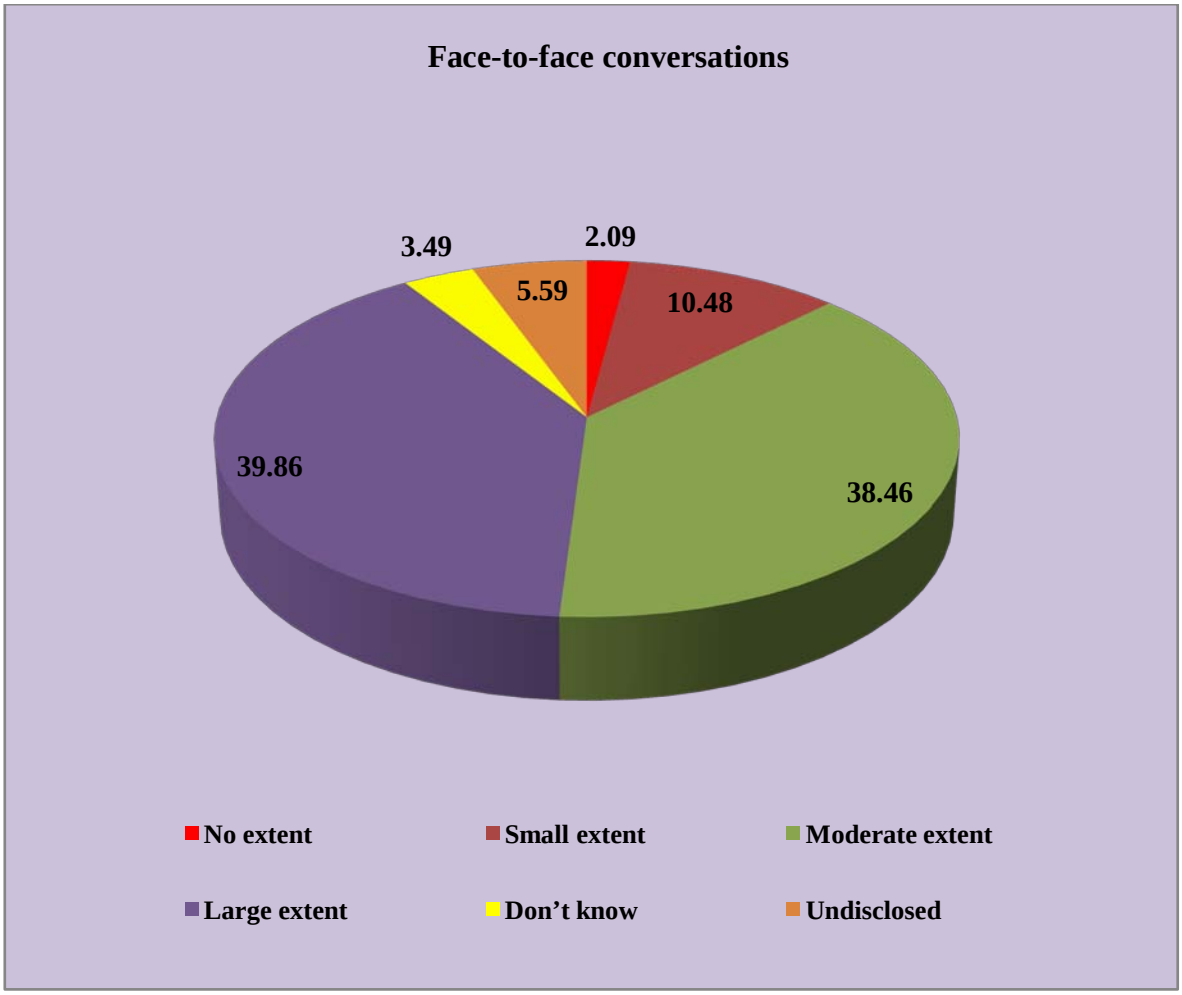
Figure 28 (N = 143)



Communities of practice existed in the LAB to a **small extent**, as reflected by **38** (**26.57 percent**) of the respondents; while **24** (**16.78 percent**) of the respondents claimed that it occurred to a **large extent**. Nine (**9**) respondents (**6.29 percent**) **did not know** whether communities of practice existed at the LAB.

5.2.5.9. Face-to-face conversations

Figure 29 (N = 143)



Face-to-face conversations did not occur to **any extent**, was the response by **3** respondents (**2.09 percent**) to the item. Fifty-five (**55**) respondents (**38.46 percent**) reported that face-to-face conversations took place to a **moderate extent**. Fifty-seven (**57)** respondents (**39.86 percent**) thought that such conversations took place to a **large extent**.

5.2.6 Assistance with the acquisition of information

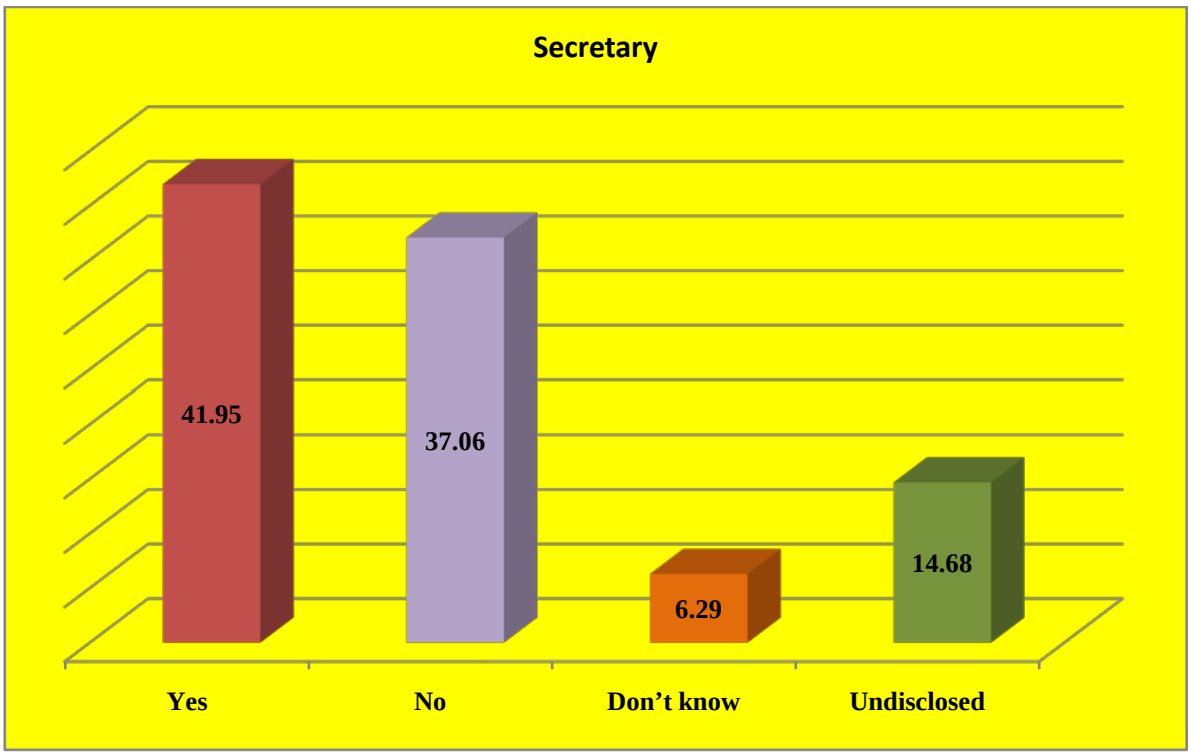
Table 6: Assistance with the acquisition of information

Job Designation	Yes		No		Don't know		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Knowledge officer	55	38.46	50	34.96	20	13.98	18	12.58
Legal Assistant	82	57.34	38	26.57	9	6.29	14	9.79
Secretary	60	41.95	53	37.06	9	6.29	21	14.68

This item addressed the organization aspect of the GWU model of knowledge management. The term **organization** relates, in part, to the 'people aspect' of an organization (Stankosky 2005). Rusanow (2009) is of the opinion that lawyers are knowledge workers. Lawyers are knowledge workers because their basic economic tool is knowledge (Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995). In order for lawyers to gather knowledge and information they need the assistance of other people. This assistance is necessary in view of the abundance of knowledge available to lawyers. It is common knowledge that lawyers are very time conscious, therefore in order not to waste time, it will be wise to have people assisting lawyers in finding information and retrieving knowledge. In response to the aforementioned, the researcher asked the legal professionals (the respondents) at the LAB who they relied on for acquiring information.

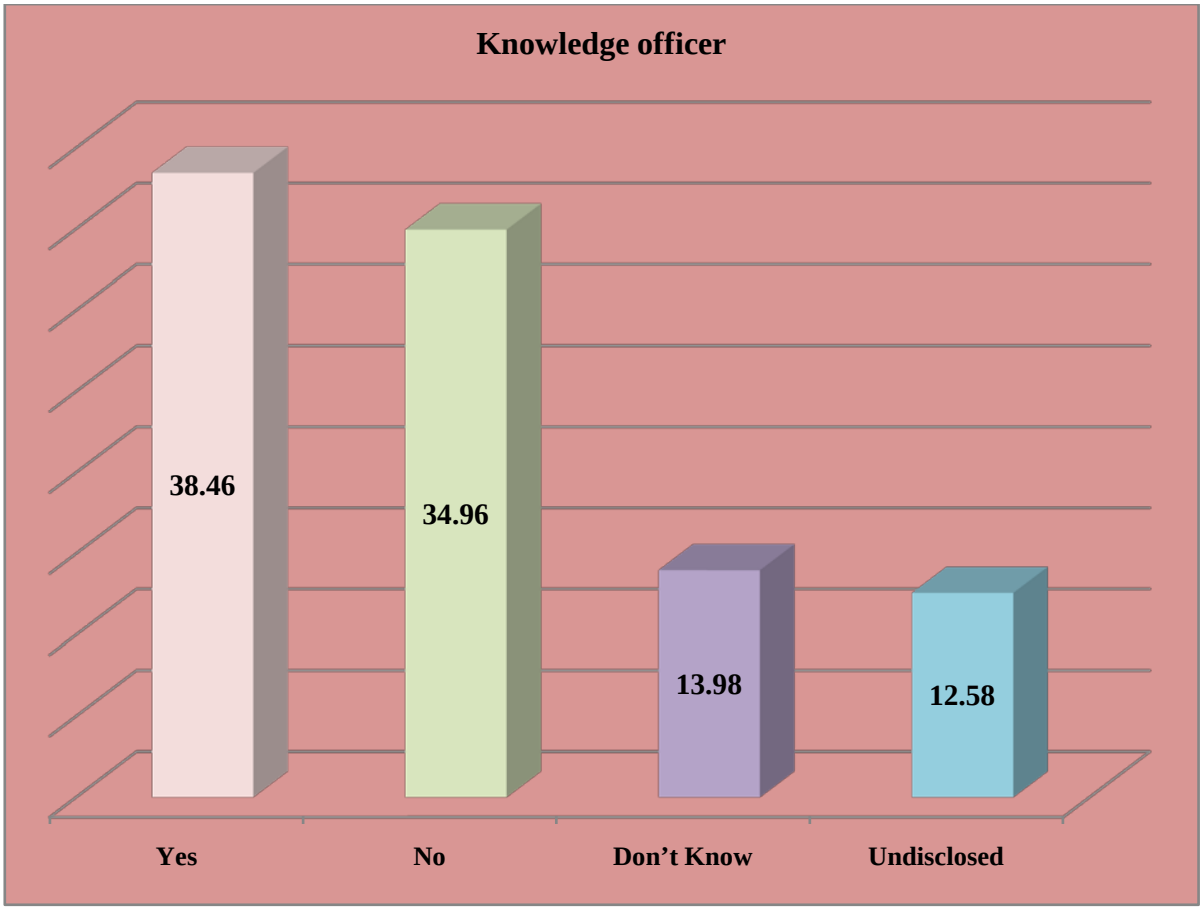
Eighty-two (**82**) (**57.34 percent**) of the respondents confirmed that they had **used** the assistance of a **legal assistant**. Thirty-eight (**38)** respondents (**26.57 percent**) claimed they **did not** employ the assistance of **legal assistants** in obtaining information. Legal assistants were the group used most often in obtaining information. This was followed by secretaries. Sixty (**60**) (**41.95 percent**) of the respondents had **used** the services of a **secretary** to obtain information. Fifty-five (**55**) respondents (**38.46 percent**) declared that they had **used** the services of a **knowledge officer** to obtain information.

Figure 30 (N = 143)



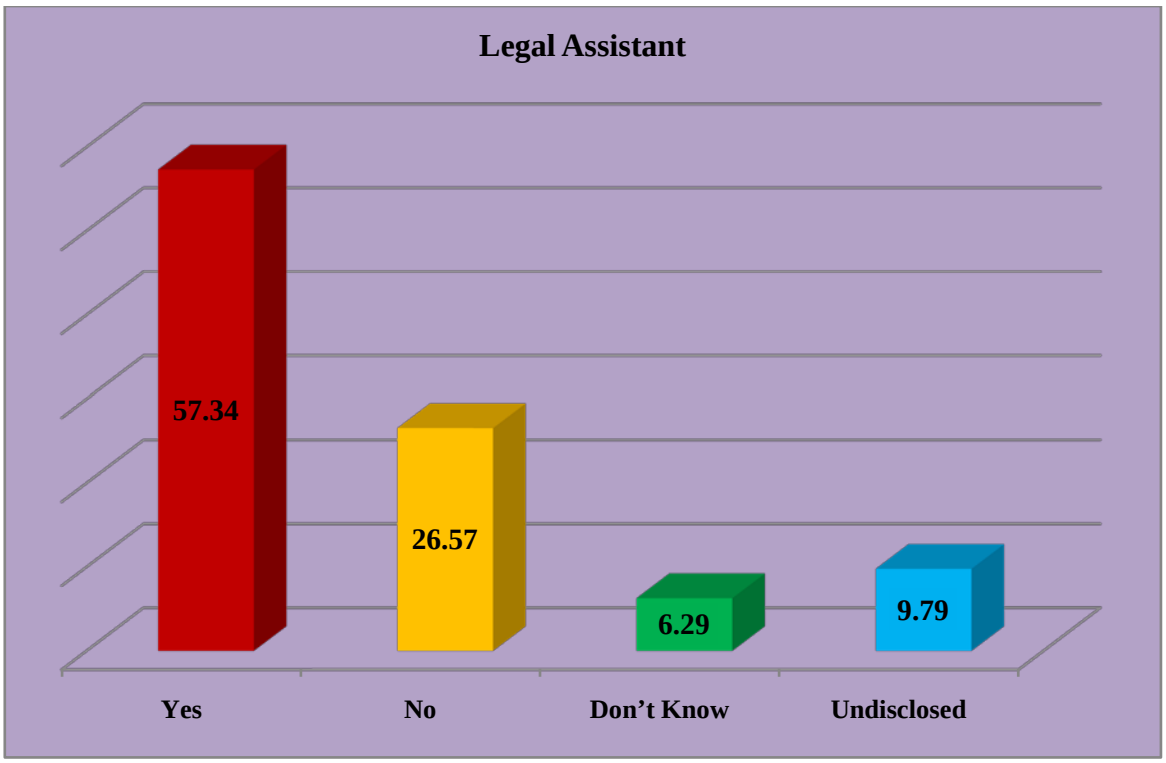
The **secretary** was the second most popular choice to support the staff in obtaining information at the LAB. Sixty (**60**) (**41.95 percent**) of the respondents had **drawn upon** the services of a secretary to find information. Fifty-three (**53**) (**37.06 percent**) of the respondents maintained that a secretary had **not helped** them to obtain information. Nine (**9**) respondents (**6.29 percent**) of the respondents **did not know** whether a secretary had helped them to obtain information at the LAB.

Figure 31 (N = 143)



A knowledge officer, according to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) markets the concept of knowledge management to the organization. He or she is responsible for setting an organizational vision of knowledge management – one that will be aligned to the broad vision of the organization. It is the responsibility of the knowledge officer to set the standards for the knowledge created. Fifty-five (**55**) (**38.46 percent**) of the respondents had marked **yes** in answer to a question on whether they had used the assistance of a **knowledge officer** in finding information. Fifty (**50**) (**34.96 percent**) of the respondents stated that they **had not** used the services of a knowledge officer to acquire information. Twenty (**20**) (**13.98 percent**) **did not know** whether the knowledge officer was instrumental in finding information.

Figure 32 (N = 143)



The **legal assistant** was the most popular of the three job designations to assist in obtaining information at the LAB – resulting in **82** (**57.34 percent**) of the responses for the item. Fifty (**50**) respondents (**34.96 percent**) had indicated that **had not used** a legal assistant in obtaining information. Twenty (**20**) (**13.98 percent**) **did not know** whether the legal assistant was used at the LAB to help staff to obtain information.

In a comparison of the above graphs, the trend suggests that the services of the secretary and the legal assistant were solicited above those of the knowledge officer. This is despite the view of Nonaka and Takeuchi who state that the person driving the knowledge process in the organization should be the knowledge officer.

5.2.7 Rating the level of assistance in acquisition of information

Table 7: Rating the level of assistance in acquisition of information

Job Designation	I don't get assistance		Not useful		Useful		Very Useful		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Knowledge officer	18	12.58	5	3.49	43	30.06	11	7.69	66	46.15
Legal Assistant	8	5.59	6	4.19	54	37.76	25	17.48	50	34.96
Secretary	16	11.18	9	6.29	45	31.46	14	9.79	59	41.25

Fifty-four (**54**) respondents (**37.76 percent**) had found the assistance of the legal assistant **useful**. This was followed by the secretary. Forty-five (**45**) respondents (**31.46 percent**) declared the assistance of the **secretary useful.** Forty-three (**43**) respondents (**30.06 percent**) declared the help of the **knowledge officer useful**.

With regard to the **knowledge officer, 18** respondents (or **12.58 percent**) declared that they **did not get assistance** from the **knowledge officer**. Five (**5**) respondents (**3.49 percent**) asserted that the help of the knowledge officer was **not useful**. Forty-three (**43**) respondents (**30.06 percent**) believed that obtaining help from the knowledge officer was **useful**. Eleven (**11**) respondents (**7.69 percent**) found the help of the knowledge officer **very useful**.

Twenty-five (**25**) respondents (**17.48 percent**) found the help of the **legal assistant very useful**. Fifty-four (**54**) respondents (**37.76 percent**) claimed that the legal assistant's help was **useful**. Six (**6**) respondents (**4.19 percent**) found the help **not useful**. Finally, **8** respondents (**5.59 percent**) stated that they **did not get assistance** from the legal assistant.

Sixteen (**16**) respondents (**11.18 percent**) claimed that they **did not get assistance** from the **secretary**. Nine (**9**) respondents (**6.29 percent**) declared the help of the secretary was **not useful**.

Useful was how **45** respondents (**31.46 percent**) described the assistance of the secretary. Fourteen (**14**) respondents (**9.79 percent**) pronounced the help of the secretary **very useful**.

5.2.8 Responsibility for knowledge-sharing

Table 8: Responsibility for sharing

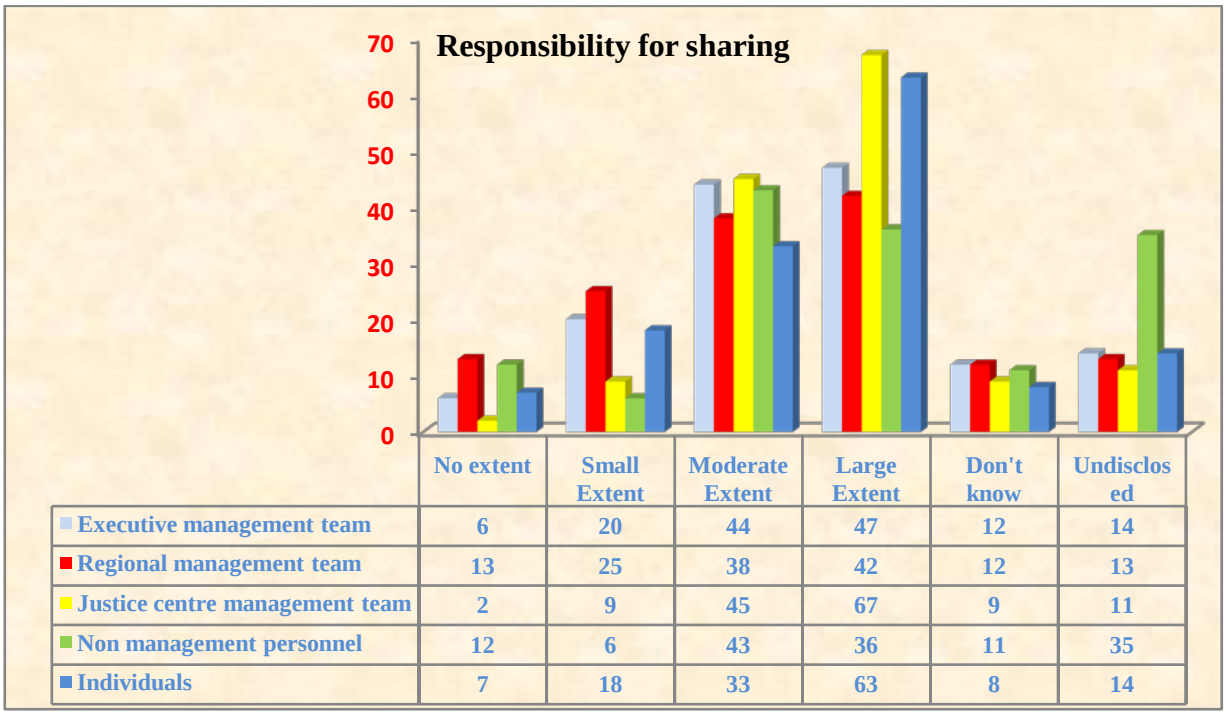
	No extent		**Small extent**		**Moderate extent**		**Large Extent**		**Don't know**		**Undisclosed**	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Executive management team	6	4.19	20	13.98	44	30.76	47	32.86	12	8.39	14	9.79
Regional management team	13	9.09	25	17.48	38	26.57	42	29.37	12	8.39	13	9.09
Justice centre management team	2	1.39	9	6.29	45	31.46	67	46.85	9	6.29	11	7.69
Non-management personnel	12	8.39	6	4.19	43	30.06	36	25.17	11	7.69	35	24.47
Individuals	7	4.89	18	12.58	33	23.07	63	44.05	8	5.59	14	9.79

This item addressed the issue of organization within the GWU model of knowledge management. The purpose of this item was to examine the knowledge-sharing practices among the various levels within the LAB. Knowledge-sharing informs communication. Building a shared vision involves the capacity to hold a shared picture of the future of the organization (Senge 1990). Communication through sharing knowledge can aid in developing the vision. The figures for the highest level of sharing responsibility were obtained from the **Justice Centre management team**. **Sixty-seven (67)** respondents (**46.85 percent** of the respondents) indicated that sharing occurred

there to a **large extent**. **Forty-seven (47)** respondents (**32.86 percent** of the respondents) claimed that there was a **large extent** of sharing in the **Executive management team**. There was a high degree of sharing among individuals. **Sixty-three (63)** (**44.05 percent)** of the respondents maintained that there was a **large extent** of sharing among **individuals** at the LAB.

The lowest scores were recorded for the **no extent** measurement, that is, **2** respondents (**1.30 percent**) and **6** respondents (**4.10 percent**) for the **Justice Centre management team** and **executive management team**, respectively.

Figure 33 (N = 143)



	No extent	Small Extent	Moderate Extent	Large Extent	Don't know	Undisclosed
Executive management team	6	20	44	47	12	14
Regional management team	13	25	38	42	12	13
Justice centre management team	2	9	45	67	9	11
Non management personnel	12	6	43	36	11	35
Individuals	7	18	33	63	8	14

The above graph reflects a comparison of the levels of responsibility for sharing knowledge. The categories included the executive management team, the regional management team, the Justice Centre management team, non-management personnel and individuals. With regard to the responsibility for sharing, **67** respondents were of the opinion that it was, to a **large extent**, the responsibility of the J**ustice Centre management** team. Sixty-three (**63)** respondents claimed that the responsibility for sharing knowledge lay to a **large extent** with **individuals** at the LAB. Thus each person has to take responsibility for sharing knowledge.

5.2.9 LAB as a knowledge-intensive organization

Table 9: LAB as a knowledge-intensive organization

	No extent		Small extent		Moderate extent		Large Extent		Don't know		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Levels of problem solving	5	3.49	29	20.27	51	35.66	46	32.16	4	2.79	8	5.59
Levels of non-routine work	12	8.39	37	25.87	52	36.36	22	15.38	8	5.59	12	8.39
Creativity	12	8.39	34	23.77	42	29.37	43	30.06	2	1.39	10	6.99
Independence	8	5.59	28	19.58	39	27.27	54	37.76	3	2.09	11	7.69
Interaction with people	0	0	15	10.48	46	32.16	67	46.85	2	1.39	13	9.09
Strong inter-dependence upon experts	14	9.79	35	24.47	52	36.36	23	16.08	10	6.99	9	6.29
Strong dependence on expert knowledge	11	7.69	43	30.06	45	31.46	24	16.78	11	7.69	9	6.29
Strong dependence on esoteric knowledge	12	8.39	41	28.67	32	22.37	22	15.38	19	13.28	17	11.88
Staff with a university qualification	7	4.89	14	9.79	31	21.67	75	52.44	7	4.89	9	6.29
Professionalism	1	0.69	13	9.09	35	24.47	75	52.44	7	4.89	12	8.39

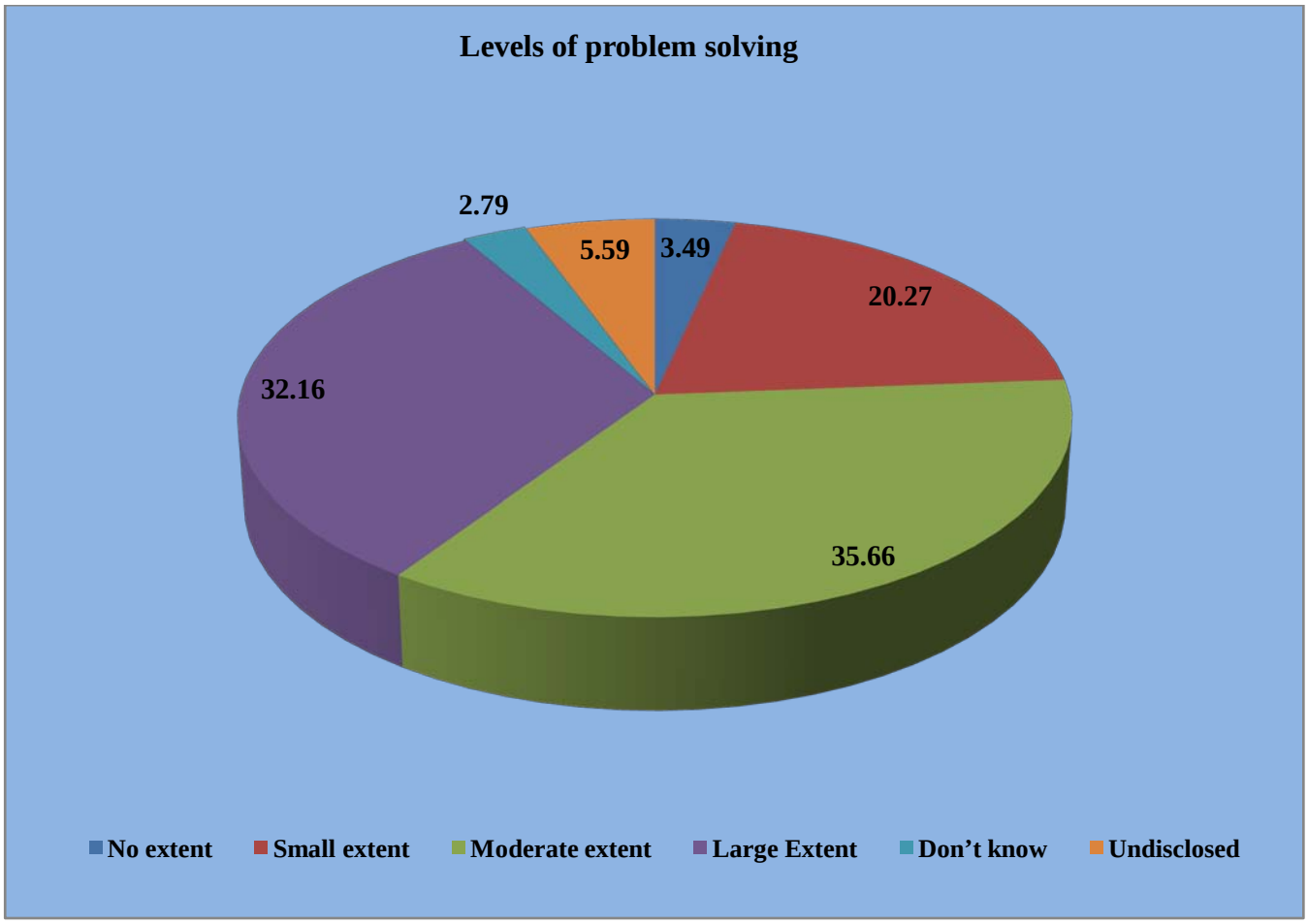
This item focused on the learning aspect of the GWU model of knowledge management. Learning is ideally suited to take place in a knowledge-intensive organization. Fenwick and Hall (2006) identified the characteristics of a knowledge-intensive organization. Some of these characteristics are included in the item above. The rationale behind including this item in the questionnaire was

that the researcher wanted to gauge whether the respondents believed that the LAB was a knowledge-intensive organization.

Seventy-five (**75**) respondents (**52.44 percen**t) attested that having a university qualification contributed to a **large extent** to the organization becoming knowledge-intensive. There was **no response** to the measurement that staff had no **interaction with people**. In other words, being a knowledge worker required interaction with people. In fact, **67** respondents (**46.85 percent**) thought that in order to be involved in a knowledge-intensive organization, one had to interact with people to a **large extent**. Eight (**8**) respondents (**5.59 percent**) **did not know** whether the **levels of non-routine work** added to the organization being a knowledge-intensive one. Seventy-five (**75)** respondents (**52.44 percent**) claimed that **professionalism** was to a **large extent** prevalent at the LAB.

5.2.9.1 Levels of problem solving

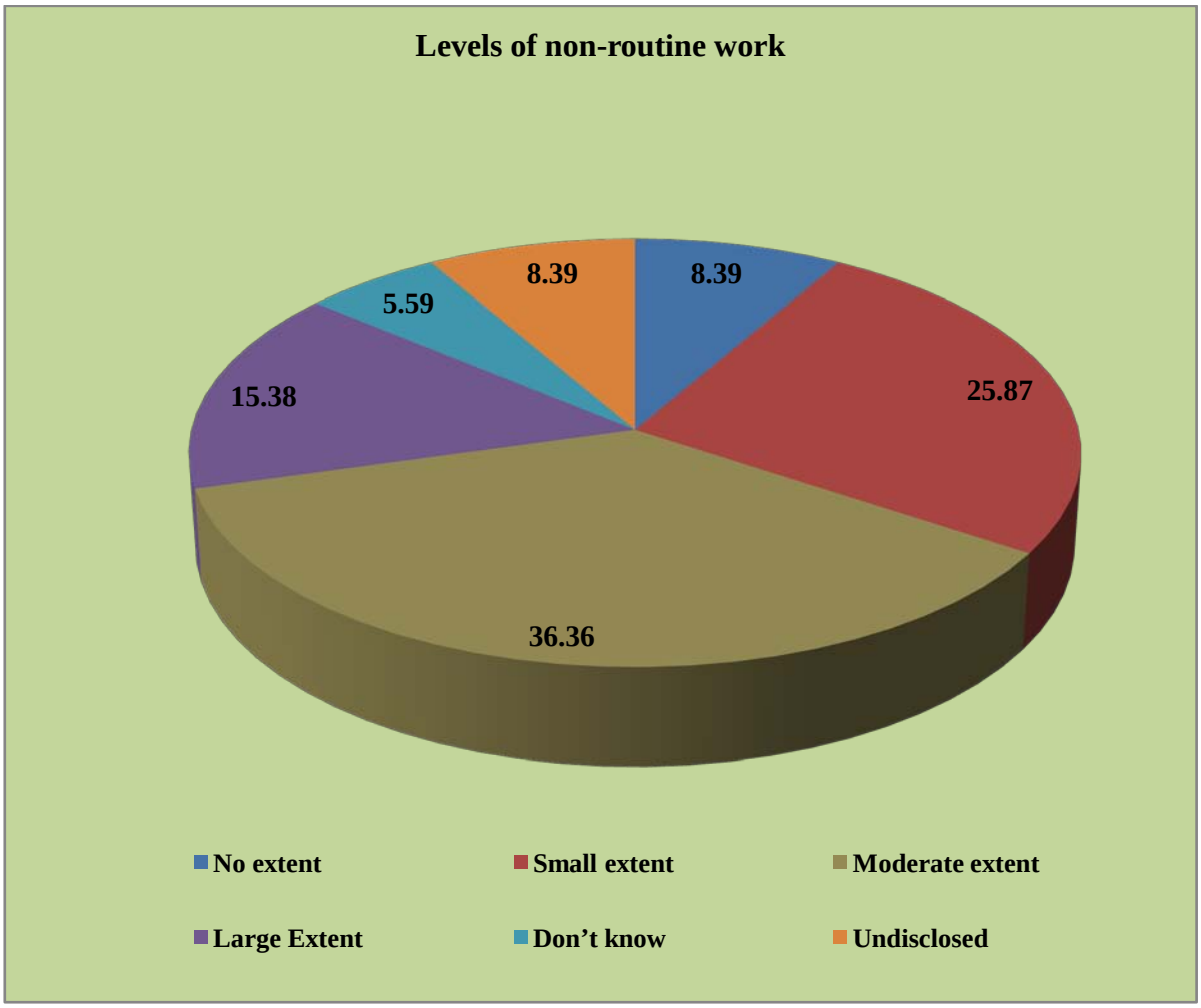
Figure 34 (N = 143)



Forty-six (**46**) respondents (**32.16 percent**) claimed that the **levels of problem solving** at the LAB reached a **large extent**. Fifty-one (**51**) respondents (**35.66 percent**) believed that it was only a **moderate extent** and **29** respondents (**20.27 percent**) thought this it was a **small extent**.

5.2.9.2 Levels of non-routine work

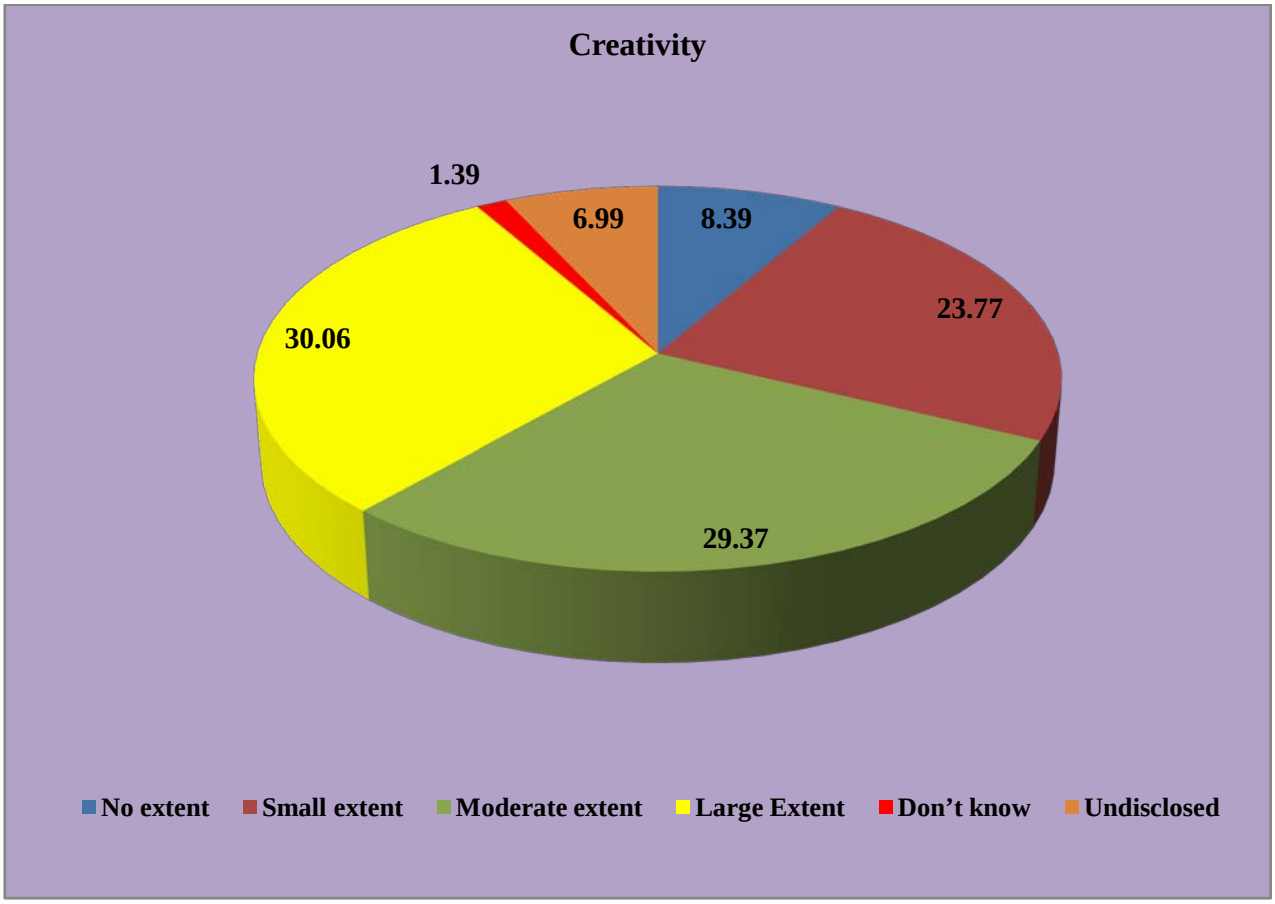
Figure 35 (N = 143)



The levels of **non-routine work** were moderately high at the LAB. Fifty-two (**52**) respondents (**36.36 percent**) declared that the levels of non-routine work were of a **moderate extent**. Twenty-two (**22**) respondents (**15.38 percent**) felt that non-routine work occurred to a **large extent**. Twelve (**12**) respondents (**8.39 percent**) assumed that it occurred to **no extent**.

5.2.9.3 Creativity

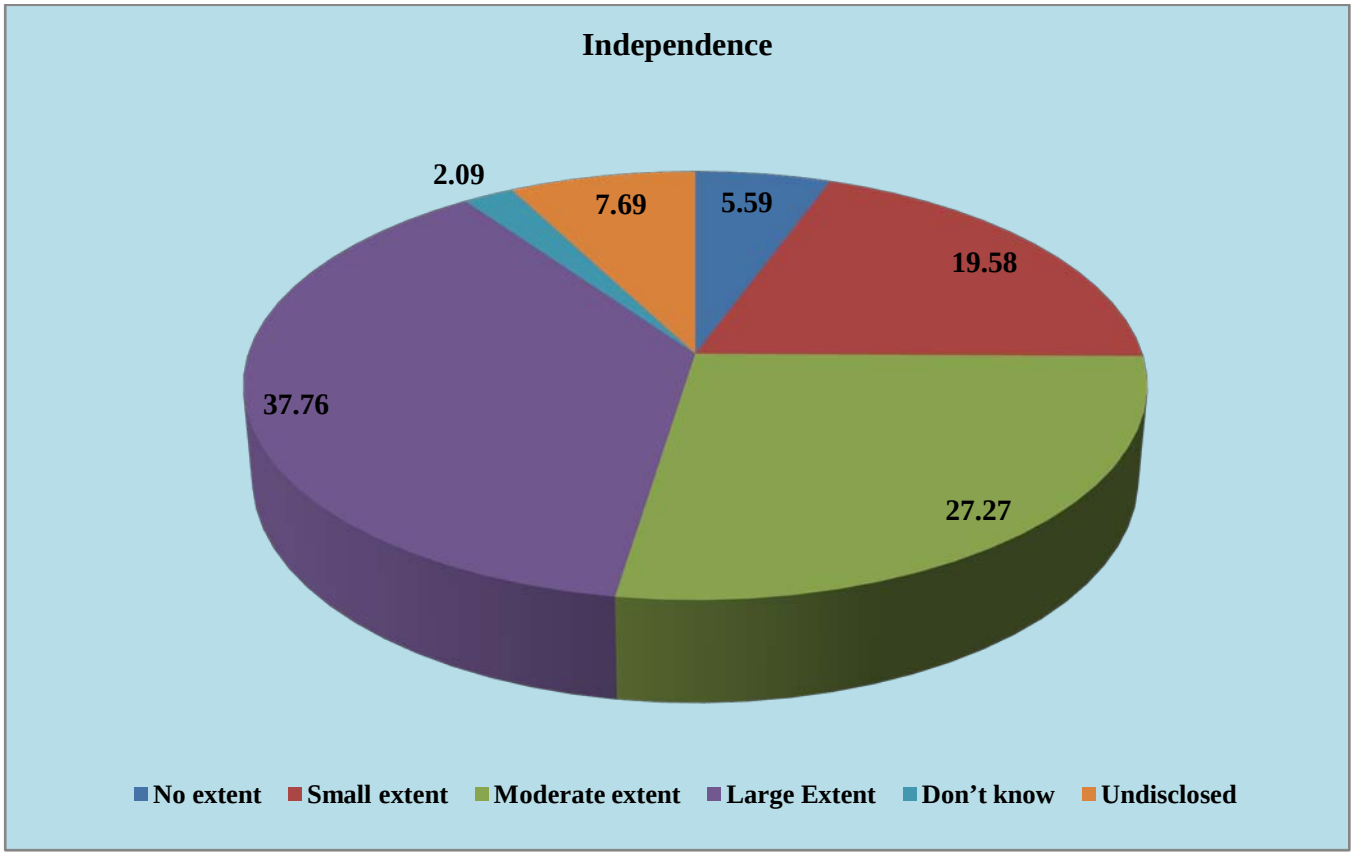
Figure 36 (N = 143)



The variable **creativity** yielded a response rate of **29.37 percent** (**42** respondents) who believed that creativity was important to a **moderate extent** at the LAB. Thirty-four (**34**) respondents (**23.77 percent**) felt that creativity was important to a **small extent** at the LAB. Two (**2**) respondents (**1.39 percent**) remarked that they **did not** know whether creativity existed at the LAB.

5.2.9.4 Independence

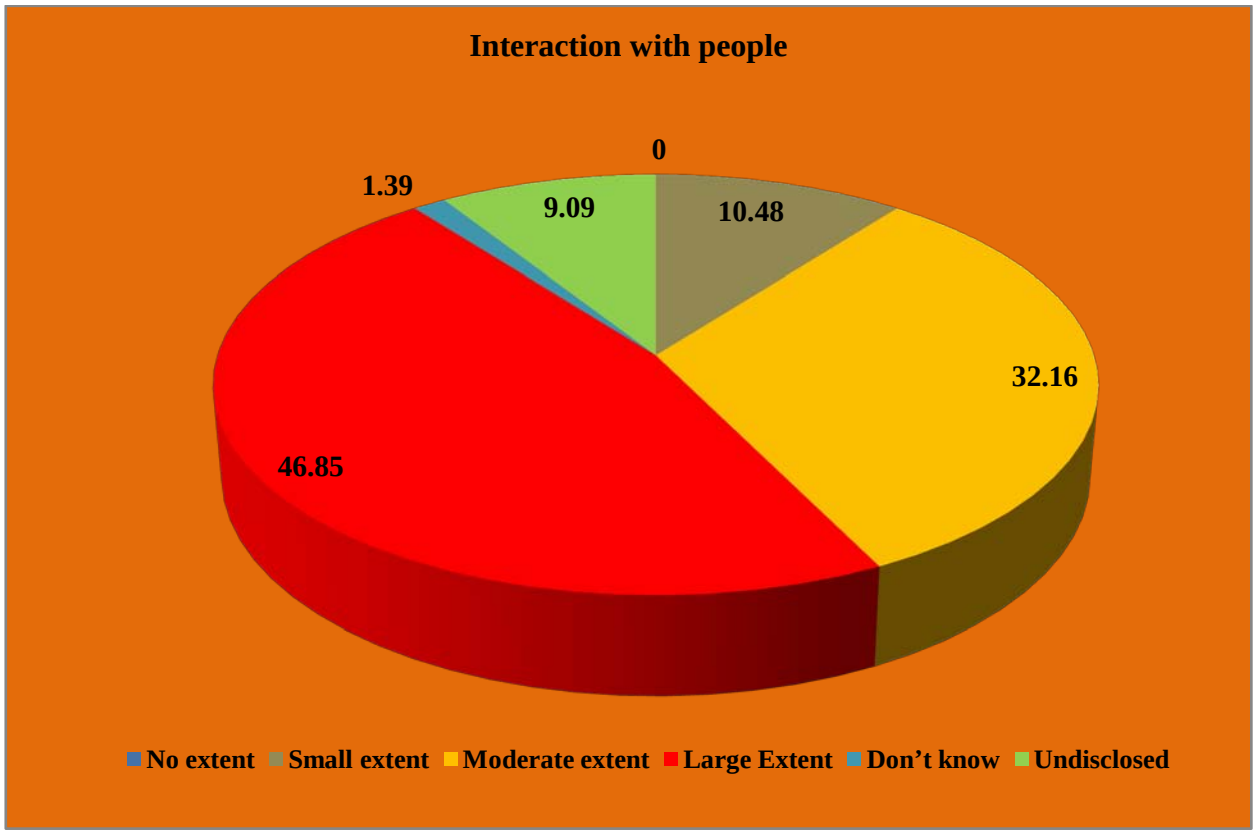
Figure 37 (N = 143)



Independence occurred to a **large extent** at the LAB. This was the view of **54** respondents (**37.76 percent**). Thirty-nine (**39**) respondents (**27.27 percent**) deemed the LAB to have a **moderate level** of independence. Three (**3**) respondents (or **2.09 percent**) **did not know** whether there was independence at the LAB.

5.2.9.5 Interaction with people

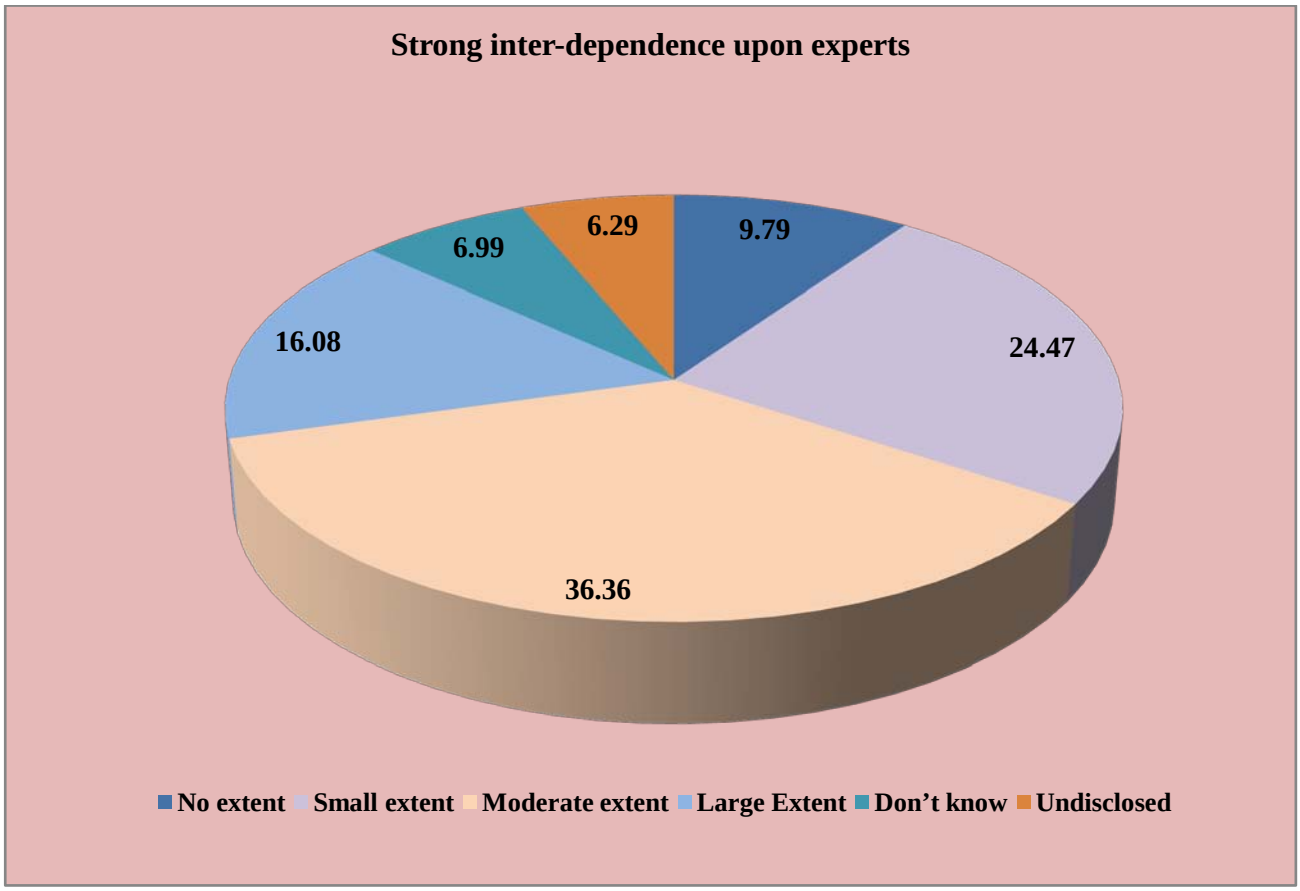
Figure 38 (N = 143)



Interaction with people occurred at the LAB. Sixty-seven (**67**) respondents (**46.85 percent**) declared that interaction with people took place to a **large extent** at the LAB. Forty-six (**46**) respondents (**32.16 percent**) understood that this occurred to a **moderate extent**. Fifteen (**15**) respondents (or **10.48 percent**) alleged that it took place to a **small extent**.

5.2.9.6 Strong inter-dependence upon experts

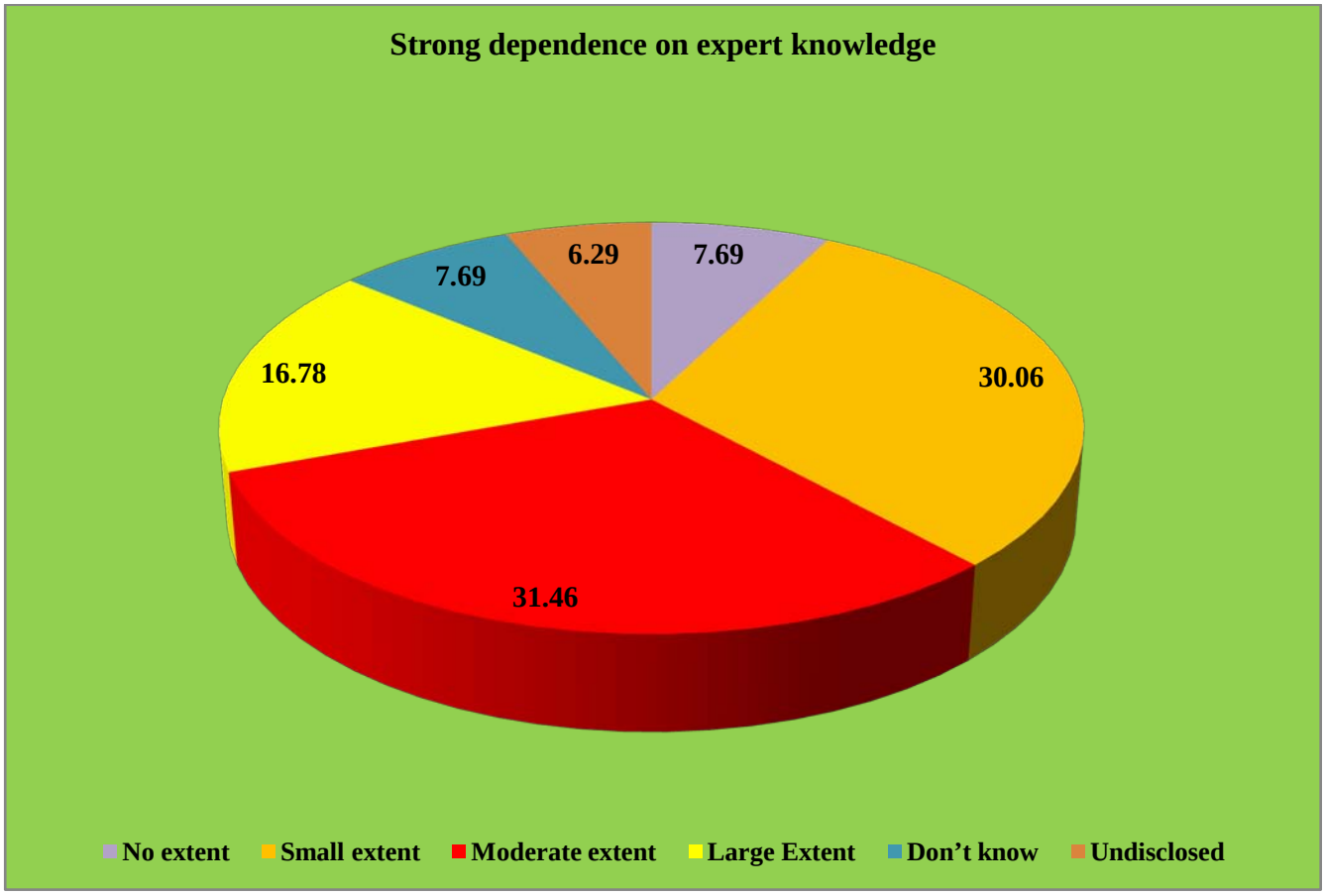
Figure 39 (N = 143)



Fifty-two (**52**) respondents (**36.36 percent**) considered there was a **moderate extent** of **strong inter-dependence upon experts** at the LAB. Thirty-five (**35**) respondents (or **24.47 percent**) believed that this was prevalent to a **small extent**. Fourteen (**14**) respondents (**9.79 percent**) thought there was **no extent** of **inter-dependence** at the LAB.

5.2.9.7 Strong dependence on expert knowledge

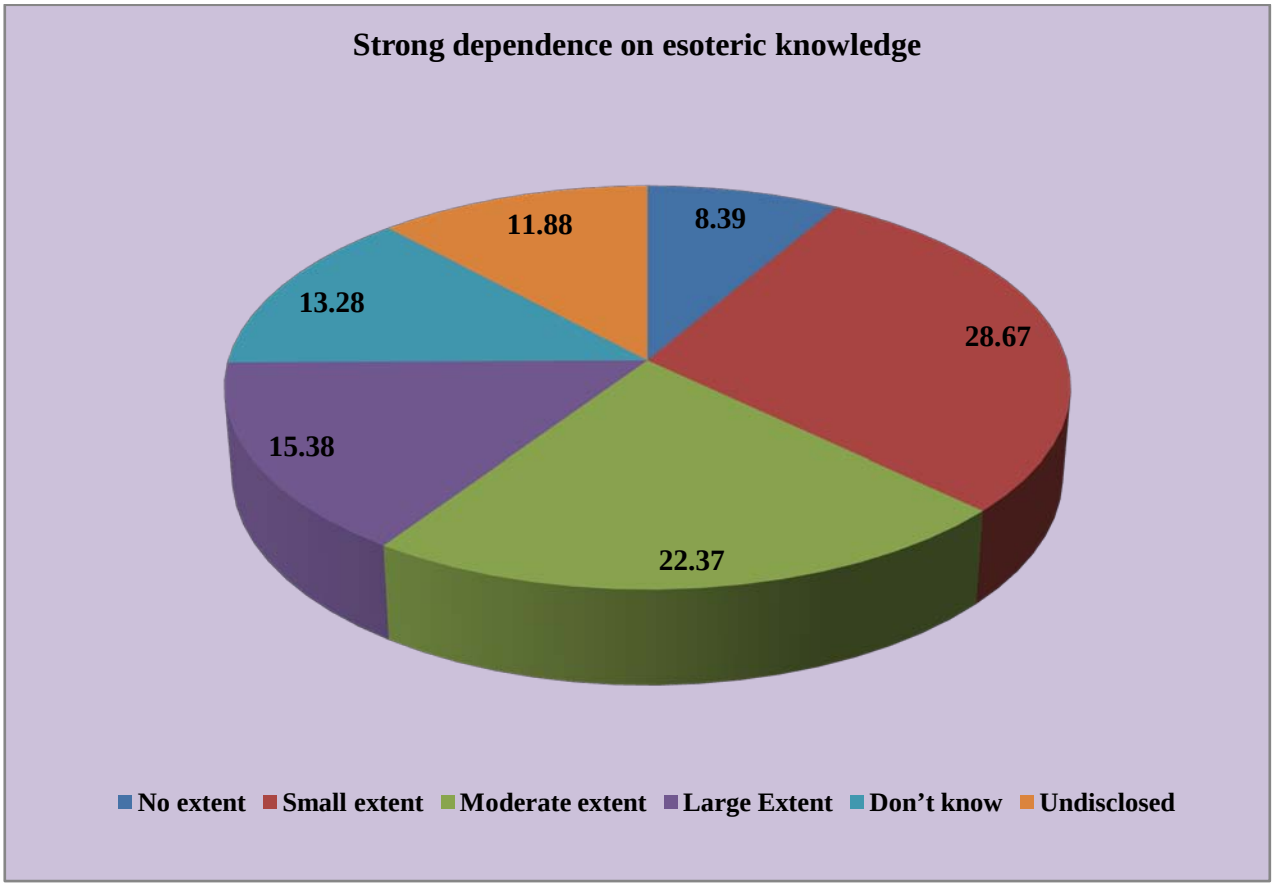
Figure 40 (N = 143)



Twenty-four (**24**) respondents (**16.78 percent**) reported that **strong dependence on expert knowledge** was evident to a **large extent** at the LAB. Forty-three (**43**) respondents or (**30.66 percent**) remarked that dependence existed to a **small extent**. Finally, **45** respondents (**31.46 percent**) stated that dependence on expert knowledge was present to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.9.8 Strong dependence on esoteric knowledge

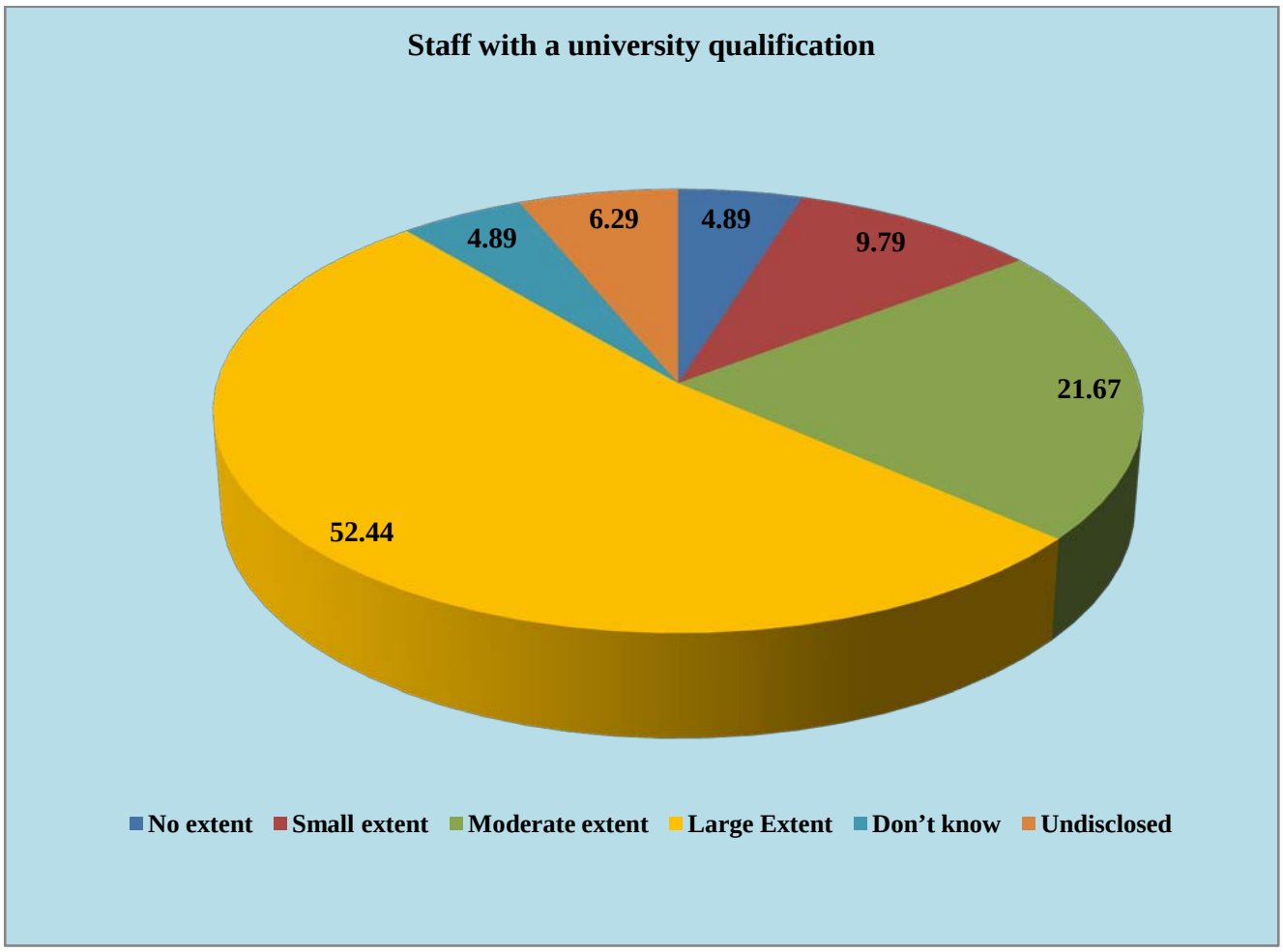
Figure 41 (N = 143)



Nineteen (**19**) respondents (**13.28 percent**) **did not know** whether there was **strong dependence on esoteric knowledge** at the LAB. Twelve (**12**) respondents (**8.39 percent**) deemed dependence on esoteric knowledge to occur to **no extent**. Thirty-two (**32**) respondents (or **22.37 percent**) held the view that this dependence was evident to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.9.9 Staff with a university qualification

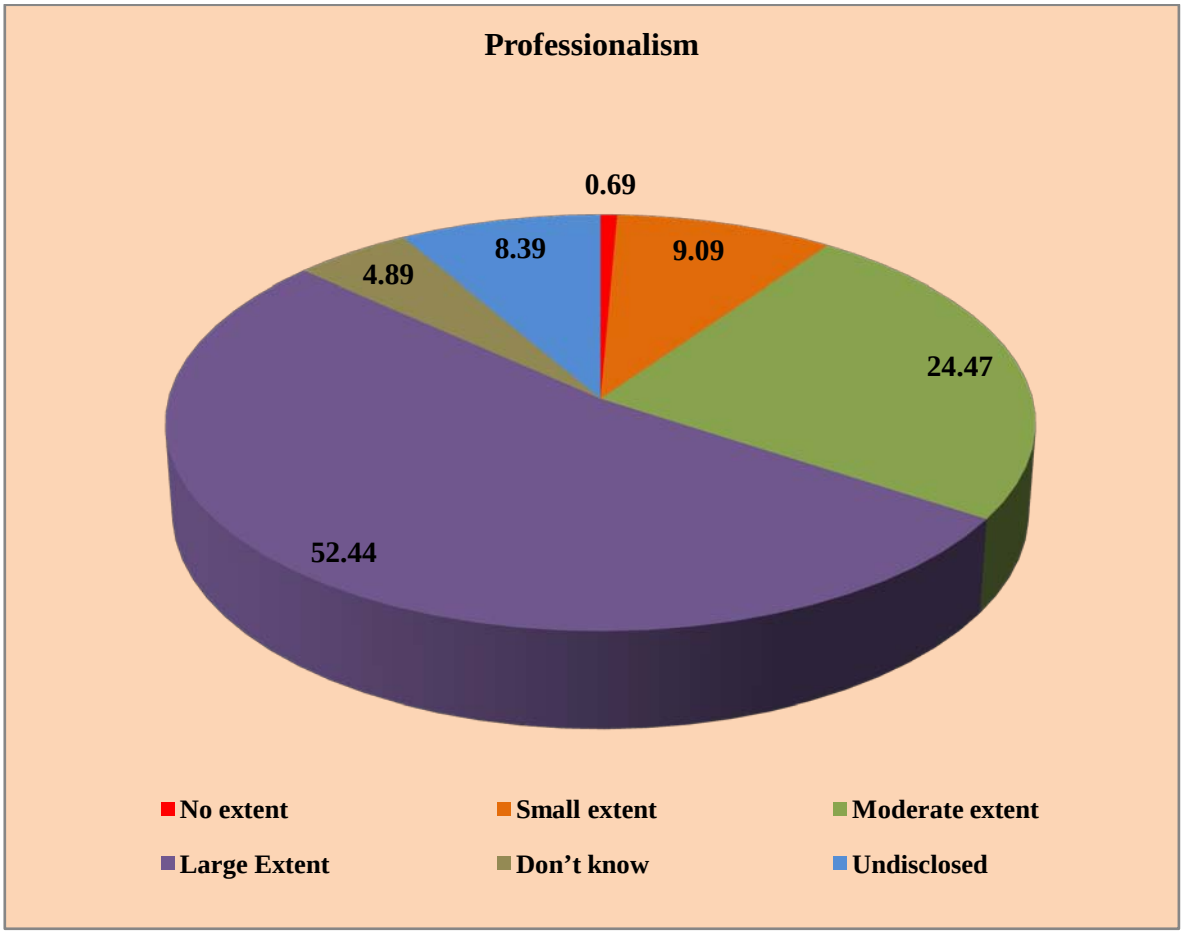
Figure 42 (N = 143)



Seventy-five (**75**) respondents (**52.44 percent**) indicated that there was a **large extent** of evidence of staff with a **university qualification** at the LAB. Fourteen (**14**) respondents (**9.79 percent**) found that such a qualification was present to a **small extent** at the LAB and **7** (**4.89 percent**) **did not know**.

5.2.9.10 Professionalism

Figure 43 (N = 143)



Seven (**7**) respondents (**4.89 percent**) claimed that they **did not know** whether **professionalism** prevailed at the LAB. Seventy-five (**75**) respondents (**52.44 percent**) believed that it prevailed to a **large extent**. One (**1**) respondent (**0.69 percent**) stated that there was **no extent** of professionalism at the LAB.

5.2.10 Understanding of knowledge management

Table 10: Understanding of knowledge management

Description	No.	%
A tool to manage the intellectual capital (collective brain) of the organization	60	41.95
A strategic part of the business of the LAB	43	30.06
A tool to manage what an organization knows	20	13.98
Just another management fad	4	2.79
Something one has never heard of	7	4.89
Other comments	9	6.29

The item sought to understand how respondents defined knowledge management. Five of the six items were closed, with the last item being open-ended. Sixty-three (**63**) respondents (**44.05 percent**) saw knowledge management **as a tool to manage the intellectual capital (collective brain) of the organization**. Forty-six (**46**) individuals who answered the questionnaire (**32.16 percent**) stated that knowledge management was **a strategic part of the business of the LAB**. Twenty-three (**23**) respondents (**16.08 percent**) defined knowledge management as **a tool to manage what an organization knows**. Seven (**7**) respondents (**4.89 percent**) thought that knowledge was **just another management fad**. Nine (**9**) respondents (**6.29 percent**) answered the **open-ended question**. Given the low response rate to this item, the researcher decided to present the actual responses in order to give the reader a full view of the comments provided:

• "To keep people informed about what is happening around them to encourage them to be the best in what they do"
• "Retention and recognition of special skills and ensuring filtration of the same to those who need it"
• "To ensure staff are equipped intellectually to deal with their work. To share knowledge gained, that is relevant to one's work, with other colleagues"
• "The ability to share things with people"
• "Acquiring new and latest fad and sharing same"
• "Independent way of doing things within the organization"
• "Sharing and publicizing for all at the LAB to have access to such"
• "Continuous, systematic acquisition of information, necessary to deliver service"
• "To ensure that there is order and obligation of lab followed"

5.2.11 Leaders as facilitators of learning

Table 11: Leaders as facilitators of learning

	No extent		Small extent		Moderate extent		Large Extent		Don't know		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Formal training (non-university based)	8	5.59	19	13.28	49	34.26	60	41.95	5	3.49	2	1.39
Informal training	5	3.49	25	17.48	53	37.06	50	34.96	5	3.49	5	3.49
Use of formal mentoring practices	8	5.59	31	21.67	41	28.67	54	37.76	6	4.19	3	2.09
Encouragement of experienced personnel to share their knowledge	6	4.19	19	13.28	46	32.16	66	46.15	4	2.79	2	1.39
Provision of opportunities for continuing education (university based)	15	10.48	30	20.97	41	28.67	44	30.76	9	6.29	4	2.79

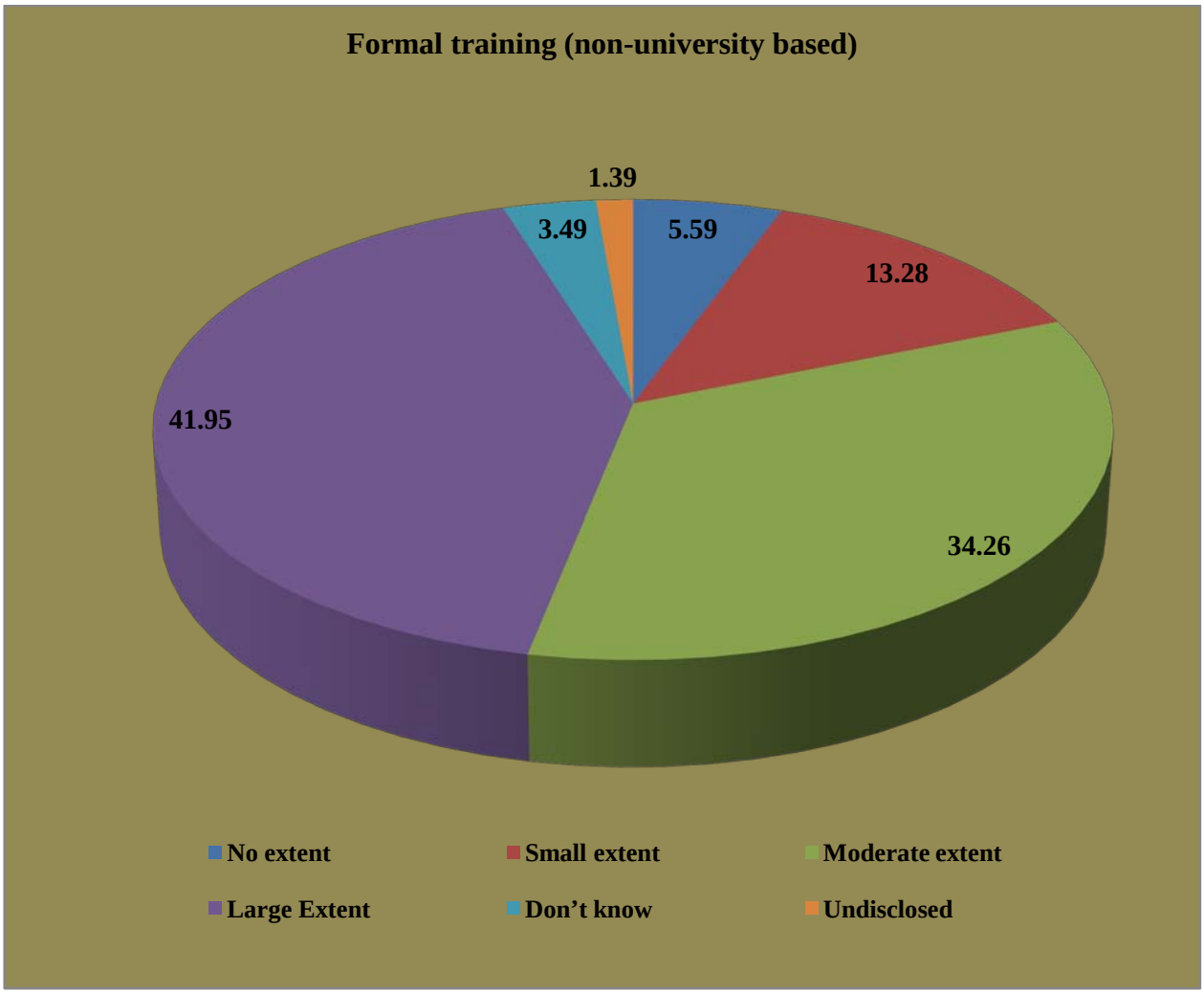
This item focused on the leadership pillar of the GWU model of knowledge management. According to Schein (2004) the leadership of an organization can facilitate learning within the organization. Leaders as facilitators of learning were discussed in Chapter Three. Chapter Three centres on the knowledge-sharing aspect of knowledge management. The assertion by Schein provided the impetus for the above item to be included in the questionnaire. Specifically, the above item examines the extent to which the leadership of the LAB facilitates learning within the organization.

In retrospect, the researcher is of the view that she should have examined the level of support that each tier of the leadership at the LAB provided. The LAB is a three-tiered organization, namely the executive management team, the regional management team, and the Justice Centre management team. This information would have been useful to identify what was positive or negative in the facilitation of learning in order to encourage the positive and develop the negative.

Sixty-six (**66**) respondents (**46.15 percent**) argued that leadership contributed to a **large extent** to the **encouragement of experienced personnel sharing their knowledge**. Five (**5)** respondents (**3.49 percent**) stated that the influence of leadership on **informal training** reflected **no extent** of importance. Sixty (**60**) respondents (**41.95 percent**) believed that leadership influenced formal training to a **large extent**.

5.2.11.1 Formal training (non-university based)

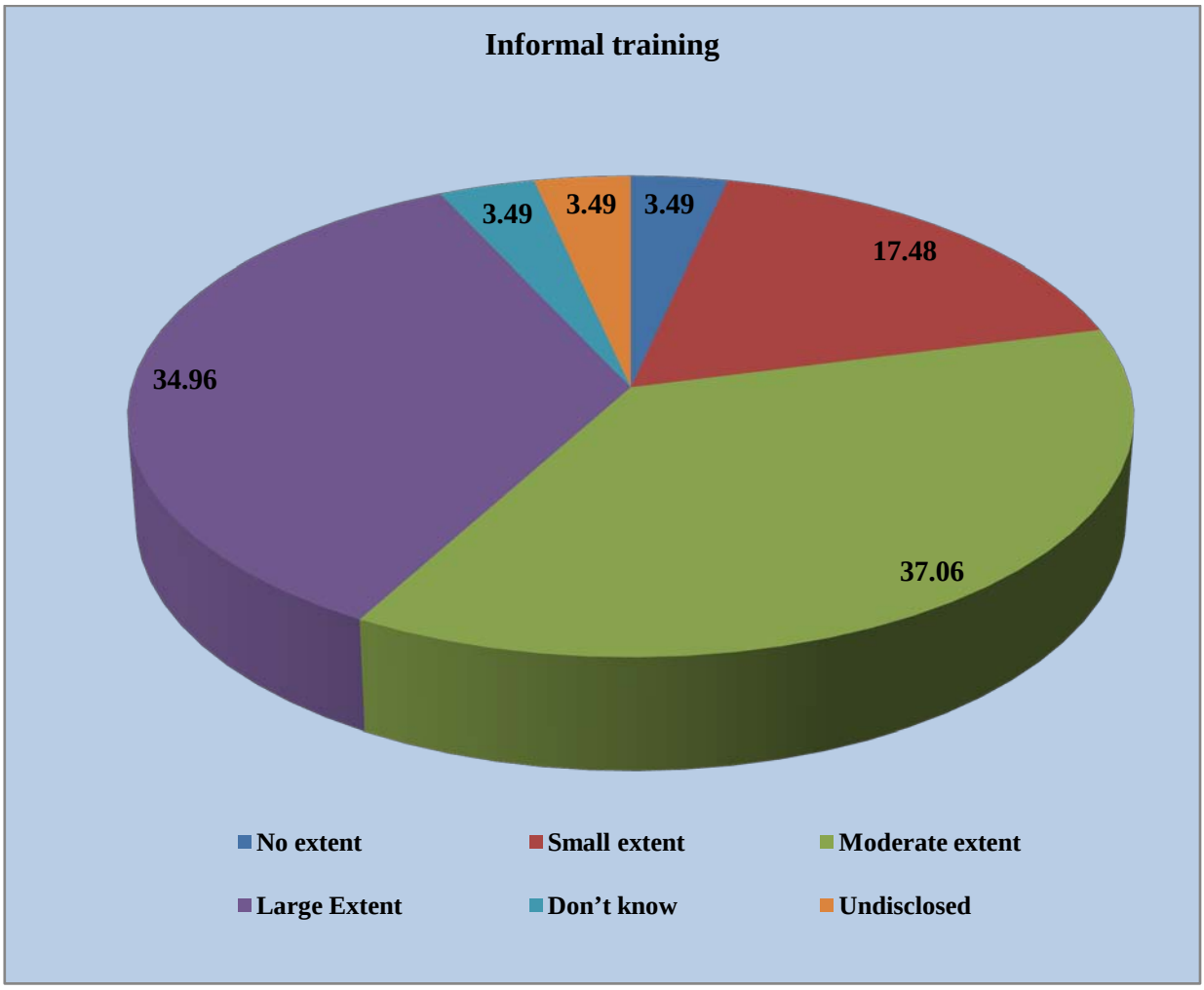
Figure 44 (N = 143)



The issue of the leadership of the LAB supporting formal training (non-university based) is indicative of leadership's attitude towards knowledge-sharing. Five (**5**) respondents (**3.49 percent**) **did not know** whether the influence of leadership facilitated **formal training** at the LAB, **60** (**41.95 percent**) of the individuals who responded believed that leadership facilitated and influenced formal training at the LAB to a **large extent**.

5.2.11.2 Informal training

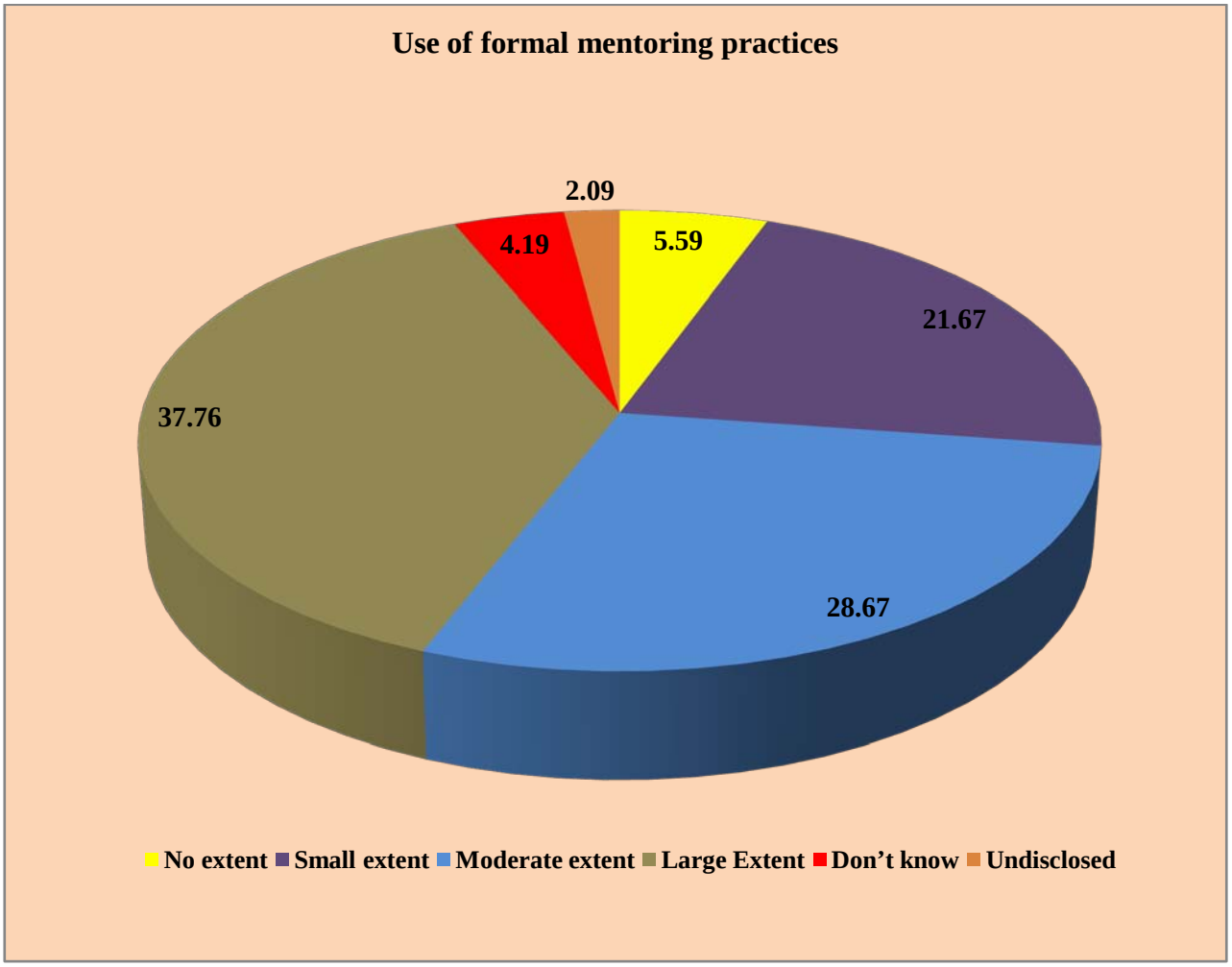
Figure 45 (N = 143)



Twenty-five (**25**) (**17.48 percent**) of the respondents saw the influence of leadership in **informal training** as being of a **small extent** while **53** respondents (**37.06 percent**) alleged that leadership swayed informal training to a **moderate extent**. Five (**5**) **(3.49 percent**) respondents **did not know** whether leadership was linked to informal training at the LAB.

5.2.11.3 Use of formal mentoring practices

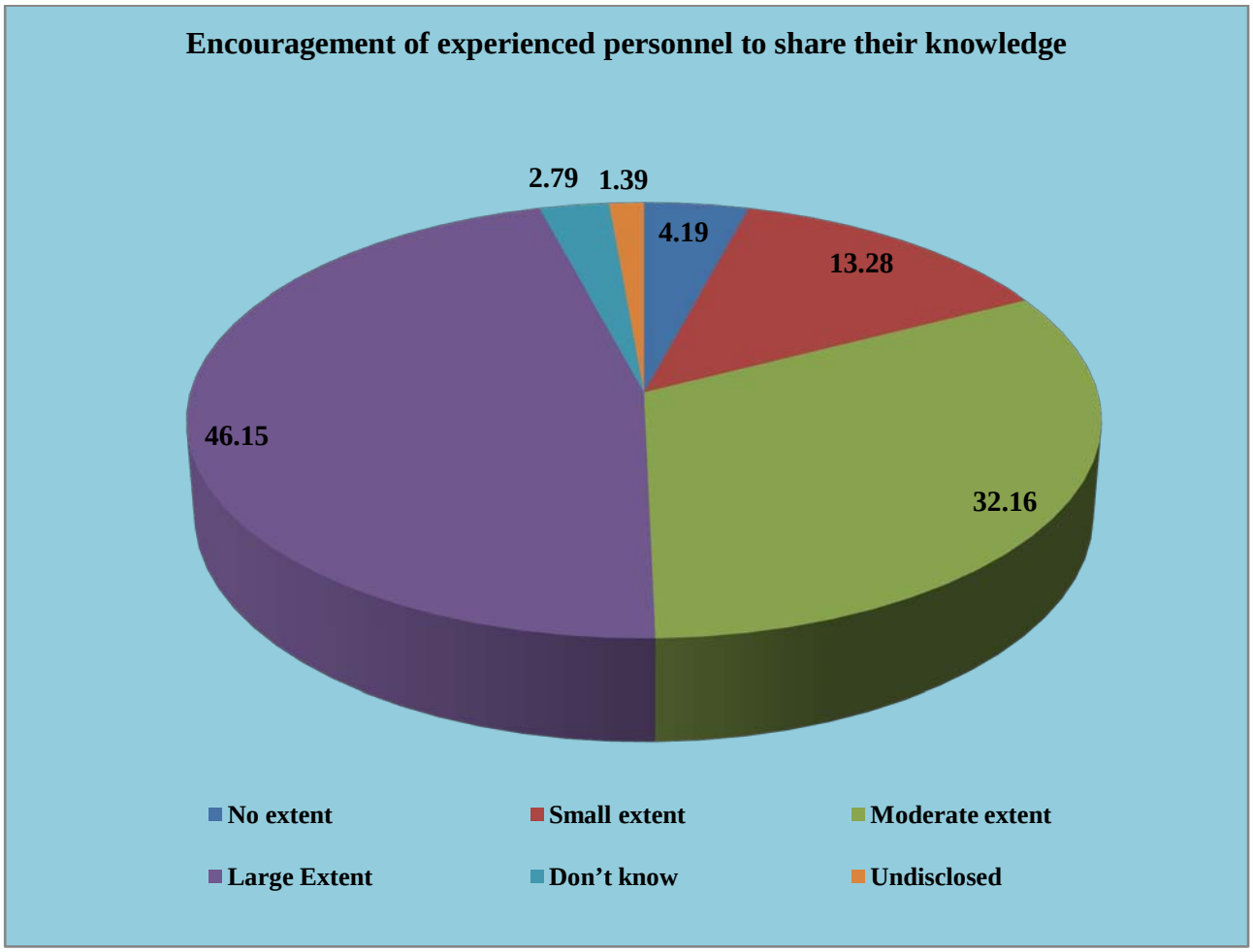
Figure 46 (N = 143)



The measurement of a **large extent** of leadership influencing the **use of formal mentoring practices** at the LAB was mentioned by **54 (37.76 percent**) individuals. Six (**6**) respondents (**4.19 percent**) **did not know** whether the above was true.

5.2.11.4 Encouragement of experienced personnel to share their knowledge

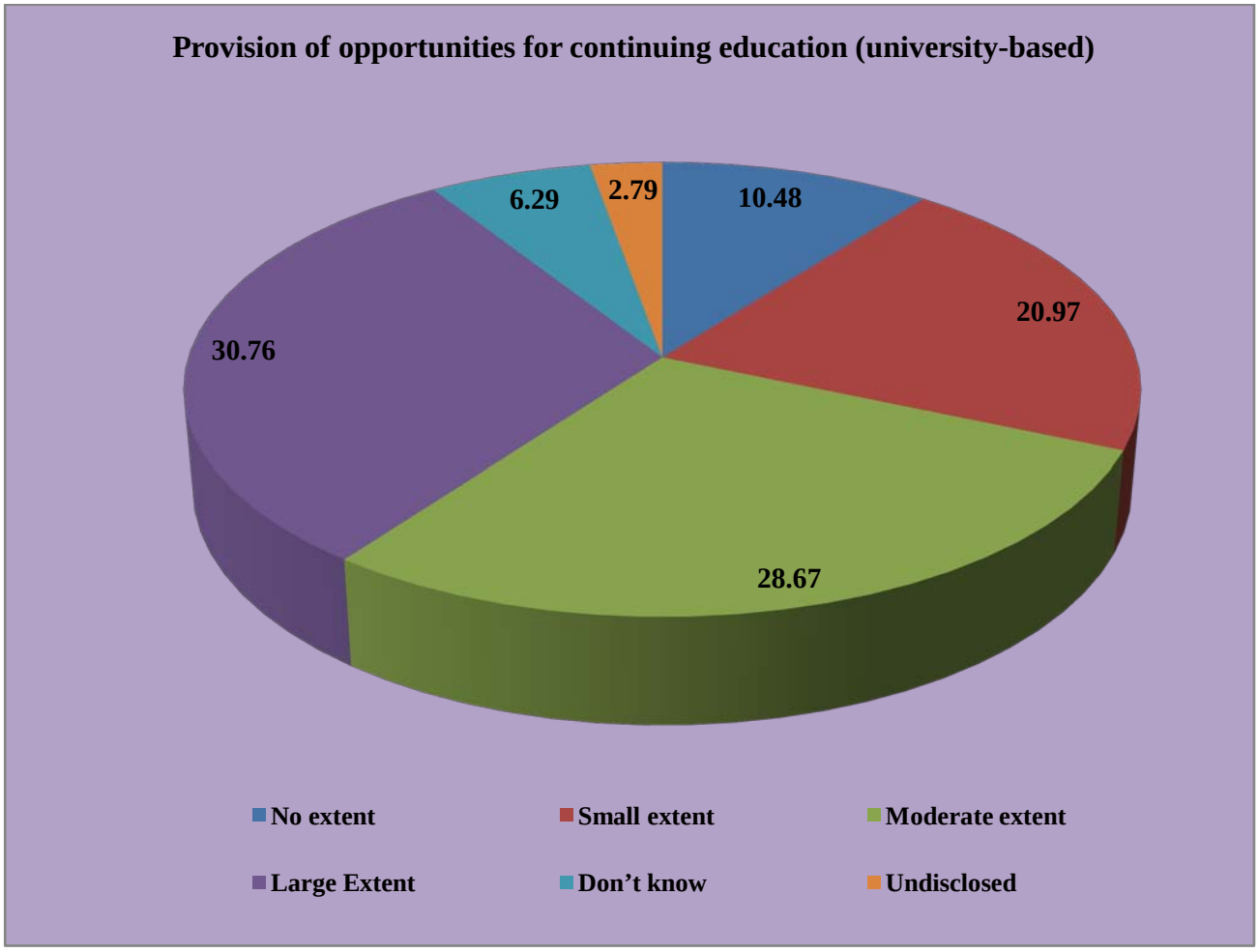
Figure 47 (N = 143)



Sixty-six **(66)** respondents (**46.15 percent**) thought to a **large extent** that leadership should **encourage experienced personnel to share their knowledge**. Four (**4**) respondents (**2.79 percent**) **did not know** whether the above was true. Forty-six (**46**) respondents (or **32.16 percent**) held that the above was true to a **moderate extent**.

5.2.11.5 Provision of opportunities for continuing education (university-based)

Figure 48 (N = 143)



The figures commenting on whether the leadership facilitated and influenced **the provision of opportunities for continuing education** reached double digits, except in the case of **9** respondents (**6.29 percent**) claiming that they **did not know** whether the leadership had facilitated and influenced the provision of opportunities for continuing education. Forty-four (**44**) (**30.76 percent**) individuals who responded to this question alleged that leadership influenced this issue to a **large extent**.

5.2.12 Technology

Table 12: Technology

Do you have access to a computer?	**Yes**		**No**		**Undisclosed**					
	No	%	No	%	No	%				
	138	96.50	2	1.39	3	2.09				
If yes, do you have access to the Internet at the LAB?	**Yes**		**No**		**Undisclosed**					
	No	%	No	%	No	%				
	100	69.93	38	26.57	5	3.49				
Does the LAB offer IT support?	**Yes**		**No**		**Undisclosed**					
	No	%	No	%	No	%				
	120	83.91	15	10.48	8	5.59				
If yes, how will you rate the level of support	**Excellent**		**Good**		**Average**		**Poor**		**Undisclosed**	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
	26	18.18	32	22.37	45	31.46	14	9.79	26	18.18
Does technology facilitate sharing of knowledge at the LAB?	**Yes**		**No**		**Don't know**		**Undisclosed**			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
	103	72.02	15	10.48	10	6.99	15	10.48		

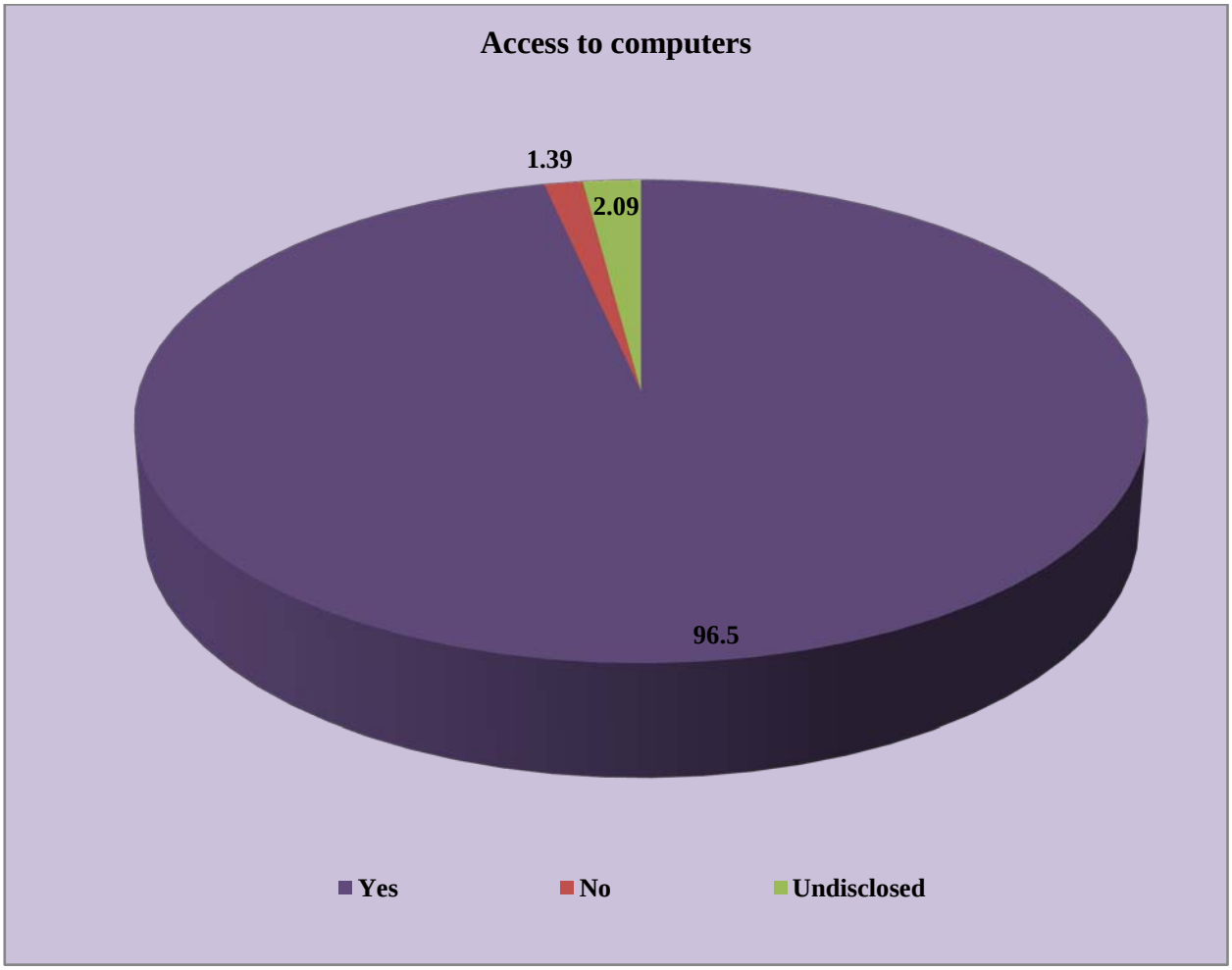
The above item addressed the technology segment of the GWU model of knowledge management. According to Skyrme (1998 in Steyn and Kahn 2008) technology enables knowledge-sharing and knowledge management in an organization – such is the relevance of technology in knowledge management and knowledge-sharing. Technology to enhance social sharing will be discussed in 5.2.13 of this chapter. Technology to enhance work place sharing will be discussed in 5.2.14 of this chapter.

A hundred and thirty-eight (**138**) respondents (**96.50 percent**) claimed to have **access to a computer** at the LAB. A hundred (**100**) respondents (**69.93 percent**) had **access to the internet**. A hundred and twenty (**120**) respondents (**83.91 percent**) said they received **IT support** at the LAB. Forty-five (**45**) respondents (**31.46 percent**) claimed that the **IT support** was of **average**

quality. A hundred and three (**103**) respondents (**72.02 percent**) believed that **technology facilitated sharing of knowledge** at the LAB.

5.2.12.1 Access to computers

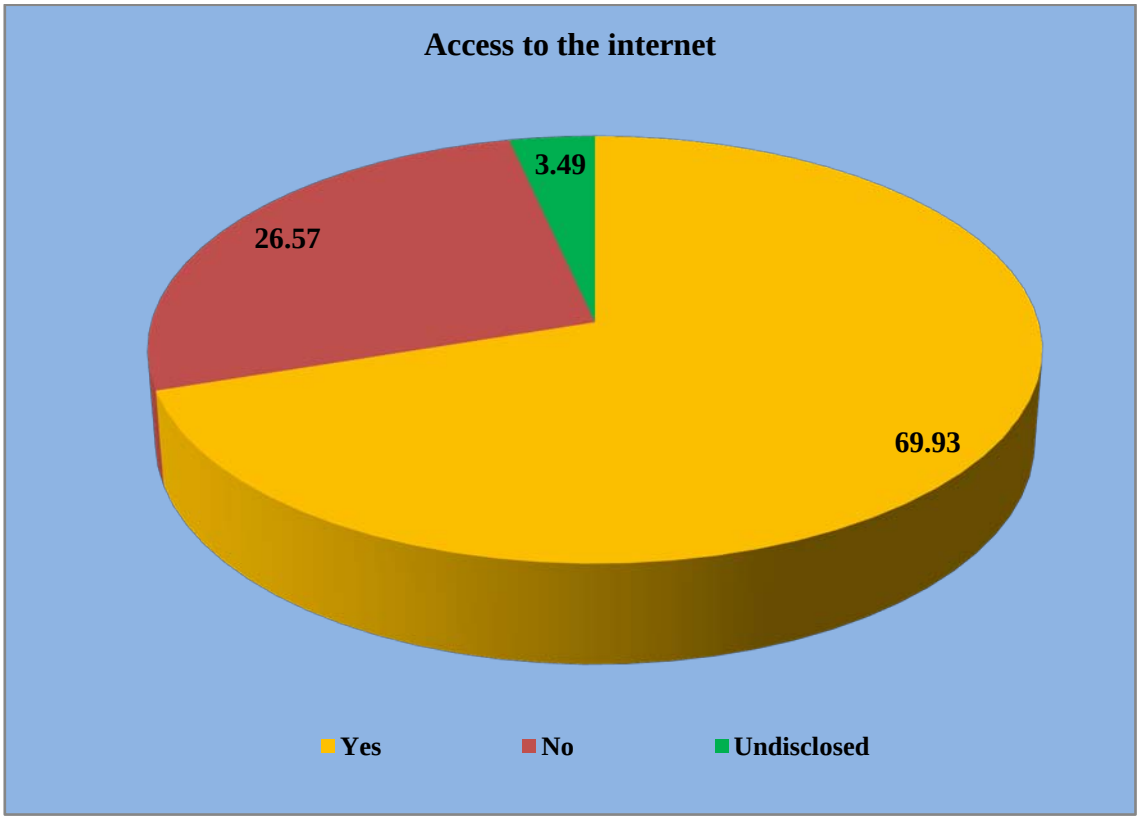
Figure 49 (N = 143)



A hundred and thirty-eight (**138**) respondents (**96.50 percent**) claimed to have **access to a computer** at the LAB. Two (**2**) respondents (**1.39 percent**) alleged that they **did not** have access to a computer.

5.2.12.2 Access to the internet

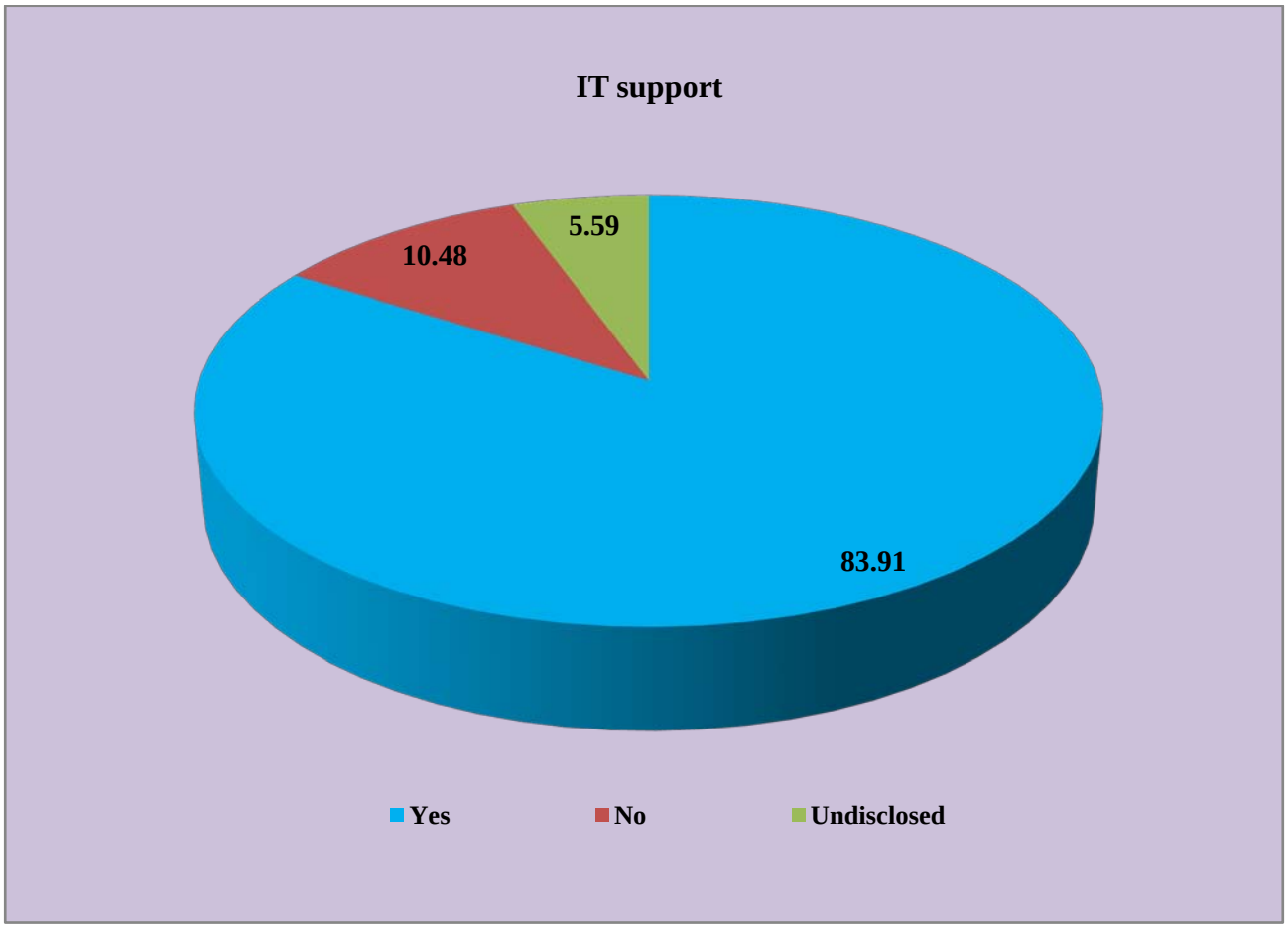
Figure 50 (N = 143)



A hundred (**100**) respondents (**69.93 percent**) claimed that they had **access to the internet** at the LAB. Thirty-eight (**38**) respondents (**26.57 percent**) said that they **did not** have access to the internet.

5.2.12.3 IT Support

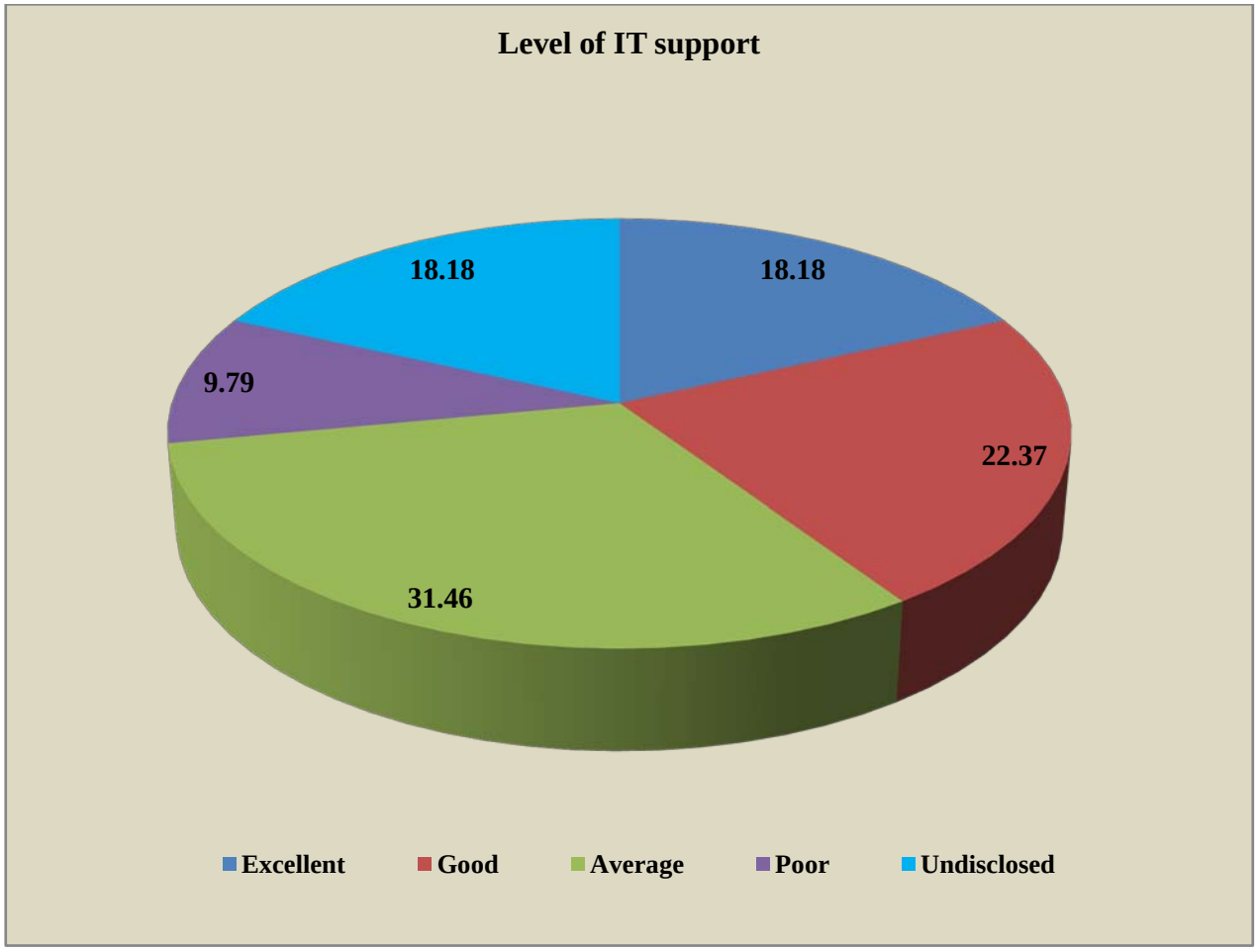
Figure 51 (N = 143)



A hundred and twenty (**120**) respondents (**83.91 percent**) stated that the LAB offered IT support. Fifteen (**15**) respondents (**10.48 percent**) believed that the LAB did not offer IT support.

5.2.12.4 Level of IT support

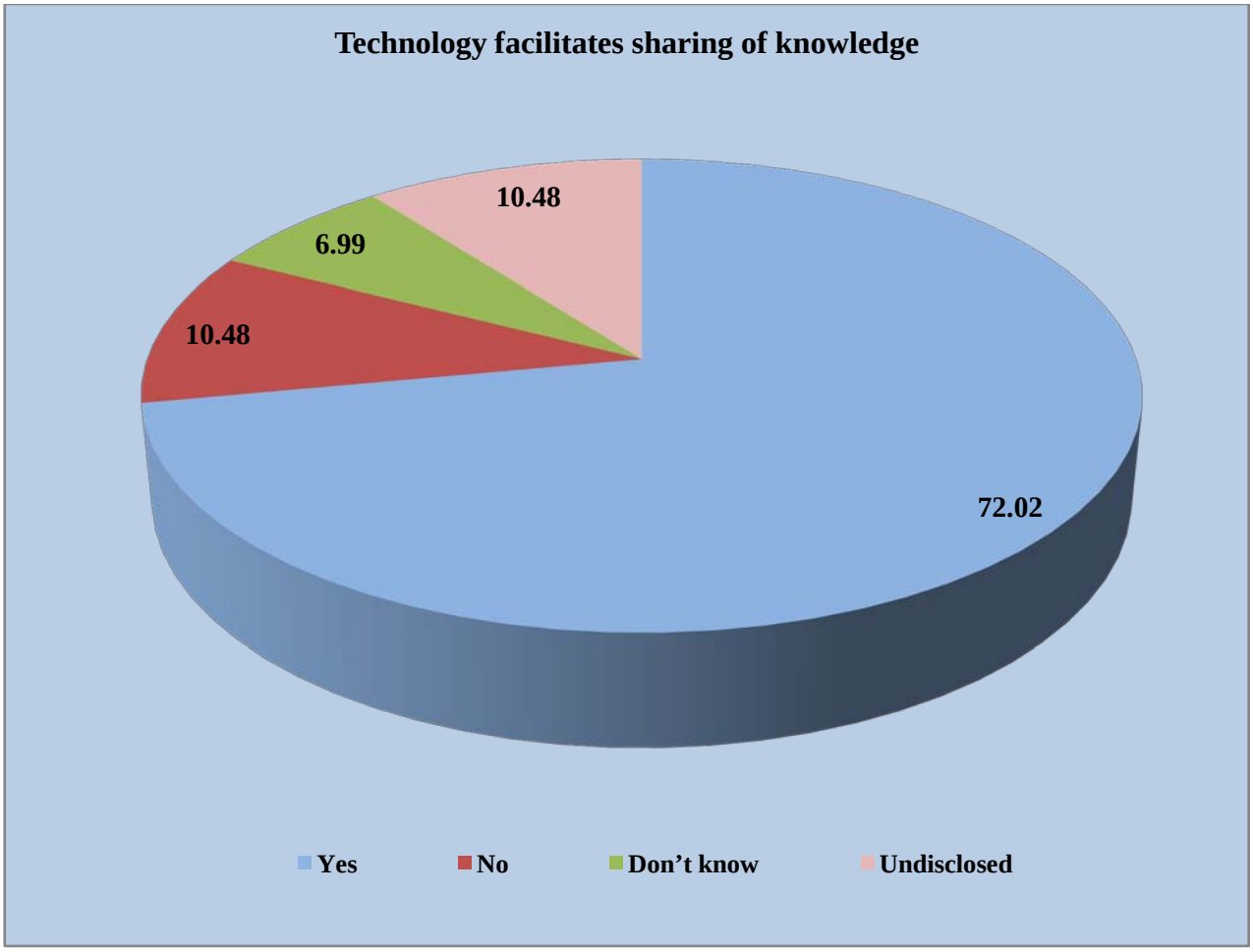
Figure 52 (N = 143)



The **highest** scoring in this question was **45** (**31.46 percent**). Forty-five (**45**) respondents (**31.46 percent**) thought that the IT support at the LAB was of **average** quality. Twenty-six (**26**) respondents (**18.18 percent**) believed that the support was **excellent**. Thirty-two (**32)** respondents (**22.37 percent**) maintained that the IT support was **good**. Finally, **14 r**espondents (**9.79 percent**) described the IT support as **poor**.

5.2.12.5 Technology facilitates sharing of knowledge

Figure 53 (N = 143)



Ten (**10**) respondents (**6.99 percent**) **did not know** whether **technology facilitated the sharing of knowledge** at the LAB. Fifteen (**15**) respondents (**10.48 percent**) thought that it **did not**; **103** (**72.02 percent**) believed that **it did**.

5.2.13 Technology: social purposes

Table 13: Technology: social purposes

	Daily		Weekly		Monthly		Less than once a month		Never		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
LAB's website	31	21.67	13	9.09	5	3.49	8	5.59	30	20.97	56	39.16
Worldwide web	9	6.29	8	5.59	5	3.49	7	4.89	54	37.76	60	41.95
LAB's intranet	21	14.68	12	8.39	4	2.79	7	4.89	30	20.97	69	48.25
E-Mail	52	36.36	12	8.39	1	0.69	2	1.39	21	14.68	55	38.46
ListServs	6	4.19	4	2.79	3	2.09	7	4.89	56	39.16	67	46.85
In-house database	7	4.89	7	4.89	3	2.09	11	7.69	51	35.66	64	44.75
Facebook	5	3.49	4	2.79	2	1.39	4	2.79	66	46.15	62	43.35
MySpace	1	0.69	1	0.69	4	2.79	2	1.39	89	62.23	46	32.16
Wikis	2	1.39	1	0.69	2	1.39	4	2.79	89	62.23	45	31.46
Blogs	1	0.69	1	0.69	2	1.39	4	2.79	89	62.23	46	32.16
Flickr	1	0.69	1	0.69	1	0.69	4	2.79	89	62.23	47	32.86
YouTube	4	2.79	0	0	3	2.09	5	3.49	85	59.44	46	32.16

The item addressed the technology aspect of the GWU model of knowledge management. As indicated in 6.2.12, technology is seen as an enabler in sharing knowledge and in knowledge management. The researcher used the above item to examine the extent to which the staff at the LAB uses technology to share knowledge. The item includes the application of recent technologies in relation to the knowledge-sharing activities. Hence the researcher included social networking technologies. The success of social networking technologies is based upon willingness to share (Chow and Chan 2008).

The technology used most often, as cited in the above table, was electronic mail (e-mail). Colman (2009) found that lawyers were extremely reliant on e-mail to find information. This, by implication, means that lawyers use e-mail to share knowledge. Apart from e-mail, the other electronic tools which lawyers use regularly are listservs and the internet (Kuhluthau and Tama 2001). The internet is referred to in this research as the worldwide web. Fifty-two (**52**) (**36.36 percent)** of the respondents used **e-mail daily**. **MySpace, Wikis, Blogs and Flickr** were used the least often. In fact, **89** (**62.23 percent)** of the respondents had **never** used the aforementioned databases. Social purposes included any activity other than specifically related to work needs. The following refers to the technologies used only for work purposes.

5.2.14 Technology: work purposes

Table 14: Technology: work purposes

	Daily		Weekly		Monthly		Less than once a month		Never		Undisclosed	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
LAB's website	68	47.55	26	18.18	8	5.59	6	4.19	17	11.88	18	12.58
Worldwide web	9	6.29	18	12.58	4	2.79	7	4.89	68	47.55	37	25.87
LAB's intranet	57	39.86	27	18.88	3	2.09	6	4.19	26	18.18	24	16.78
E-Mail	79	55.24	23	16.08	1	0.69	5	3.49	21	14.68	14	9.79
ListServs	9	6.29	9	6.29	1	0.69	3	2.09	71	49.65	50	34.96
In-house database	21	14.68	13	9.09	5	3.49	4	2.79	67	46.85	33	23.07
Facebook	1	0.69	6	4.19	1	0.69	4	2.79	94	65.73	37	25.87
MySpace	1	0.69	4	2.79	1	0.69	3	2.09	98	68.53	36	25.17
Wikis	1	0.69	2	1.13	1	0.69	5	3.49	98	68.53	36	25.17
Blogs	1	0.69	2	1.39	2	1.39	4	2.79	99	69.23	35	24.47
Flickr	1	0.69	4	2.79	1	0.69	3	2.09	100	69.93	34	23.77
YouTube	1	0.69	2	1.39	2	1.39	3	2.09	100	69.93	35	24.47

This above item targets the GWU pillar of technology. As in the case of 6.2.13, this item looks at staff engagement with technology and their activity in the use of technology to share information. This item related to workplace sharing.

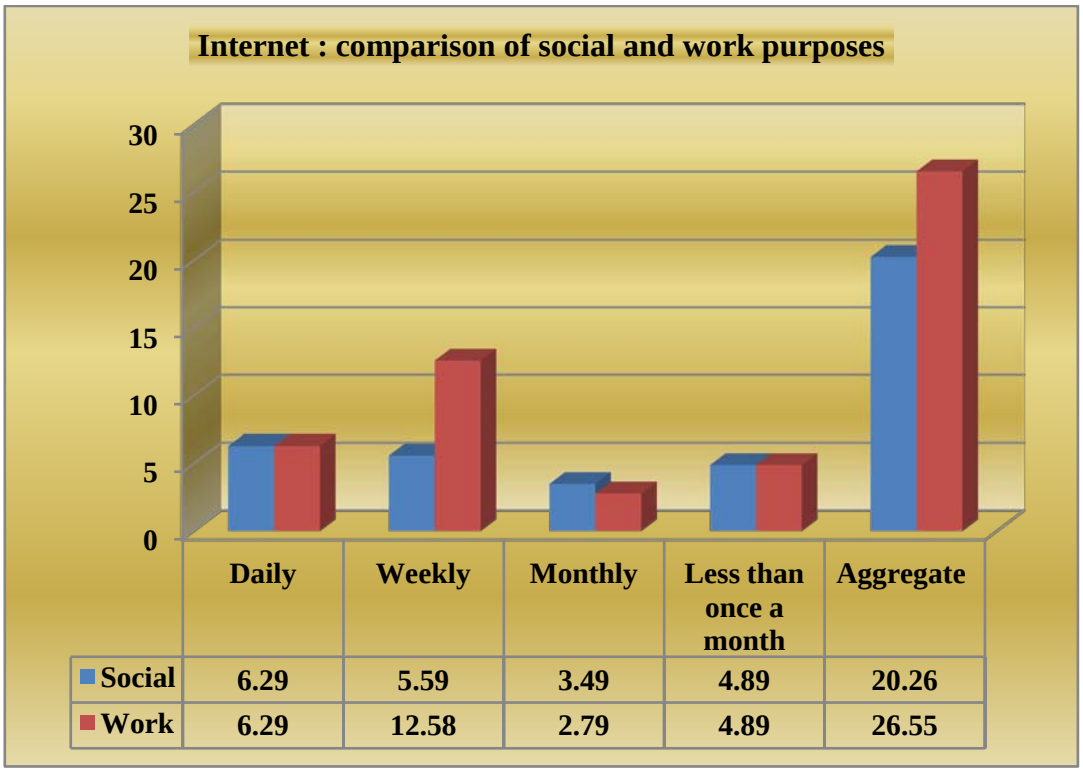
E-mail scored **55.24 percent** (**79** respondents) regarding its **daily** use. The **LAB's website** was the second most popular technology used. Sixty-eight (**68**) respondents (**47.55 percent**) used the

LAB's website **daily**. The social networking technologies were used least often – many of the categories scoring a response rate of **0.69 percent** (**1** respondent).

Comparison of social purpose and work purpose

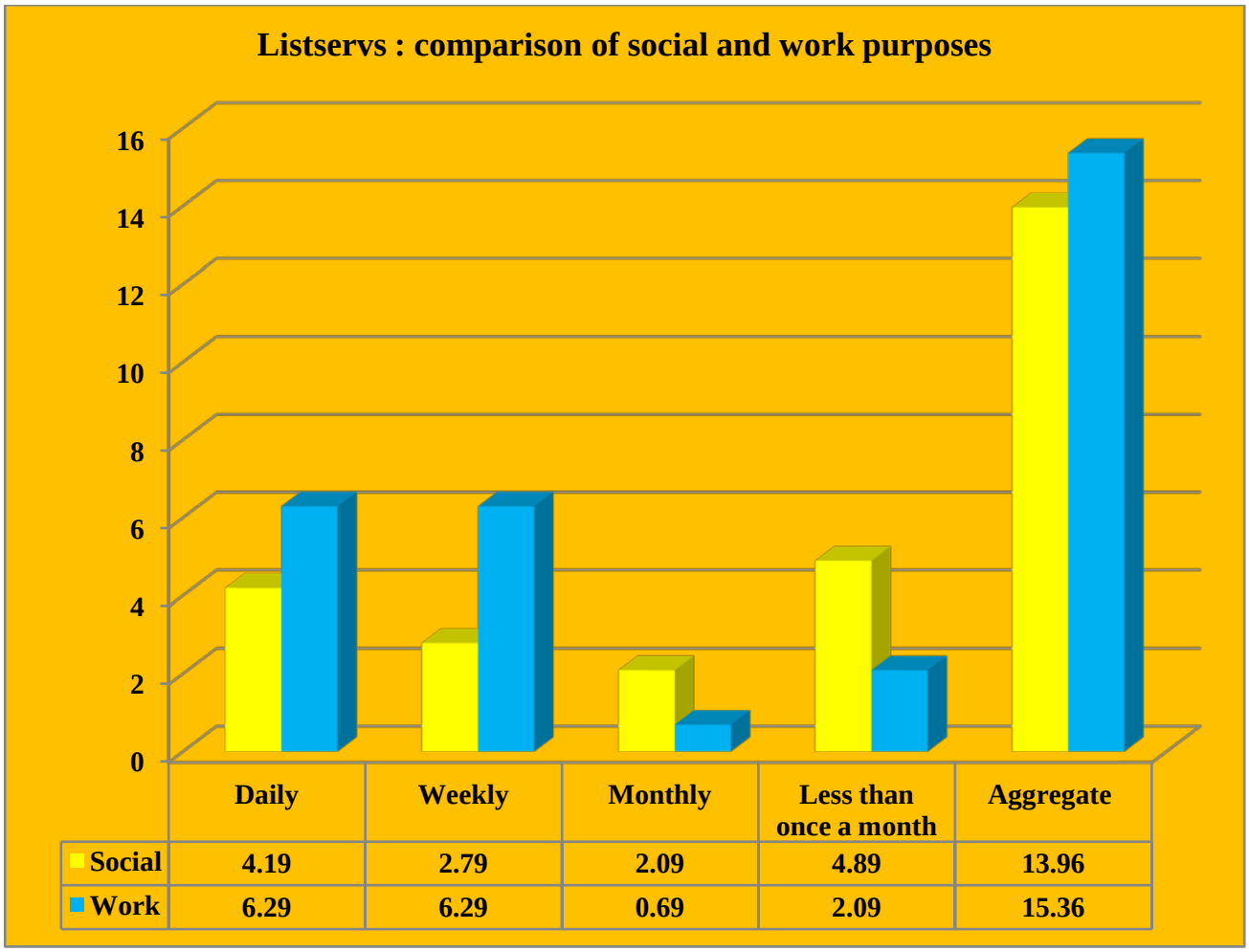
In response to Colman's (2009) assertion that lawyers use e-mail to find information and the assertion by Kuhlutahu and Tama (2001) that lawyers had regularly used e-mail, listservs and the internet (or worldwide web) – the researcher decided to draw a comparison on the usage of the internet, listservs and e-mail internet between the usage of technology for social purposes and work purposes.

Figure 54 (N = 143)



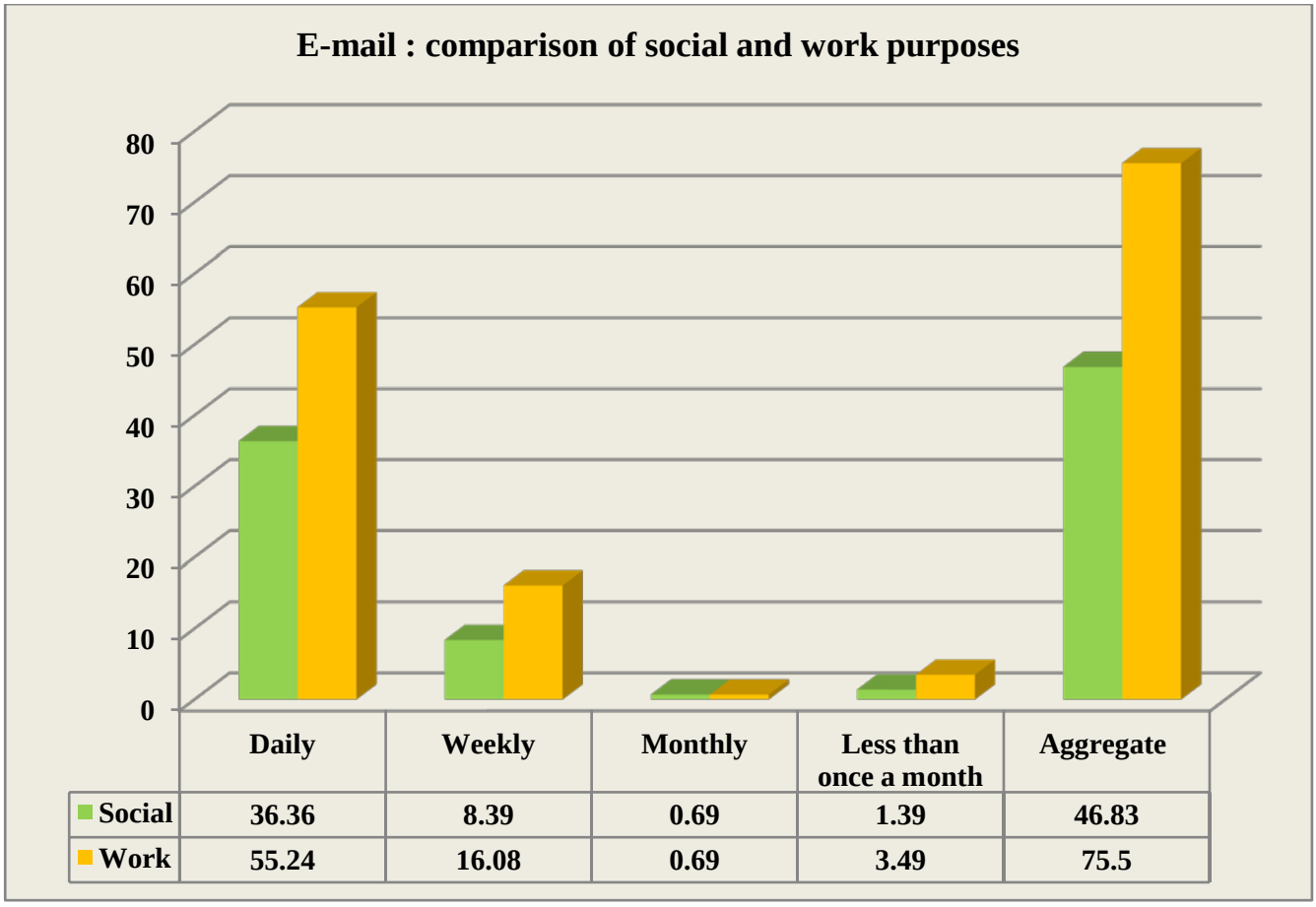
The aggregates reveal that the internet is used **more** for **work purposes** than it is for social purposes. Many sources of information and knowledge for workplace purposes can be retrieved via the internet. However, the use of the internet for both work and social purposes, on a daily basis, was the same.

Figure 55 (N = 143)



As with the internet, the aggregate for the use of listservs is **higher** for **workplace** usage than for social purposes. However, with regard to daily and weekly usage, the figures for work place purposes were higher. Listservs are inclined to share professional knowledge and information related to workplace needs.

Figure 56 (N = 143)



	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Less than once a month	Aggregate
Social	36.36	8.39	0.69	1.39	46.83
Work	55.24	16.08	0.69	3.49	75.5

The aggregates reveal that there is a significant difference between the usage of e-mail for social and work purposes. It is higher for workplace purposes. This corroborates Colman's view (2009) that lawyers are keen users of e-mail to find information.

In summary, with regard to usage of the internet, listservs and e-mail, there was greater usage for workplace purposes than for social purposes. The extrapolations will be discussed in the analysis chapter.

5.2.15 Organizational memory

Table15: Organizational memory

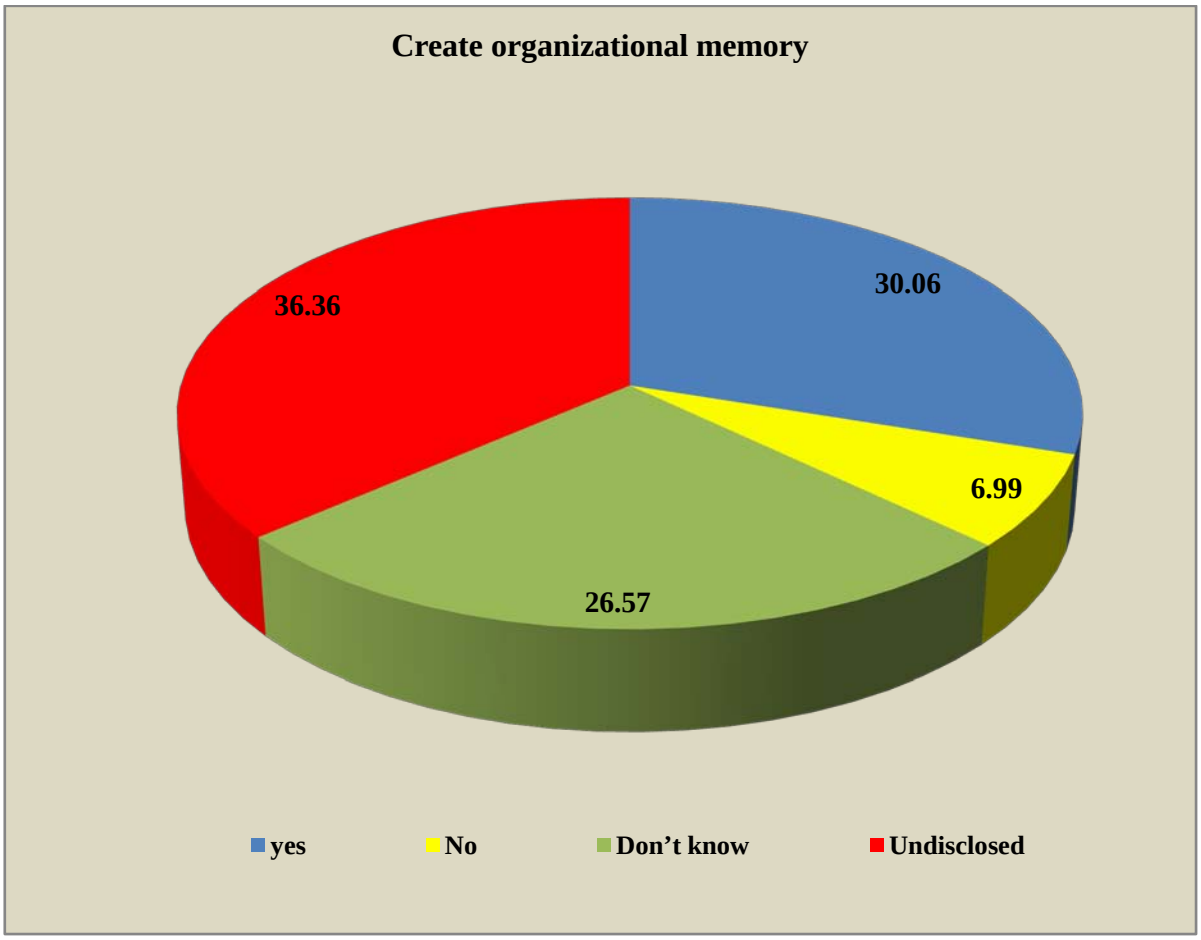
	YES		NO		DON'T KNOW		UNDISCLOSED	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Does the LAB use technology to create organizational memory?	43	30.06	10	6.99	38	26.57	52	36.36
If the LAB engages in the creation of an organizational memory, it is available to all?	28	19.58	15	10.48	47	32.86	53	37.06

This item addressed the technology pillar of the GWU model of knowledge management. Organizational memory is the accumulation of collective knowledge, for example archives and electronic databases. Often the means for the storage of such collective knowledge is technology. Forty-three (**43**) respondents (**30.06 percent**) believed that the LAB **does use technology to create organizational memory**, while **10** respondents (**6.99 percent**) alleged that **it did not**. Thirty-eight (**38**) respondents (**26.57 percent**) **did not know**.

Twenty-eight (**28)** respondents (**19.58 percent**) said that the **organizational memory** of the LAB was **available** to all. However, **15** respondents (**10.48 percent**) said **no** and **47** respondents (**32.86 percent**) **did not know**.

5.2.15.1 Creation of organizational memory

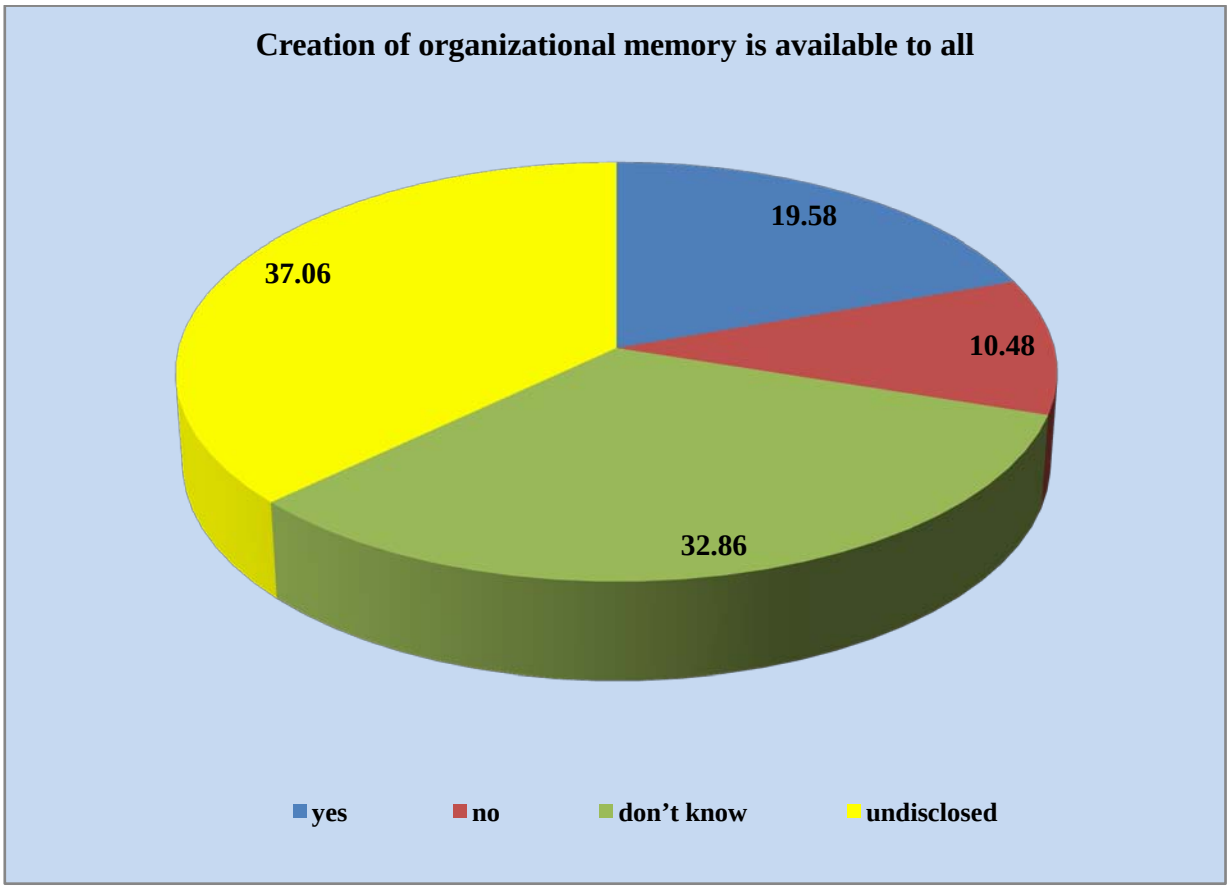
Figure 57 (N = 143)



Forty-three (**43**) respondents (**30.06 percent**) remarked that the LAB **does use technology** to create organizational memory. Ten (**10**) respondents (**6.99 percent**) claimed that the LAB **did not use technology** to create organizational memory. Thirty-eight (**38**) respondents (**26.57 percent**) said that they **did not know**.

5.2.15.2 Organizational memory available to all

Figure 58 (N = 143)



Twenty-eight (**28**) respondents (**19.58 percent**) alleged that the **organizational memory was available** to them. Fifteen (**15)** individuals who completed the questionnaire (**10.48 percent**) asserted that it was **not** and **47** respondents (**32.86 percent**) **did not know**.

5.2.16 Knowledge-sharing at the LAB

Of the **143** questionnaires received, **27** respondents answered **item 16**. Item 16 was an open-ended question which read "P**lease add any comment/s that you may have on knowledge-sharing in the context of the LAB**". Eleven (**11**) respondents commented directly on sharing. Most of them believed that the **LAB facilitated sharing**, however, **1** respondent believed that "there was a reluctance by some to volunteer information that they have acquired at the expense of the Board". Other responses to the above item concerned knowledge-sharing in terms of communication, technology and training, empowerment and team building.

Seven (**7**) respondents commented on the **communication** aspect of knowledge-sharing at the LAB. Two (**2**) respondents called for **greater communication between the justice centres**. Six (**6**) respondents alleged that there was **effective communication** within the LAB. Five (**5**) of these respondents pronounced the **newsletter** as an effective tool in communication. One respondent stated: " [The] Newsletter publication is one of the best ideas of the LAB". However, another respondent believed that face-to-face conversations were more effective than the newsletter. The respondent said: "We have enough magazines and newspapers". The daily discussions of the caseloads were lauded as an effective communication tool.

Technology among these respondents was poorly received, **7** individuals commented on the **technology**. They were dissatisfied with the lack of internet resources. They believed that this impeded their access to information. One (**1**) respondent called for a library in which to study, do research and hold discussions.

Seven (**7**) respondents aired their observations of knowledge-sharing through their comments on **training, empowerment and team-building**. They believed that the above three aspects (training, empowerment and team-building) were important in knowledge-sharing. Two (**2**) respondents suggested that there should be "team- building exercises during the course of the year".

5.2.17 Learning at the LAB

Of the **143** responses received, the completion rate for this item was that **20** respondents answered this item. Item 17 in the questionnaire asked "**Please add any comment/s that you may have on learning, in relation to knowledge management, at the LAB**". While many of the respondents claimed that learning did take place at the LAB and indeed **1** respondent saw the LAB as a "valuable experience for first-time attorneys", the responses tended to be "what should be" rather than "what its. One (**1**) respondent urged the management of the LAB to acknowledge decisions taken and the contribution of staff in order "to make them feel that they are also contributing to the growth of the organization". The theme of greater communication between justice centres repeated itself. One (**1**) respondent called for a "standardized legal aid guide" to be compiled to "assist employees performing routine tasks". Finally, one respondent thought that his or her comment would contribute to learning at the LAB. The respondent suggested that the LAB should have a "coffee room where all legal employees can sit and share knowledge without disturbing other employees".

5.2.18 Knowledge management at the LAB

Nine (**9**) respondents completed this open-ended item. Item 18 of the questionnaire asked "**Please add any other general comments/s relating to knowledge management at the LAB that you may have**". This question received **9** responses of which **7 were** from people who were proud to be working for the LAB. Evidence of this is the statement: "The LAB has the best staff and even [the] mentors that we get are still the best. You will find that at the LAB … they help you to grow professionally and you leave knowledgeable". The belief that there was knowledge-sharing at the LAB was upheld. However, the other theme that re-emerged was the technology. Again there was unhappiness surrounding access to the internet. One (**1**) respondent commented: "To allow CAs and other staff members to access any website, for instance Yahoo and Google, especially to do research and empower CAs with more knowledge".

5.2.19 Further comments

This was the final part of the questionnaire. It received **13** comments. The themes were not different from the other open-ended items. Sharing, communication and technology were the chief issues raised. Furthermore, the element of pride in working for the Board permeated the comments. Dissatisfaction with technology was met with a suggestion from one of the respondents who stated: "I suggest that laptops be loaned out to CAs. CAs spend long hours in court and when they come back to the office, the system is offline". The respondent argues in favour of using laptops as this will prevent CAs from "wasting time waiting for the cases to start".

5.3. Summary

The above presentation data was guided the research topic which investigated knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management, at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. In most cases the presentation was provided item by item.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings, as presented in Chapter Five, are discussed in the light of the research questions and the review of the literature. In investigating knowledge-sharing practices in the context of knowledge management at the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB, the researcher formulated five core research questions which are outlined in Chapter One. These core research questions, in some instances, were broken down into sub-questions. Nonetheless, the research questions were set against the theoretical backdrop of the GWU model of knowledge management. Developed by Michael Stankosky and Associates of the GWU Institute, the model is founded upon four pillars, namely leadership, organization, technology and learning (Calabrese 2006), which are discussed in Chapters Two and Three. To reiterate, leadership focuses upon the environmental, strategic and enterprise-level decision-making process involving the values, objectives and knowledge requirements of the organization. Organization addresses the operational aspects of knowledge assets, including functions, processes, formal and informal organizational structures, control measures and metrics, process improvement and business process re-engineering. The discussion of technology centres on the various information technologies peculiar to supporting and enabling knowledge management strategies and operations. The pillar 'learning' relates to the organizational behavioural aspects and social engineering. Learning also focuses on the principles and practices to ensure that individuals collaborate and share knowledge to the maximum (Stankosky 2005: 6-7).

In terms of the structure of this discussion, the researcher will split the research questions (as outlined in Chapter Two) into two categories, namely, knowledge management and knowledge-sharing. It must be noted that knowledge management and knowledge-sharing are not separate issues, but rather one stems from the other, namely, knowledge-sharing stems from knowledge management. Davenport (in Rowley 1999) points out that knowledge management is concerned with the exploitation and development of the knowledge assets of an organization with a view to furthering the organization's objectives. The knowledge to be managed includes both explicit (documented) knowledge and tacit (subjective) knowledge. The management of knowledge entails all those processes associated with identification, sharing and creation of knowledge. Seng, Zannes

and Pace (2002) argue that there are five steps to managing knowledge, namely capturing knowledge, storing knowledge, processing knowledge, sharing knowledge and using knowledge. From the definitions of Davenport and Seng, Zannes and Pace, it is clear that knowledge-sharing is a component of knowledge management. According to Seng, Zannes and Pace (2002) sharing involves the distribution of knowledge through information systems or face-to-face interaction. Given the researcher's view that knowledge-sharing is the most significant issue in knowledge management, as it serves as the kernel of the knowledge management process, the researcher constructed the questionnaire to investigate the sharing of knowledge at the LAB in the context of knowledge management.

As mentioned, the researcher will divide the analysis into two themes: knowledge management and knowledge-sharing, since these are the substantive issues in the research. The theme of knowledge management was represented in research question one. Research question one asked to what extent knowledge management took place at the LAB. The theme of knowledge-sharing was represented in research questions two, three, four and five. These questions sought to answer the extent of knowledge-sharing at the LAB and to determine whether the leadership and the organizational climate contributed to knowledge-sharing. Finally, the last research question tried to establish whether there were incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing.

The researcher deems it necessary to reiterate that she uses sharing, sharing of knowledge and knowledge-sharing interchangeably. In order to match the percentages derived from the results of the questionnaire to the measurement scale (namely small extent, moderate extent and large extent) used in this research, the researcher established her own guidelines. In terms of the guidelines a percentage of 1 – 20 percentage marks a small extent, 21 – 60 percent is viewed as a moderate extent and 61 – 100 percent is deemed to be a large extent.

Although the variables of **distribution of respondents and response rate, job designation** and **biographical information** do not fall into the themes of knowledge management or knowledge-sharing, the researcher believed that it was necessary to include them in order to give context to the study. With the provision of such information, the reader is aware of who responded to the study.

6.2 Distribution of respondents and response rate

Of the 325 questionnaires distributed, 143 were returned. This translates to a response rate of 44 percent. The questionnaires were administered to the nine Justice Centres (in Gauteng) of the LAB. The return rate from the Justice Centres varied from 25 percent to 90 percent. The top three response rates were received from the Tembisa Justice Centre, the Alexandra Justice Centre and the Soweto Justice Centre with a response rate of 90 percent, 77.27 percent and 56.75 percent, respectively. These three Justice Centres are situated in what is traditionally referred to as African townships. The researcher is of the opinion that more sharing occurs at these Justice Centres and this is demonstrated by the high response rate. Further corroboration of this opinion is generated by the researcher through a cross-tabulation between the various Justice Centres and the '**yes**' response to the question on whether sharing occurred at the LAB. A hundred (100) percent of the respondents from the Tembisa Justice Centre claimed that sharing occurred at the LAB, 98.2 percent of the respondents at the Alexandra Justice Centre made this claim and 90.1 percent of the respondents at Soweto Justice Centre attested to the fact that sharing occurred at the LAB. Hence the above percentages uphold the claim made by the researcher.

6.3 Job designation

The researcher identified six job designations, namely:

- Candidate attorney;
- Justice Centre executive;
- Professional assistant;
- Principal attorney;
- Senior litigator; and
- Supervisory professional assistant.

The significance of this identification was to determine which categories of staff shared knowledge most often. The researcher wanted to test the findings from the literature that staff at the lower levels of the hierarchy displayed greater tendencies to share.

To belong to each of the categories identified above, the respondent was required to hold a law degree. Despite being classified as a professional by virtue of his or her academic qualification, the above categorization of jobs inferred a hierarchical structure, with the Justice Centre Executive being at the top of the hierarchy. The professional assistants and CAs are situated on the lower rungs of the hierarchy. The highest number of response rates was elicited from these two groups.

The researcher randomly selected the example of the CA to lead further into the discussion of the job designation. Forty-three of the respondents were CAs. CAs are entry-level attorneys. Accordingly, the researcher is of the opinion that CAs have very little legal experience and see working at the LAB as a training ground.

6.4 Biographical information

In terms of the biographical information the researcher selected sex. The researcher wanted to cross-tabulate sex and the level of knowledge-sharing at the LAB. In terms of the literature, there was no absolute claim to the relationship between sex and sharing. However, Connelly and Kelloway (2003) allude to the fact that females are more likely to share than males. The results of a cross tabulation between sex and '**yes**' responses to sharing supported the claim made by the authors. Among the female respondents, 98.3 percent claimed that sharing of knowledge occurred at the LAB while 92.7 percent of the male respondents made this claim. The results of the cross-tabulation demonstrated a corroboration of the assertion made by Connelly and Kelloway. The researcher is of the opinion that females are more social than males and are consequently more likely to share.

THEME ONE: KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

6.5 Research question one: extent of knowledge management at the LAB

Research question one enquired about the extent to which knowledge management took place at the LAB. In order to assist in probing the above issue, the researcher included two sub-questions. The sub-questions involved gauging the respondents' understanding of knowledge management and ascertaining there were personnel dedicated to knowledge management at the LAB. The concept of knowledge workers was discussed in Section 2.5 in Chapter Two. According to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), it is the knowledge officer who is chiefly responsible for knowledge management in an organization. According to these authors, the basic roles of the knowledge officer are to provide the knowledge vision for the organization, articulate the concept of knowledge management to the organization and justify the value of knowledge created. A dedicated person should help define the concept of knowledge management to the rest of the organization.

The researcher provided a list of definitions to the respondents (as per item 10 in the questionnaire) from which they had to identify which one best suited their understanding of knowledge management. Of the respondents 41.95 percent were of the opinion that knowledge management is a "tool to manage the intellectual capital (collective brain) of the organization". This definition relates to the definition provided by Davenport, that knowledge management is a tool to manage the explicit and tacit knowledge of the organization. Apart from providing set responses, the last option in this item was open-ended. One of the respondents provided an interesting definition of knowledge management stating that knowledge management is "to ensure [that] staff are equipped intellectually to deal with their work. To share knowledge gained, that is, relevant to one's work, with other colleagues". The researcher was impressed with the definition, as it provided a very appropriate aim of knowledge management, that is, to share intellectual capital for the purpose of assisting with work.

It is the opinion of the researcher that an understanding of knowledge management can offer an indication of the extent of knowledge management in an organization. Furthermore, the researcher believes that, apart from the theoretical understanding of knowledge management, the lived

experience of knowledge management contributes to respondents' understanding of the concept and hence to the extent of knowledge management. The researcher believes that an understanding of knowledge management could reflect the extent of knowledge management. In other words, if there is an overwhelming understanding of knowledge management, it could imply the widespread implementation of the concept. In terms of the definition employed by this research, the concept of knowledge management (among the respondents) is understood 'to a moderate extent' at the LAB. This view is based on the response rate of 41.95 percent indicating that knowledge management was a tool to manage the intellectual capital of the organization. As noted from the guide in 6.1 above, the researcher regards a 41.95 percent response rate as a "moderate" response.

Similarly, the researcher believes that the extent of the presence of personnel dedicated to knowledge management is an indication of the extent of knowledge management. With regard to the availability of a dedicated person to assist in finding information (under 5.2.2.2. in the presentation chapter), 19.58 percent of respondents indicated that they used a dedicated person to help in finding information for work purposes. The researcher divided this "dedicated person" further into three job titles, namely knowledge officer, legal assistant and secretary. In item 6 of the questionnaire, the researcher tested which of the aforementioned employees had assisted the respondents with finding information. While 57.34 percent claimed to use a legal assistant to help them find information, 41.95 percent relied on the services of a secretary and 38.46 percent referred their need for information assistance to a knowledge officer. In item 7 of the questionnaire, the researcher examined the respondents' view on the level of assistance they received from the categories of assistants mentioned before. Leading the response rate was the help provided by the legal assistant, with 17.48 percent of the respondents remarking that the help from the legal assistant was very useful; 9.79 percent remarked that the help of the secretary was very useful and 7.69 percent of the respondents claimed that the help received from the knowledge officer was very useful. The researcher used the measurement of 'very useful' as the ideal. The researcher is of the opinion that ideally the respondents should have employed the services of the knowledge officer to help them obtain assistance in finding information, since this assistance should have been very useful. This will justify the role to be played by the knowledge officer in the organization in relation to knowledge management and knowledge-sharing.

In summation, the respondents claimed to have had the least help from the knowledge officer with regard to finding information. Thus the role of the knowledge officer is minimal at the LAB. It is

the opinion of the researcher that in an environment where knowledge management takes place to a large extent, the role of the knowledge officer should be far more active than that suggested by the respondents. This opinion is based on the assertion by Nonaka and Takeuchi that the role of the knowledge officer contributes to the success of knowledge management in an organization. Thus the researcher deduced that the role played by the knowledge officer in knowledge management, at the LAB, was small.

Another issue that the researcher used to understand the extent of knowledge management at the LAB was dealt with in item 9 of the questionnaire. This item listed the characteristics of a knowledge-intensive organization. The characteristics of a knowledge-intensive organization were, in part, determined by Fenwick and Hall (2006). In terms of two characteristics of a knowledge-intensive organization, namely staff with a university qualification and professionalism, the researcher attempted to gather a picture of whether the respondents believed that the LAB was a knowledge-intensive organization. Seventy-five (75) percent of the respondents claimed that most of the staff at the LAB had a university qualification. Furthermore, 75 percent of the respondents claimed that, to a large extent, there was professionalism at the LAB. From these two responses, the researcher deduced that the respondents believe that the LAB is a knowledge-intensive organization.

Although the researcher hesitates to draw a clear correlation between the claim that the respondents believe that the LAB is a knowledge-intensive organization and the extent of knowledge management at the LAB, the researcher is of the view that the since the respondents claim that the LAB is a knowledge-intensive organization, the LAB is ideally situated for knowledge management to be implemented. If the respondents believe that they work in a knowledge-intensive organization, by implication they are knowledge workers. The researcher believes that this recognition bodes well in terms of gaining the co-operation of the professional members of the LAB in an attempt to implement knowledge management.

Another determinant which the researcher used to ascertain the extent of knowledge management at the LAB was the role of the leadership in relation to learning. In terms of the GWU model of knowledge management, leadership, learning and technology are three pillars of the four-pillared model. As already mentioned in Chapter Three, Schein (2004) asserts that there are three important

characteristics of a leader, namely being visionary, facilitating learning and empowering followers. The researcher will refer to the last two of the characteristics in this analysis.

It is the view of the researcher that the leadership should promote learning and empower followers. Learning and empowerment contribute to effective knowledge management.

In determining the extent of knowledge management in relation to the role of the leadership in learning, the researcher used the following variables to reach an answer:

- Non-university-based formal training;
- Informal training;
- Encouragement of experienced personnel to share their knowledge; and
- Provision of opportunities for university based continuing education.

Item 11 of the questionnaire used the above variables to determine whether the leadership facilitated learning. It found that 41.95 percent of the respondents believed that the leadership facilitated formal training (non-university-based) to a large extent, whereas 34.96 percent of the respondents claimed that the leadership facilitated informal training to a large extent. Of these respondents 37.76 percent claimed that the leadership facilitated encouraged experienced personnel to share their knowledge, while 30.76 percent claimed that the leadership facilitated the provision of opportunities for continuing education (university-based).

Taking the average percentage for the scores of each of the variables mentioned above, the researcher reached an average percentage of 36.36, implying that the leadership facilitated learning to a percentage of 36.36. In using the guidelines provided in 6.1 a percentage of 36.36 represented a “moderate” extent. To understand the extent to which knowledge management took place at the LAB, the relation between leadership and learning was considered. This consideration is based upon the GWU model of knowledge management. The model lists learning and leadership as two of its four pillars. If learning and leadership are seen as two of the pillars of the model, then it can be deduced that learning and leadership contribute to the extent of knowledge management. The

researcher determined that leadership facilitated learning to a moderate extent, which meant that knowledge management took place to a moderate extent at the LAB.

In summary, the above discussion focused upon the extent to which knowledge management took place at the LAB. The above discussion was duly assisted by the following issues:

- Understanding of knowledge management;
- Personnel dedicated to knowledge management;
- Knowledge-intensive organizations; and
- Leadership in relation to learning.

The deduction made by the researcher was that the concept of knowledge management was understood to a moderate extent. Regarding the role played by personnel dedicated to knowledge management, the researcher claims that the extent to which knowledge management occurs at the LAB is small. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) argue that there are three categories of knowledge management personnel: knowledge practitioners, knowledge engineers and knowledge officers. Skyrme (2002) points out that the chief knowledge officer is a senior executive who is responsible for ensuring that an organization maximizes the value it achieves through one of the most important assets – knowledge. Christensen (2007) argues that senior managers are in a favourable position to encourage knowledge management in the organization actively. Dedicated personnel are important to implement knowledge management in an organization. This study found that the role played by dedicated personnel in the name of the knowledge officer was small with respect to assisting with information acquisition. Hence the researcher deduced that the extent to which knowledge management occurred at the LAB was limited.

In using a knowledge-intensive organization as a determinant in assessing the extent of knowledge management, the researcher hesitated to draw a clear correlation between whether the respondents believed that the LAB was a knowledge-intensive organization and the extent of knowledge management. However, the researcher found that the respondents were strongly of the opinion that the LAB was a knowledge-intensive organization; accordingly the LAB's potential for the implementation of knowledge management was large. Du Plessis (2004) argues that legal

organizations are ideally situated to implement knowledge management, as they are knowledge-intensive organizations.

The researcher included another aspect in the discussion – that of the GWU model of knowledge management. The researcher, in reviewing the relationship of the leadership to learning, found that knowledge management existed to a moderate extent. The role of learning in knowledge management is an important one. The leadership of the organization is in a critical position to influence the implementation and direction of knowledge management in a firm. As mentioned above, Christensen (2007) uses the same argument. The implementation of knowledge management has the potential to transform the organization into a learning one where lifelong generative learning becomes part of its learning culture (Senge (1990). Argyris and Schön (1978) argue that an organization must learn to learn.

In terms of the above discussion, the researcher concluded that knowledge management occurred to a moderate extent at the LAB. The conclusion was drawn by looking at knowledge management through the lens of the GWU model of knowledge management. However, it is the view of the researcher that at this stage of the history of the LAB, knowledge management is not integrated into the strategic objectives of the LAB. Rusanow (2009) argues that in order for the implementation of knowledge management to succeed, it must be aligned to the strategic goals of the organization. This view is premised upon the role of the knowledge officer. According to the responses gleaned, the role of the knowledge officer is very weak. If knowledge management had been strong at the LAB, the role of the knowledge officer would also have been strong. The view is supported by Skyrme's (2002) assertion that the role of the knowledge officer is to maximize the value of an organization by managing its most important asset, knowledge.

As mentioned earlier, this chapter divided the discussion into two themes: knowledge management and knowledge-sharing. The above research question (that is, research question one - "To what extent does knowledge management take place at the LAB?") related to knowledge management. Knowledge-sharing will be the theme of the other research questions, that is, research question two, three, four and five as listed in this chapter.

THEME TWO: KNOWLEDGE-SHARING

6.6 Research questions two, four and five

The researcher reviewed the literature and subsequently developed the questionnaire. The researcher will examine the evidence presented in Chapter Five and juxtapose that with the review of the literature. The researcher will engage in simultaneous discussion of the following research questions, namely, **To what extent does the leadership of the LAB (at national, regional and Justice Centre levels) actively encourage and support knowledge-sharing at the LAB? Does the working environment of the LAB actively facilitate knowledge-sharing? Are there incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing at the LAB?** It is the view of the researcher that these research questions are inter-related, hence the simultaneous discussion.

6.6.1 Research question two: To what extent does the leadership of the LAB (at national, regional and Justice Centre levels) actively encourage and support knowledge-sharing at the LAB?

Through perusing the literature the researcher identified the themes listed below that will assist in the discussion of the above research question. The researcher holds the view that the leadership of the LAB can encourage and support knowledge-sharing by:

- **Creating a climate to encourage knowledge-sharing** - Brower (1995) argues that this can be achieved by leadership providing support and creating structures and conditions for empowerment.
- **Sharing by example** – Lowe (2009) suggests that leaders can assist their followers through sharing by example. The way the leaders balance their work and professional life can be an example to the rest of the organization.
- **Staff development** – Lin and Lee (2004) assert that the leadership of an organization can contribute significantly to staff development.

- **Providing enablers to promote sharing** – It is commonly held in the literature that technology acts as an enabler in promoting knowledge-sharing. The present research did not deviate from this view. Therefore, in discussing enablers to promote knowledge-sharing, the researcher focused on technology as an enabler.

6.6.1.1 Creating a climate to encourage knowledge-sharing

Schein (2004) states that knowledge-sharing is enhanced by creating an empowering climate that allows maximum potential contribution. In order to analyze the above theme, the researcher examined the results listed in 5.2.3, which looked at the benefits of knowledge-sharing and the organizational climate. Two key issues regarding organizational climate are trust and openness. Al-Alawi, Marzooqi and Al-Mohammed (2007) suggest that interpersonal trust or trust between co-workers is an essential attribute in organizational culture. Team members require the existence of trust in order to respond openly and share their knowledge. According to Skyrme (2003), in creating a climate of trust and openness, individuals are encouraged to develop ideas, speak out and challenge actions. This climate of engagement opens the road to knowledge-sharing: 41.95 percent of the respondents claimed that, to a large extent, a climate of trust existed at the LAB, whereas 44.05 percent claimed that a climate of openness was, to a large extent, prevalent at the LAB. The researcher chose to use the "large extent" measurement throughout the rest of the discussion in order to have a consistent measurement. "Large extent" was chosen as it represented, to the researcher, an ideal situation.

Given the above percentages, it is the view of the researcher that the leadership of the LAB, at all three tiers, support and facilitate knowledge-sharing at the LAB to a moderate extent. The three tiers of leadership at the LAB include leadership at the Justice Centre level, regional level and national level (Legal Aid Board 2009). Although a moderate extent of supporting and facilitating knowledge-sharing is not ideal, it suggests that the leadership is engaging with this idea. However, there is room for improvement, especially as the researcher pointed out in using the "large extent" measure that she was looking at the ideal situation.

6.6.1.2 Sharing by example

It is the view of the researcher that the leadership of the LAB can demonstrate support and facilitate knowledge-sharing through sharing by example. In a study undertaken by Christensen (2007) it was found that senior managers are in a favourable position to encourage knowledge-sharing behaviour actively and establish an organizational culture of sharing. Platt (1998) believes that organizational culture is a strong predictor of the intention to share knowledge. The leadership's demonstration of knowledge-sharing can contribute to the organizational culture of sharing. Scarborough and Carter (2000) argue that human resource practices can best contribute to sharing knowledge by influencing the behavioural responses of organization members, including the leadership of the organization. 5.2.8 looked at the responsibility for sharing. In terms of 5.2.8, 46.85 percent of the respondents stated that sharing, to a large extent, was the responsibility of the Justice Centre executive, 32.86 percent remarked that it was the responsibility of the executive management team, 29.37 percent were of the view that it was the responsibility of the regional management team. On average 36.36 percent of the respondents claimed, to a large extent, that the leadership of the LAB had a responsibility to share knowledge.

In terms of the findings, the chief responsibility for sharing, according to the respondents, lay with the Justice Centre executive. The researcher deduces that since the Justice Centre executive provides the immediate leadership to the respondents, it is the Justice Centre executive who must inform the respondents, through sharing, of what is happening in the organization. The researcher cannot clearly establish the extent to which the leadership supports and encourages knowledge-sharing at the LAB because the researcher failed to examine the forms of sharing that took place (for example, does the Justice Centre executive share knowledge through face-to-face meetings, does the regional executive share knowledge by sending out e-mails, or does the chief executive officer share by holding meetings through video-conferencing) between the members of the organization and the leadership. However, on average 36.36 percent of the respondents claimed that, to a large extent, it was the responsibility of the leadership to share. Thus the respondents were of the view that the responsibility of sharing lay with the leadership to a moderate extent. Despite the researcher not investigating the forms of sharing that took place, one of the respondents claimed that "the newsletter publication is one of the best ideas of the LAB". The issue of communication is closely tied to the principle of sharing. However, communication in the working environment will be discussed under research question four.

6.6.1.3 Staff development

Lin and Lee (2004) argue that senior managers could contribute significantly to the development of core competencies and skills of the members of an organization. In addition, the leadership can assist staff develop through improving people skills and empowering people (Levy 2009; Martin 2009). The researcher is of the opinion that the leadership of an organization can encourage and support knowledge-sharing through staff development. The researcher argues that the development of staff can be achieved through informal and formal methods. The results of 5.2.11 (leaders as facilitators of learning) suggest that the leadership develops staff to a large extent by encouraging non-university based formal learning; 41.95 percent of the respondents argued that this happened to a large extent, while 30.76 percent of the respondents claimed that the leadership facilitated development to a large extent by providing opportunities for continuing education. The purpose of continuing legal education is to maintain or sharpen the skills of licensed attorneys and judges (Continuing legal education 2009). On average 36.35 percent of the respondents claimed that the leadership, to a large extent, supported formal education and training at the LAB. Furthermore, 34.96 percent of the respondents claimed that the leadership, to a large extent, supported informal training.

The above results were also used in theme one (knowledge management) to show that the leadership support of learning contributed to the extent of knowledge management. Concomitantly, the researcher argues that the leadership support of learning and staff development contributes to both the extent of knowledge management in an organization and the organizational climate of sharing knowledge.

The researcher supports Senge's (1990) argument that staff development creates an opportunity for the establishment of a learning organization. The researcher maintains that the leadership of the LAB supports and facilitates staff development through sharing to a moderate extent. This is based on the above percentages.

6.6.1.4 Providing enablers to promote sharing

By suggesting that the leadership supports and encourages knowledge-sharing through providing enablers to expedite sharing, the researcher is primarily referring to technology as an enabler. The American Institute of Certified Public Accountants (2005) affirms the commonly held assertion that technology is an enabler. Technology is one of the issues relating to research question four. However, in the context of this part of the analysis, the researcher draws upon the singular relationship between technology and leadership. According to the respondents, 96.5 percent claimed to have access to a computer while 69.93 percent had access to the internet. The researcher believes that providing access to technology as an enabler to sharing is one of the many ways in which the leadership supports and encourages knowledge-sharing to a large extent. Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007) state that employees use technology to share knowledge and expertise. However, this discussion will be continued later in research question four when drawing the link between technology and the effect upon the working environment.

Although technology plays a role in knowledge-sharing, it does not guarantee knowledge-sharing. Du Plessis (2004) argues that the organizational culture will determine the extent of knowledge-sharing. This view is supported by Steyn and Kahn (2008). This does not negate the importance of technology as an enabler in providing the conduit to knowledge-sharing in an organization.

6.6.2 Research question four: Does the working environment of the LAB actively facilitate knowledge-sharing?

Research question four is divided into three sub-questions, namely:

- The communication that occurs;
- The training and mentoring practices; and
- Whether technology at the LAB acts as enabler for knowledge-sharing.

6.6.2.1 Communication that occurs

With regard to communication, the researcher deliberately excluded technology as a medium of communication from the analysis in this section. The researcher is of the opinion that technology is a vital part of knowledge management and knowledge-sharing and as a result did not want to mute its significance by including it as a part of a section. Section 6.6.2.3 will offer an exclusive discussion on the effect of technology on the working environment and its role in communication, especially social networking.

The researcher decided to use the results of 5.2.5 (which referred to learning) and 5.2.8 (relating to responsibility for sharing) to provide the basis for the discussion on the state of communication in facilitating knowledge-sharing in the working environment. It is the view of the researcher that communication acts as a channel in the quest to learn. Furthermore, the researcher believes that learning is divided into two parts: theoretical learning and experiential learning. The aspect of theoretical learning was singled out, in question one, to examine the extent to which the leadership of the LAB supported and encouraged knowledge-sharing. This part of the discussion will focus on experiential learning. According to Howe (2007) experiential learning involves the creation of an experience. The experience of learning includes communication where sharing is part of that communication. Sharing takes place through communication, hence the inclusion of the item on responsibility for sharing in the analysis of the aforementioned sub-question.

As indicated in 5.2.5, communication, for the purpose of sharing, took place through:

- Working in collaborative project teams;
- Transfer of expertise;
- Special focus meetings;
- Storytelling;
- Communities of practice; and
- Face-to-face conversations.

Of the forms of communication listed above, “face-to-face conversations” received the highest response rate, being indicated as occurring to a large extent. Seng, Zannes and Pace (2002) argue that knowledge-sharing occurs either through information systems or face-to-face interactions. Of the respondents 39.86 percent claimed that they used face-to-face conversations as a communication avenue to share information. This marked the highest score in this section, hence the researcher’s choice to emphasize this variable in the discussion. Rusanow (in White 2002) points out that lawyers are frugal with time. Therefore, communicating face-to-face is quicker and more expeditious than using information technology. Face-to-face conversations have the benefit of visual contact, implying that the subtleties of body language can communicate greater meaning. In the event of doubt, face-to-face conversations offer an opportunity to seek clarification. It is clear that face-to-face communication is the preferred mode of communication. This preference is fuelled by the fact that there is limited access to technology by virtue of the functionality of legal workers, as they spend large parts of their working day in court. This limited access reduces the potential that technology provides as an enabler for sharing.

6.6.2.2 Training and mentoring practices

Training and mentoring practices contribute to the working environment in facilitating knowledge-sharing at the LAB. The researcher qualifies training and mentoring as in-service training and in-service mentoring, that is, training and mentoring, conducted by colleagues, that takes place within the work environment. In the researcher’s opinion this in-service training and mentoring allows for the diffusion of expertise. This diffusion of expertise is of utmost importance, as it is a powerful enabler in sharing knowledge. The researcher is of the strong opinion that self-contained knowledge is disempowering for the organization, as it promotes individualism, which goes against the principles of knowledge management and sharing. On the other hand, knowledge-sharing is all-empowering for any organization.

An organization can gain maximum benefit from new knowledge, if it is efficiently integrated into the organization within a continuous knowledge life cycle. This is what Senge (1990) refers to as generative learning. In this respect, training and mentoring are becoming ever more effective as a means to facilitate knowledge creation and sharing and build intellectual capital (Karkoulian, Halawi and McCarthy 2008). In the previous chapter, in sections 5.2.3., 5.2.5 and 5.2.11, the

researcher presented the benefits and climate of knowledge-sharing and the way in which leaders facilitate sharing, respectively. The grouping of these issues provided a relevant backdrop for a discussion on training and mentoring practices. With reference to 5.2.3, the researcher referred to "knowledge is encouraged and promoted"; with reference to 5.2.5, reference is made to "coaching and mentoring" and "transfer of expertise" and finally, in 5.2.11 the researcher refers to "encouragement of experienced personnel to share". All of these issues are significant contributors to enhance the discussion on training and mentoring.

For the purposes of clarification, the researcher wanted to repeat the issues employed in the discussion on training and mentoring practices:

- Encouragement and promotion of knowledge;
- Coaching and mentoring;
- Transfer of expertise; and
- Encouragement of experience personnel to share.

As indicated above the researcher is of the opinion that in-service training and mentoring lead to the diffusion of expertise. The justification for the selection of the above variables in this discussion is the researcher's opinion that they contribute to the training and mentoring practices of the organization. However, the practice needs to be guided by a mental model (Senge 1990). If knowledge is encouraged and promoted and experienced personnel are encouraged to share, it is a reflection of the organization's attitude to training and mentoring. While coaching and mentoring imply a formal attempt by the organization to support training and mentoring practices, the transfer of expertise can be informal; it can also be included as formal training practices of the organization.

With reference to 5.2.3, knowledge-sharing is encouraged and promoted to a large extent at the LAB, as indicated by 61.53 percent of the respondents. Sharing is encouraged (in 5.2.11) to the point that 46.15 percent of the respondents claim that, to a large extent, experienced personnel are encouraged to share their knowledge. While sharing of knowledge is rated highly, it does not seem that the transfer of expertise (in 5.2.5) actually translates into practice. In this regard, 18.18 percent of the respondents asserted that transfer of expertise occurs to a large extent. Despite, this assertion, 38.46 percent of the respondents are of the view that coaching and mentoring occur to a large extent at the LAB.

In terms of the researcher's analysis of the above information, she believes that the will to share is stronger than the practice of sharing. This could be a result of time constraints (as alluded to above with regard to spending large parts of their time in court) or it could be, as one respondent remarked, "There was a reluctance by some to volunteer information that they acquired at the expense of the Board." This statement by one of the respondents confirms the researcher's view that self contained knowledge is disempowering and has a negative impact on the organization.

The researcher reiterates that training and mentoring practices are a significant enabler in the sharing of knowledge.

6.6.2.3 Technology at the LAB as an enabler for knowledge-sharing

To conform to the theme of enablers, the researcher discusses technology as an enabler for knowledge-sharing. In suggesting that technology acts as an enabler, the researcher simply asks the questions as to whether technology makes it easier for people to share. The relationship between leadership and technology acting as an enabler in the knowledge-sharing experience was discussed in research question four. However, this analysis extends beyond leadership. As observed in the presentation of 5.2.12 and in the discussion of communication in research question four, 96.50 percent of the respondents had access to computers and 69.93 percent had access to the internet. The researcher uses the concept internet and the phrase worldwide web to mean the same thing. Item 2.14 looked at how often the respondents used certain technologies for work purposes and item 2.13 referred to the usage of technologies with regard to social purposes. Overall, the researcher wanted to examine the engagement of the respondents with technologies. The use of technologies implied a conduit (or enabler) to share knowledge. However, for the purpose of this analysis, the researcher will only refer to the use of technologies for work purposes.

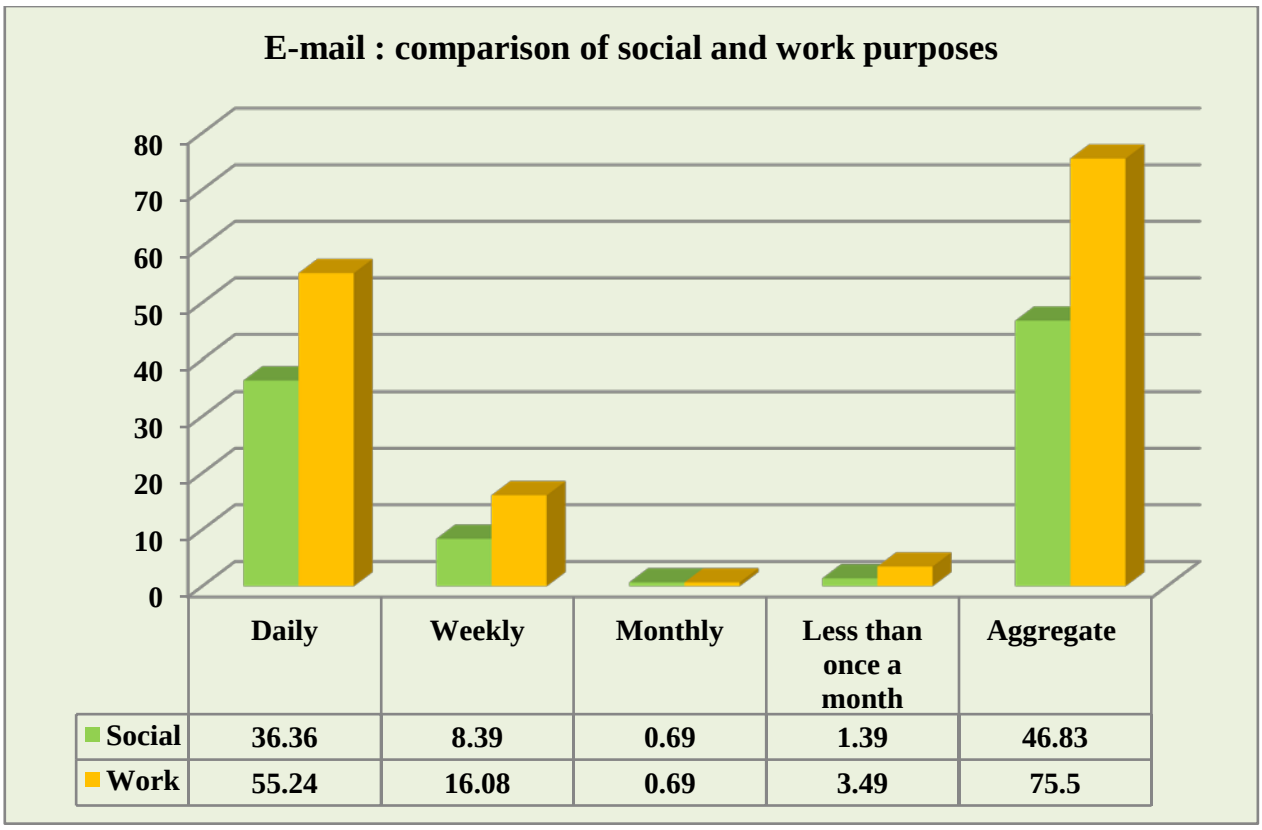
In a study undertaken by Hall (Society for the Advancement of Education 2009) it was found that 25 percent of the lawyers studied believed that the factor with the greatest influence on the legal industry in the next five years will be technology. Colman (2009) asserted that lawyers were highly reliant upon e-mail to find information. The researcher draws inferences from the assertion of Colman (2009). The fact that lawyers find information via e-mail implies that there is sharing

among lawyers during the exchange of e-mails. In addition, Kuhlthau and Tama (2001) claimed that lawyers use e-mail, listservs and the internet more than other technologies. When analysing the use of e-mail, listservs and internet on a daily basis, the researcher found that 55.24 percent of the respondents used e-mail on a daily basis, 6.29 percent of the respondents used listservs on a daily basis and 39.86 percent of the respondents used the intranet on a daily basis. The researcher's choice in employing the time of "daily basis" is premised upon the view that if the use of the above technologies should be fully integrated into the professional lives of the respondents, they would use them on a daily basis.

E-mail was used most while listservs were used least often. The researcher surmises that the use of e-mail is well integrated into the work life of the respondents. Therefore, using the assertion by Colman (2009) (mentioned above), the researcher concludes that the respondents engage in sharing via their e-mail system. This is confirmed by the fact that the use of e-mail at the LAB lies between a moderate extent and a large extent. However, the researcher cannot categorically indicate the actual extent of sharing via the e-mail system.

As already mentioned, item 2.13 referred to the use of technologies for social purposes, and item 2.14 referred to work purposes. The graph below compares the use of e-mail for social purposes with its use for work purposes. As assumed by the researcher, e-mail was the technology used most often for both work and social purposes. This is illustrated in Figure 61, where the aggregate use of e-mail for work purposes was 75.5 percent and the use of e-mail for social purposes was 46.83 percent.

Figure 56: E-mail – comparison of social and work purposes



	Daily	Weekly	Monthly	Less than once a month	Aggregate
Social	36.36	8.39	0.69	1.39	46.83
Work	55.24	16.08	0.69	3.49	75.5

Adams (2008) alleges that legal professionals are only now on the verge of beginning to use Web 2.0 tools in their daily professional lives. With regard to the use of Web 2.0 tools, the data generated reflect that such tools were poorly used at the LAB. Only one respondent claimed to have used Web 2.0 tools on a daily basis. This corroborates Adams' assertion above. The researcher is of the opinion that Web 2.0 tools offer much greater opportunities to share information. Web 2.0 tools, such as wikis and blogs, provide enhanced forums to engage in sharing and those forums could widen to include a broader contributory audience. The researcher would like to state that the sooner lawyers come to grips with new technologies, such as those already mentioned, the greater the possibility of the enhanced sharing of knowledge.

With regard to item 15, which referred to organizational memory, 19.58 percent of the respondents were of the opinion that "if the LAB engaged in the creation of an organizational memory, it will be available to all". However, 32.86 percent indicated that they did not know if organizational memory would be available to all. The researcher is of the view that the above results should be

treated with caution, as she believes that not all the respondents understood the concept of organizational memory.

While some technologies were well used at the LAB, for example - e-mail, other technologies are yet to take off. In the open-ended questions, respondents complained that access to the internet was limited. One respondent commented that the LAB should "allow CAs and other staff members to access any website, for instance Yahoo and Google, especially to do research and empower CAs with more knowledge". In response to access to technology, one respondent suggested that "laptops be loaned to CAs. CAs spend long hours in court and when they come back to the office, the system is offline". Therefore, while computers and the internet are available to a large extent to staff at the LAB, their use is not effective.

6.6.3 Research question five: Are there incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing at the LAB?

Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007) argue that one of the disincentives for knowledge-sharing is the absence of rewards. The researcher argues that there are two forms of reward: financial and non-financial. Given that the LAB is a non-profit organization, the researcher opted to pursue the non-financial reward path. Of the respondents, 72.72 percent claimed that they will benefit largely from knowledge-sharing. The non-financial benefits that they responded to did not yield a high response rate. Of the respondents, 41.95 percent claimed to share, to a large extent, to enhance their career opportunities, while 21.67 percent stated that they shared to a large extent to gain increased recognition and 19.58 percent, to a large extent, shared for altruistic reasons. The researcher identified enhancing career opportunities, increased recognition and altruistic intentions as non-financial rewards. The average response rate for all three items measured 27.73 percent.

The researcher interprets the above as the LAB having no financial incentives set in place for sharing. However, since financial incentives were not tested, the above statement cannot be conclusively proven. The researcher believes that there are non-financial incentives that drive knowledge-sharing at the LAB. However, it is the view of the researcher that these incentives are individual-driven as opposed to being organization-driven.

6.7 Research question three: To what extent does knowledge-sharing occur at the LAB?

In terms of the theoretical perspective of the GWU model of knowledge management employed by the researcher, the above research question relates to the learning aspect of the model. The researcher believes that sharing and learning occur in partnership.

The third research question was guided by two sub-questions, namely:

- The actual experiences of sharing knowledge;
- Reasons for sharing.

In an analysis of the above research question, the researcher will include the sub-questions; however, these questions will be addressed together as the researcher believes that they are interconnected. The researcher used items 2.1 (Was there sharing of knowledge at the LAB), 2.1.1. (Extent of sharing of knowledge at the LAB), 3.1 (Benefit from increased sharing) in the discussion of this particular research question.

The researcher has also used the results of two cross-tabulations, the first cross-tabulation being between items 2.1 (Was there sharing of knowledge) and 1.2 (Job designation) and the second between 2.1 and 1.4 (Sex). In terms of item 2.1, 94.4 percent of the respondents answered that sharing occurred at the LAB. With regard to the extent of the sharing, 44.05 percent of the respondents believed that sharing occurred to a large extent. The results of the first tabulation revealed that 100 percent of the Justice Centre executives claimed that sharing took place, while 88.38 percent of CAs answered that sharing occurred at the LAB. The researcher's analysis indicates that both the CAs and the Justice Centre executives answered that that rate of sharing was high. The justification for this cross-tabulation lies in the results of item 8 (responsibility for sharing). Of the respondents 46.85 percent claimed that, to a large extent, it was the responsibility of the Justice Centre executive to share. This was the highest response rate in respect of this item.

The second highest response rate was that 44.05 percent of the respondents believed that, to a large extent, sharing was the responsibility of the individuals at the LAB.

The respondents claimed that there was a high level of knowledge-sharing at the LAB. The researcher is of the opinion that this bodes well for the implementation of knowledge management at the LAB.

6.8 Summary

The responses to the research questions guiding this study were obtained through the questionnaire method. The legal professionals at the Gauteng Justice Centres were asked to complete a questionnaire, which examined the knowledge-sharing practices in the context of knowledge management at the LAB. The respondents were generally of the view that they worked in a knowledge-intensive organization; however, while knowledge management does occur at the LAB, it is not guided by a strategy. Furthermore, the respondents believed that sharing of knowledge was widespread throughout the organization. However, the sharing of knowledge, similar to knowledge management, was not guided by a strategy, but facilitated through the social networks that had been established.

CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter will provide a summary of the research questions and an outline of the chapters. In addition, this chapter will offer a discussion of the conclusions and then a presentation of the recommendations (including recommendations for further research).

7.2 Summary and outline of the investigation

The study investigated the knowledge-sharing practices in the context of knowledge management of the legal professionals of the Gauteng Justice Centres of the LAB. In examining the above, the study was guided by the following research questions and sub-questions:

- To what extent does knowledge management take place at the LAB?
  - ✓ What do the respondents understand by knowledge management?
  - ✓ Have personnel members been dedicated to knowledge management?
- To what extent does the leadership (at national, regional, justice centre levels) actively encourage and support knowledge-sharing at the LAB?
- To what extent does knowledge-sharing occur at the LAB?
  - ✓ What are the actual experiences of sharing knowledge?
  - ✓ What are the reasons for sharing?
- Does the working environment at the LAB actively facilitate knowledge-sharing?
  - ✓ Do the environmental conditions of the LAB facilitate knowledge-sharing through communication?
  - ✓ Do the environmental conditions of the LAB facilitate knowledge-sharing through training and mentoring practices?
  - ✓ Do the environmental conditions of the LAB facilitate knowledge-sharing through using technology as an enabler for knowledge-sharing?
- Are there incentives to encourage knowledge-sharing?

On the basis of the literature review, the above questions were formulated in order to test the study empirically. In terms of the construction of this thesis, the literature was reviewed in Chapters Two and Three. Chapter Two discussed knowledge management, while Chapter Three looked at knowledge-sharing in the context of knowledge management and its relation to the legal environment.

The research method of this study was discussed in Chapter Four. The presentation of the results was offered in Chapter Five, while the results were discussed in Chapter Six. The thesis concluded and suggested recommendations, including suggestions for further study, in Chapter Seven.

7.3 Conclusions

The data solicited from the respondents employed at the LAB demonstrate knowledge management activities. However, the knowledge management activities are a result of logic, common sense and familiarity with the concept outside the context of the LAB. Knowledge management occurs on an ad hoc basis rather than via the development of a strategy for the LAB. As indicated, knowledge management is woven into daily activities and to facilitate the daily functionalities. In essence, knowledge management activities occur by default as opposed to conforming to a developed strategy.

The respondents acknowledged working in a knowledge-intensive organization and any organization that works with knowledge needs to manage it. However, the LAB does not manage knowledge via a strategy. This is evidenced in the fact that most of the responses indicated a 'moderate extent'. The first research question was, 'To what extent did knowledge management take place at the LAB'. As indicated, knowledge management takes place at the LAB. However, the lack of key instruments such as a knowledge officer is an indicator of the lack of a strategy, which confirms that knowledge management does not take place by design but rather by default. This default position is a clear indication that the extent to which knowledge is managed is dependent on chance. In essence, at best, knowledge is managed to a moderate extent but clearly without a strategy.

The second research question was the role of the institutional leadership in encouraging and facilitating knowledge-sharing. The leadership makes the relevant technology available to the employees of the organization. However, the leaders themselves do not engage in significant levels of sharing. As illustrated in the review of the literature, there is an expectation that the leaders will engage in high levels of sharing by virtue of the position they occupy and the influence they would have to ensure sharing. Years of experience equip them to share that which they acquired over a period of time. Since very little of this sharing takes place, the researcher concludes that leadership support and facilitation of knowledge-sharing are moderate. Again, this moderate sharing is not by design but rather through engagements to conclude work procedures.

In response to a question on whose responsibility it was to share, the respondents indicated that it was the responsibility of the leadership to share. The respondents indicated that this occurred to a moderate extent. The researcher concludes that since the expectation of the respondent that the leadership should share was moderate, the leadership will be coerced into encouraging and facilitating knowledge-sharing.

The third research question was to what extent knowledge-sharing occurs at the LAB.

Since the LAB is a knowledge-intensive organization, an abundance of knowledge and experience is available. Sharing was out of necessity and people shared laterally (among colleagues). The fact that people shared with colleagues, most often, that is, laterally, is an indication that they shared through the relationships that they had developed, rather than in response to a strategy of the LAB. The researcher concludes that sharing of knowledge occurs as a result of work imperatives. Members of the LAB share because they need to find knowledge in order to enable them to work. However, while there is sharing on an individual-to-individual level, there is no deliberate sharing which will benefit the growth of the organization. This conclusion is based on the evidence of respondents indicating that the highest level of responsibility for sharing lay with individuals.

The fourth research question addressed the issue of whether the LAB actively facilitated knowledge-sharing. The preferred form of communication at the LAB was face-to-face communication. This took place to a moderate extent. Technology, as a condition of the working environment of the LAB, is concerned with communication. Although technology is available to

all, access is limited by the working conditions of legal workers. Legal workers spend long hours in court. This limits their time in the office and consequently their access to computers. The researcher concludes that the conditions at the LAB facilitate knowledge-sharing to a moderate extent.

The fifth research question asked whether there were incentives to share at the LAB. The researcher tested for non-financial incentives and found that incentives to share played a small role. The results of the respondents suggested that sharing was motivated through incentives to a small to moderate extent. The researcher surmises that the issue of reward is not important at the LAB. This speaks of the knowledge-sharing culture of the organization. According to Al-Alawi, Al-Marzooqi and Mohammed (2007) incentives and rewards act as motivator to share knowledge. That the respondents are motivated to a small extent by incentives to share knowledge, suggests that the culture of knowledge-sharing at the LAB is not high.

7.4 Recommendations

Emanating from a detailed review of the literature and the data generated through the administration of a questionnaire, the researcher would like to make two recommendations.

The first comprises a knowledge management strategy that feeds into the LAB's overall strategy. There is sufficient evidence in the literature to suggest that there are significant benefits to be derived from the proper management of knowledge. The starting point should be the development of a knowledge management strategy to ensure the maximization of the benefits of knowledge management. This knowledge management strategy would include, among others, the appointment of a knowledge officer, detailed training and mentoring programmes and compulsory sharing of information, including the depositing of information into an organisational memory platform. Even though sharing of information should be compulsory it should also be rewarded. Forms of reward could include institutional praise and annual bonuses. The knowledge management strategy should be driven by the knowledge officer and must be in line with the overall strategy of the LAB.

The second recommendation concerns an institutional repository. Libraries pay for their commodity, namely information, which they make available to their user communities, albeit, through authentication for the generation of new knowledge. Libraries, with special reference to academic libraries, use repositories to share information with regional, national and international communities to address a variety of issues. This availability of an institution's research output contributes to the increased visibility of the institution. The high level and quality of research output attracts better collaboration among researchers, soliciting greater funding and ultimately increasing the prestige of the institution.

If such principles of institutional repositories were adopted by institutions such as the LAB, it will have the similar impact of attracting the best lawyers providing the best legal advice – all of which can be attributed to the activities of the LAB via the institutional repository.

It is strongly recommended that an institutional repository be created as a matter of priority, which will among others enhance organizational memory and improve sharing at local and regional levels and if necessary much wider.

7.5 Recommendations for further study

As stated in the literature review of this study, there is a dearth of information on the practice of knowledge management in legal aid organizations. As legal aid organizations are knowledge-intensive ones, there is great potential benefit that can be derived from the implementation of knowledge management and the accompanying practices of knowledge-sharing. It is from this point of view that the researcher makes the following recommendations for further study.

- Unlike legal firms, legal aid organizations are not driven by profit. Therefore, the motivation for knowledge-sharing for employees of legal firms and non-profit legal organizations may differ. The researcher recommends that a comparative study be undertaken to investigate the motivation for knowledge-sharing between for-profit legal organizations and not-for-profit legal organizations.

- One could consider the following questions: To what extent do clients play a role in moving legal organizations or legal firms towards knowledge-sharing and knowledge management? Or are these organizations' interest in establishing knowledge management and knowledge-sharing practices without external pressure of client needs?
- In establishing a strategy for knowledge management and knowledge-sharing, the support of the whole organization is necessary to make the strategy a success. An investigation should be conducted to understand what the expectations of the legal professionals are when instituting a knowledge management and knowledge-sharing culture.

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APPENDIX

Cover letter and questionnaire to the legal professionals of the Gauteng Justice Centres of the Legal Aid Board

Dear Respondent

Re: Request for Your Participation in Completing a Questionnaire

I am a masters' student in the Information Studies Programme, School of Sociology and Social Studies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg. I am investigating the extent to which knowledge-sharing practices occur at the legal Aid Board (LAB). A highly mobile workforce had increased the need for a better set of knowledge retention, acquisition, sharing and transfer practices.

The title of the research is: **KNOWLEDGE-SHARING PRACTICES OF THE LEGAL PROFESSIONALS AT THE GAUTENG JUSTICE CENTRES OF THE LEGAL AID BOARD.**

Although knowledge-sharing is an age-old practice, it has recently been included as a crucial component of knowledge management.

Knowledge management involves any systematic activity related to the capture,

retention and sharing of knowledge by the organization (Centre for Ledelse).

It would be greatly appreciated if you could assist by completing the attached questionnaire. The questionnaire is not long and should not take more than twenty minutes to complete as most of the questions are close-ended.

The data gathered from this questionnaire will be used for academic purposes only. The researcher assures the respondents complete confidentiality.

Please could you complete the questionnaire and return to the Justice Centre Executive.

Yours sincerely

.....

Santha Raju

Team Leader: Information Services

University of Johannesburg Library and Information Centre

sraju@uj.ac.za

Please mark [x]one appropriate box

1.1	At which office do you work?	**National**		**Regional**		**Justice Centre**
1.2	What is your job designation?					
1.3	Your age (in completed years)	**20-30**	**31-40**	**41-50**	**51-60**	**61+**
1.4	Please indicate your sex	**Male**		**Female**		
1.5	Full years worked at the LAB	**1-5 years**	**6-10 years**	**11-15 years**	**16-20 years**	**21+ years**
1.6.1	Have you been employed by other institutions other than the LAB?	**Yes**		**No**		
1.6.2	If yes, please indicate the last two institutions	•				
		•				
2.1	In your opinion, is there sharing of knowledge within the LAB?	**Yes**		**No**		
2.1.1	If yes, please indicate to what extent there is sharing	**Lesser extent**		**Moderate extent**		**Large extent**
2.2	Currently, how do you acquire relevant information for work purposes? (Please note you may mark [x] more than one response)					
2.2.1	Visit the Library					
2.2.2	Consult my manager / supervisor					
2.2.3	Consult experts identified at the LAB					
2.2.4	Ask a colleague					
2.2.5	Search the internet e.g. Google and Yahoo					
2.2.6	Search the legal resources manually					
2.2.7	Search the legal resources online					
2.2.8	Search the LAB's institutional repository (An institutional repository is an online locus for collecting, preserving, and disseminating information in digital form)					
2.2.9	Use dedicated personnel e.g. Legal assistance or librarian					
2.2.10	Other	**Please specify:**				
3	Please indicate the extent to which ...	**No extent**	**Small extent**	**Moderate extent**	**Large extent**	**Don't know**
3.1	You will benefit from an increase in the sharing of knowledge					
3.2	Knowledge-sharing is encouraged					

	and promoted					
3.3	Knowledge-sharing is facilitated					
3.4	A climate of trust permeates the LAB					
3.5	A climate of openness permeates the LAB					
4	In your opinion, to what extent is knowledge-sharing used to facilitate the following:	**No extent**	**Small extent**	**Moderate extent**	**Large extent**	**Don't know**
4.1	Increase in recognition					
4.2	To enhance career opportunities					
4.3	To support the strategic objectives of the LAB					
4.4	For altruistic intentions					
4.5	People who share knowledge are regarded as experts					
5	There are numerous ways of sharing knowledge. Please indicate to what extent does the following occur:	**No extent**	**Small extent**	**Moderate extent**	**Large extent**	**Don't know**
5.1	Regularly communicating successes					
5.2	Facilitating collaborative work by project teams					
5.3	Coaching and mentoring					
5.4	Transfer of expertise					
5.5	Arranging special focus meetings					
5.6	Participating in cross functional teams					
5.7	Through story telling					
5.8	Through communities of practice					
5.9	Having face-to-face conversations					
6	Can you rely on any of the following in the LAB to assist you with the acquiring of information?					
6.1	Knowledge officer	**Yes**		**No**		**Don't know**
6.2	Legal assistant	**Yes**		**No**		**Don't know**
6.3	Secretary	**Yes**		**No**		**Don't know**
7	If yes to any of the above, please rate the level of assistance that	**I don't get assistance**	**Not useful**	**Useful**		**Very useful**

	you would get from the:				
7.1	Knowledge officer				
7.2	Legal assistant				
7.3	Secretary				

8	Please indicate to what extent is knowledge-sharing the responsibility of:	**No extent**	**Small extent**	**Moderate extent**	**Large extent**	**Don't know**
8.1	Executive Management Team at the LAB					
8.2	Regional Management Team at the LAB					
8.3	Justice Centre Management Team at the LAB					
8.4	Non-management personnel at the LAB					
8.5	Individuals at the LAB					

9	A knowledge-intensive organization should reflect the characteristics listed below. To what extent are these characteristics prevalent at the LAB?	**No extent**	**Small extent**	**Moderate extent**	**Large extent**	**Don't know**
9.1	Levels of problem solving					
9.2	Levels of non-routine work					
9.3	Creativity					
9.4	Independence					
9.5	Interaction with people					
9.6	Strong inter-dependence upon experts					
9.7	Strong dependence on expert knowledge					
9.8	Strong dependence on esoteric knowledge					
9.9	Staff with a university qualification					
9.10	Professionalism					

10	Which of the following best describes your view of knowledge management? Please mark [x] only ONE response.	

10.1	A tool to manage the intellectual capital (collective brain) of the organization	
10.2	A strategic part of the business of the LAB	
10.3	A tool to manage what an organization knows	
10.4	Just another management fad	
10.5	Something you have never heard of	
10.6	Other than that which is mentioned in the above, what is you view on knowledge management?	

11	Leadership has been identified as important in the knowledge-sharing process. To what extent has the leadership of the LAB facilitated and/or influenced the following:	**No extent**	**Small extent**	**Moderate extent**	**Large extent**	**Don't know**
11.1	Formal training (non-university-based)					
11.2	Informal training					
11.3	Use of formal mentoring practices					
11.4	Encouragement of experienced personnel to share their knowledge					
11.5	Provision of opportunities for continuing education (university based)					

12.1	Do you have access to a computer at the LAB?	**Yes**		**No**	
12.2	If yes, do you have access to the Internet at the LAB?	**Yes**		**No**	
12.3	Does the LAB offer IT support?	**Yes**		**No**	
12.4	If yes, how would you rate that level of support?	**Excellent**	**Good**	**Average**	**Poor**
12.5	Does technology facilitate sharing of knowledge at the LAB?	**Yes**	**No**	**Don't know**	

13	How often do you make use of the following for **social purposes**?	**Daily**	**Weekly**	**Monthly**	**Less than once a month**	**Never**
13.1	LAB's website					
13.2	World wide web					
13.3	LAB's intranet					
13.4	E-mail					

13.5	ListServs					
13.6	In-house database					
13.7	Facebook					
13.8	MySpace					
13.9	Wikis					
13.10	Blogs					
13.11	Flickr					
13.12	YouTube					
14	How often do you make use of the following for **work purposes**?	**Daily**	**Weekly**	**Monthly**	**Less than once a month**	**Never**
14.1	LAB's website					
14.2	World wide web					
14.3	LAB's intranet					
14.4	E-mail					
14.5	ListServs					
14.6	In-house database					
14.7	Facebook					
14.8	MySpace					
14.9	Wikis					
14.10	Blogs					
14.11	Flickr					
14.12	YouTube					
15	**Organizational memory** is preserved knowledge of the past of the organization. This knowledge is reconstructed and reinterpreted in processes of remembering. The knowledge is preserved in the form of "memories" such as individuals, organizational artefacts and processes, discourses and practices (Stein 1995).					
15.1	Does the LAB use technology to create organizational memory?	**Yes**	**No**	**Don't know**		
15.2	If the LAB engages in the creation of organizational memory, is it available to all?	**Yes**	**No**	**Don't know**		
16	Please add any comment/s that you may have on knowledge-sharing within the context of the LAB.					

17	Please add any comment/s that you may have on learning, in relation to knowledge management, at the LAB.	
18	Please add any other general comment/s that you may have relating to knowledge management at the LAB?	

FURTHER COMMENT

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THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR TIME.

Santha Raju