

KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT IN ORGANISATIONS: AN INTRODUCTION & PROSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

Knowledge management (KM) is the subject of much literature, discussion, planning and some action. Effectively implementing a sound KM strategy and becoming a knowledge-based company is seen as a mandatory condition of success for organizations as they enter the era of the knowledge economy. Yet KM remains a broadly ill-defined term, with many, often disparate management theories, applications and technologies claiming a place under the KM banner. Read individually, the literature often presents a single view of what is a multi faceted topic. The KM spectrum has been developed to assist organizations in understanding the range of KM options, applications and technologies available to them. It provides a view of the totality and complexity of the various KM theories, tools and techniques presented in the literature. It provides a frame work within which management can balance its KM focus and establish and communicate its strategic KM direction.

Leaders of successful organizations are consistently searching for better ways to improve performance and results. Frequent disappointments with past management initiatives have motivated managers to gain new understandings into the underlying, but complex mechanisms – such as knowledge – which govern an enterprise's effectiveness. Knowledge Management, far from being a management 'fad', is broad, multi-dimensional and covers most aspects of the enterprise's activities. To be competitive and successful, experience shows that enterprises must create and sustain a balanced intellectual capital portfolio. They need to set broad priorities and integrate the goals of managing intellectual capital and the corresponding effective knowledge processes. This requires systematic Knowledge Management. With knowledge as the major driving force behind the 'economics of ideas', we can expect that the emphasis on knowledge creation, development, organization and leverage will continue to be the prime focus for improving society. This article introduces the KM spectrum as a synthesis of current KM theories, applications, tools and technologies described in the literature.

Key Words: - Knowledge Management, Tacit knowledge, Explicit Knowledge.

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, knowledge management has become a critical subject of discussion in the business literature. Both business and academic communities believe that by leveraging knowledge,

an organization can sustain its long-term competitive advantages. The resource based view of organizations and competencies perspectives highlight the reflection of this changing trend in the business strategy arena (Nelson and Winter, 1982). Although management is aware of the potential that can be realized from knowledge resources, there is not a consensus about the characteristics of knowledge and the ways these knowledge resources should be used. Researchers and academics have taken different perspectives on knowledge management, ranging from technological solutions to the communities of practices, and the use of the best practices.

We are entering into an era where the future will be essentially determined by our ability to wisely use knowledge, a precious global resource that is the embodiment of human intellectual capital and technology. As we begin to expand our understanding of knowledge as an essential asset, we realize that in many ways our future is limited only by our imagination and ability to leverage the human mind. As knowledge increasingly becomes the key strategic resource of the future our need to develop comprehensive understanding of knowledge processes for the creation, transfer and deployment of this unique asset are becoming critical. Primary and secondary schools, universities and training organizations (traditional suppliers of knowledge) and businesses and knowledge based organizations in the public sector (growing users of knowledge) are in need of an integrative discipline for studying, researching and learning about the knowledge assets – human intellectual capital and technology. An international society of knowledge professionals can provide the necessary focus for fostering collaboration among the best minds and organizations of our time on study, research and learning dedicated to the underlying disciplines and their integrative evolution in the emergence of Knowledge Management as a new discipline.

In the mid-1980s, individuals and organizations began to appreciate the increasingly important role of knowledge in the emerging competitive environment. International competition was changing to increasingly emphasize product and

service quality, responsiveness, diversity and customization. Some organizations, such as US based Chaparral Steel, had been pursuing a knowledge focus for some years, but during this period it started to become a more wide-spread business concern. These notions appeared in many places throughout the world – almost simultaneously in the way bubbles appear in a kettle of superheated water! Over a brief period from 1986 to 1989, numerous reports appeared in the public domain concerning how to manage knowledge explicitly. There were studies, results of corporate efforts, and conferences on the topic. In spite of the wide geographical distribution, most professional managers did not realize the importance of explicit and systematic Knowledge Management (KM) – and this realization is still limited.

Leaders of progressive organizations and nations are pursuing ways to create and generate value from knowledge assets within their organizations. Often, personal beliefs spur these efforts, paired with strong convictions that competitive knowledge assets and their effective utilization are critical for success. Less frequently, we find careful analyses and well founded theories. The explicit focus on knowledge is so recent that business practitioners still lead KM exploration and implementation work. There is limited support from academic and management research, except in specialized technical areas such as applied artificial intelligence and use of information technology. No general approach to managing knowledge is commonly accepted, although several isolated, and at times diverging, notions are being advanced.

DEFINITION OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT

Knowledge involves thinking with information. If only the circulation of information is enabled, knowledge is not thereby increased. Finding who knows what in an organization has always been time intensive. Thus, a knowledge management system must include a way to find people based on their skills and area of expertise. Knowledge management

systems must connect people to enable them to think together and to take time to articulate and share information and insights they know are useful to others in their community.

McDermott describes six characteristics of Knowledge that distinguish it from information:

- (i) Knowledge is a human act.
- (ii) Knowledge is the residue of thinking.
- (iii) Knowledge is created in the present moment.
- (iv) Knowledge belongs to communities.
- (v) Knowledge circulates through communities in many ways.
- (vi) New knowledge is created at the boundaries of old (McDermott, 1999, p. 105).

To say that knowing is a human act is to highlight the fact that knowledge involves humans who do the knowing. West Churchman, in his classic treatise "The Design of Inquiring Systems", noted that: "To conceive of knowledge as a collection of information seems to rob the concept of all of its life. Knowledge resides in the user and not in the collection." That is, only human beings can take the central role in knowledge creation. Or, as Blacker (1995) said, "rather than talking of knowledge, with its connotations of abstraction, progress, permanency and mentalism, it is more helpful to talk about the process of knowing" (emphasis in original). While the world is a real object of inquiry, the categories by which it is identified are socially constructed. McDermott's (1999), thesis can be traced to what is known as "the sociology of knowledge" literature. In their foundational work, Berger and Luckmann (1966) argued that social reality itself is constructed through social processes they called mutual typification and reciprocal signification. This symbolic interaction is forms the basis of the narrative construction of reality; the stories we weave about our lives determine meaning and identities. These ideas together form the bedrock of this notion that knowledge is constructed in communities. If, as Berger and Luckmann (1966) argue, reality is socially constructed, then our concept of reality is mediated by prior assumptions,

expectations and experiences. (See also Toulmin, 1970) Knowledge then is accepted belief, not necessarily correct belief; Karl Popper argues that knowledge can be evaluated according to its internal coherence rather than correspondence to some reality (Popper, 1972). By reference to internally formulated tests for "truth", contending groups may collectively validate their ideas and the conclusions they have elucidated separately may converge over time. Correct beliefs may then evolve over time as progressively more accurate characterizations of the world are consensually formulated (see Campbell and Paller, 1989). This is not to say that there is some consistent source of social influence that operates on the development of beliefs and practices. What obtains is "a dominant way of looking at social reality, a set of shared symbols and references, mutual expectations and a mutual predictability of intentions" (Ruggie, 1975, pp. 569-70). This dominant way delimits for its members the proper construction of social reality.

Learning is more than acquiring facts and techniques. It involves acquiring a way of looking at the world, of coming to possess that perspective embedded in a particular discipline as background knowledge, every day practices of that discipline and common wisdom about cause-and-effect relationships as shared by its practitioners. The actual way we learn is through participation in communities of knowledge by embodying their particular perspectives, prejudices and practices. Even when most thinking is done individually, we build on the ideas of others. To contribute to the discipline, we must put our ideas "out there" for others in the community to handle and critique. Even iconoclastic ideas have meaning only in the context of their relevant community of practice, and therefore still constitute a form of legitimate participation. Meaningful knowledge cannot be simply retrieved from some database but must be actively reconstituted in the moment, in context of who the interlocutors are, and what the community's particular needs are at that particular moment. Knowledge work is dominated by communication discussion, deliberation, argumentation, debate, and negotiation. At the

boundaries of the old where clashes of perspectives occur when received wisdom does not quite work, new knowledge tends to emerge.

OBJECTIVES OF KM

- (i) To make the enterprise act as intelligently as possible to secure its viability and overall success.
- (ii) To otherwise realize the best value of its knowledge assets.

To reach these goals, advanced organizations build, transform, organize, deploy and use knowledge assets effectively. Stated differently, the overall purpose of KM is to maximize the enterprise's knowledge-related effectiveness and returns from its knowledge assets and to renew them constantly. KM is to understand, focus on, and manage systematic, explicit, and deliberate knowledge building, renewal, and application – that is, manage effective knowledge processes (EKP).

From a managerial perspective systematic KM comprises four areas of emphasis:

- (i) Top-down monitoring and facilitation of knowledge-related activities.
- (ii) Creation and maintenance of the knowledge infrastructure.
- (iii) Renewing, organizing, and transforming knowledge assets.
- (iv) Leveraging (using) knowledge assets to realize their value.

TYPES OF KM

There are two types of Knowledge:

- (i) **Tacit Knowledge**
- (ii) **Explicit Knowledge**

People possess slightly different types of tacit and explicit knowledge and apply their knowledge in unique ways. Individuals use different perspectives

to think about problems and devise solutions. They share knowledge and group physical and intellectual assets in new and creative ways. (Ashkenas *et. al.*, 1998) Comparing tacit and explicit types of knowledge is a way to think, not point out differences.

TACIT KNOWLEDGE

Tacit knowledge is "...being understood without openly expressed" (Random House Dictionary of English Language), or knowledge for which we don't have words. Tacit Knowledge is automatic, requires little or no time or thought and helps determine how organization make decisions and influence the collective behaviour of their members (Liebowitz and Beckman, 1998). The Philosopher Polanyi (1967) described tacit knowledge as knowing more than we can tell, or knowing how to do something without thinking about it, like ride a bicycle. This highly personal, subjective form of knowledge is usually informal and can be inferred from the statements of others. Tacit knowledge tends to be local. It is not found in manuals, books, databases or files. Tacit knowledge is technical or cognitive and is made up of mental models, values, beliefs, perceptions, insights and assumptions. Technical tacit knowledge is demonstrated when people master a specific body of knowledge or use skills like those gradually developed by master craftsmen. Cognitive Tacit knowledge incorporates implicit mental models and sense of events in our world. Listeners can evaluate story content and actions and apply useful tacit knowledge to their own job. Tacit knowledge, as context, is often easier to remember and talks about than explicit knowledge or content.

The value of tacit knowledge, like customer good will, is often under rated and under-utilized in the workplace. Nearly two third of work-related information that is gradually transformed in to tacit knowledge comes from face to face contact, like casual conversations, stories, mentoring internships and apprenticeships. One of a kind, occur when people exchange ideas and practicalities in a free and open environment. People who have technical tacit knowledge are considered unconsciously

skilled. They know something so well that they are unaware of what they need to do to be successful. To illustrate, inexperienced managers use their tacit knowledge, common sense and diplomacy to handle a difficult employee successfully.

Tacit knowledge is grouped according to content, context and orientation. Depending on the person and the situation, one or more types of tacit knowledge may be used in different context and orientations. Content knowledge is used to manage oneself, others, or manage one task. Context is described in term of local or global. Local involves doing the task at hand. Global describes how the current situation fits into the larger picture. Orientations are pragmatic and ideal. A pragmatic orientation knows how workable an idea is without regard to its ideal quality. An idea is orientation stresses the ideal quality of an idea or global regardless of its practicality, like giving an employee negative feedback in private, not in public.

EXPLICIT KNOWLEDGE

Most explicit knowledge is technical or academic data or information that is described in formal language, like manuals, mathematical expressions, copyright and patents. These “know-what,” or systematic knowledge is readily communicated and shared through print, electronic methods and other formal means. Explicit knowledge is technical and requires a level of academic knowledge or understanding that is gained through formal education, or structured study. Explicit knowledge is carefully codified, stored in a hierarchy of databases and is accessed with high quality, reliable, fast and information retrieval systems. Once codified, explicit knowledge assets can be reused to solve many similar types of problem or connect people with valuable, reusable knowledge. Sharing processes often require major monetary investments in the infrastructure needed to support and fund information technology. Act of gathering and using explicit knowledge assume a predictable, relatively stable environment. Market place, competition, changing customer needs, among other factors, reduce stability.

CREATING, USING AND SHARING TACIT AND EXPLICIT KNOWLEDGE

There are four basic patterns for creating knowledge in organisations (Nonaka, 1991):

- (i) **From tacit to tacit:** - Learn by observing, imitating and practicing, or, become “socialized” into a specific way of doing things, like learn from mentors and peers. Knowledge is not explicit in this stage.
- (ii) **From explicit to explicit:** - Combines separate pieces of explicit knowledge in to a new whole, like using numerous data sources to write a financial report.
- (iii) **From tacit to explicit:** - Records, discussions, description and innovations in a manual and then use the content to create a new product. Converting tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge means finding a way to express the inexpressible. To illustrate, moving from tacit to explicit knowledge involves stating one’s vision of the world-what it is and what it ought to be.
- (iv) **From explicit to tacit:** - Reframe or interpret explicit knowledge using a person’s frame of reference so that knowledge can be understood and then internalised or accepted by others. A person’s unique tacit knowledge can be applied in creative ways to broaden, extend or reframe a specific idea. Tacit knowledge does not become part of a person’s knowledge base until it is articulated and internalised.

It is easier to transform explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge when people cooperate, trust each other and willingly contribute their own valuable knowledge resources. Cooperation, trust and sharing occur when people who add to and use databases are appropriately recognised and rewarded for sharing their special form of knowledge. Unlike deployable resources, knowledge assets increase with use, provided databases are maintained. Outdated or inaccurate databases used to create and access knowledge have little value.

PROCESS OF KM

We refer to knowledge management as a process of knowledge creation, validation, presentation, distribution, and application. These five phases in knowledge management allow an organization to learn, reflect, and unlearn and relearn, usually considered essential for building, maintaining, and replenishing of core-competencies (see Figure 1).

KNOWLEDGE CREATION

Knowledge creation refers to the ability of an organization to develop novel and useful ideas and solutions (Marakas, 1999, p. 440). By reconfiguring and recombining foreground and background knowledge through different sets of interactions, an organization can create new realities and meanings. Knowledge creation is an emergent process in which motivation, inspiration, experimentation, and pure

chance play an important role (Lynn et al., 1996). The extent to which knowledge is considered to be novel depends if it solves existing problems more proficiently and effectively or may lead to innovations in the marketplace. However, we do not recommend that, in every situation, an organization should create new knowledge from scratch. There are several other ways that can be pursued in combination with a "fresh-start" (Bhatt, 2000). For example, a firm may reconfigure and recombine existing pieces of knowledge, along with the strategy of imitation, replication, and substitution. In some cases, an organization may develop its competence by focusing on its capabilities and limiting its shortcomings. By strengthening its research and development (R&D) capabilities, by scanning and monitoring external environments, and by borrowing and employing external technologies, a firm can get a better perspective of its knowledge base and may include new

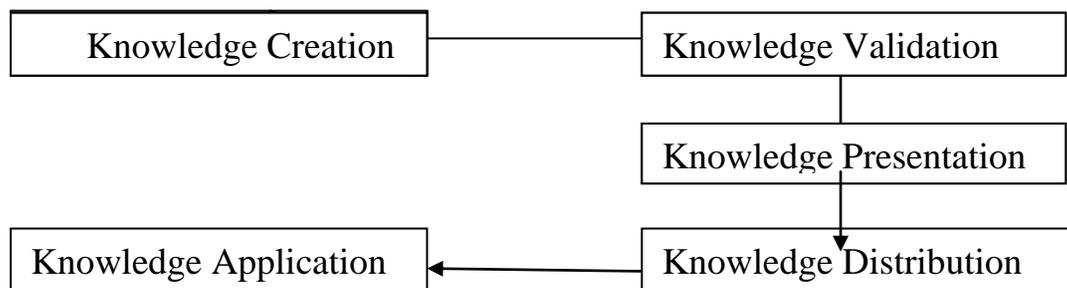


Figure: 1- Knowledge management process activities

knowledge from the outside (Bhatt, 2000). Some firms may choose to organize and interpret existing information in a new light. For example, an accounting firm may choose to use existing accounting standards through different methods, using different procedures of discount, depreciation, and overhead costs. On the other hand, some firms may choose the process of "probe and learn", through a series of experiments (Lynn et al., 1996). For example, Corning's optical fiber program, GE's CT scanner experience, Motorola's cellular phone development, and Monsanto's NutraSweet

inventions were perfected through a series of probing and learning processes (Lynn et al., 1996).

KNOWLEDGE VALIDATION

Knowledge validation refers to the extent to which a firm can reflect on knowledge and evaluate its effectiveness for the existing organizational environment. Because with age, a part of knowledge may be obsolete that needs to be reconfigured and refined to the existing realities. Often, multiple and continual interactions between technologies, techniques, and people may be necessary to test the

validity of the knowledge (Bhatt, 2000). For example, when an organization employs new sets of tools and technologies, and processes and procedures, it may need to update or refine the skills of its employees so that they can swiftly adapt to the new competitive realities. Knowledge validation is a painstaking process of continually monitoring, testing, and refining the knowledge base to suit the existing or potential realities. As the realities change, so does the need arise to convert the parts of "knowledge" into "information", and "data", which may finally be discarded. It is because the development in a discipline may often constitute new information, rules and theories, and a part of the old rules and "data", which may finally be discarded. It is because the development in a discipline may often constitute new information, rules and theories, and a part of the old rules and theories become outdated. Therefore, for organizations it becomes important that they continually review, test, and validate their knowledge base to keep up with the latest knowledge in the discipline and discard the outdated knowledge. The question of knowledge obsolescence is a paramount concern to shape the core competencies of the organization. The core competencies cannot be easily imitated; they nevertheless become obsolete if not matched with the existing development in the fields (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). For example, a firm that is competing through bricks and mortar cannot ignore the competition coming from click and the mouse. The competition between Amazon.com and Barnes & Noble illustrates this point.

KNOWLEDGE PRESENTATION

Knowledge presentation refers to the ways knowledge is displayed to the organizational members. In general, an organization may devise different procedures to format its knowledge base. However, organizational knowledge is distributed and scattered in different locations, embedded into different artifacts and procedures, and stored into different mediums such as print, disks, and optical media. Each of them requires different means of knowledge presentation. Because of these different

presentation styles, organizational members often find it difficult to reconfigure, recombine, and integrate knowledge from these distinct and disparate sources. For example, there could be many departments or divisions, which may be processing data through their own devised conventions, often creating redundancy and incompatibility in data standards, formats and programs. Though organizational members may find the relevant pieces of information by organizing data into separate databases, they will still find it difficult to integrate and interpret information different perspectives.

Organizational members work with a set of styles. If they are required to learn different sets of "work-styles", delays in integrating and internalizing new knowledge are common. Therefore, an organization may choose to employ similar codification, standards, and programming schemes or make use of predefined templates and schema to present data, information, and knowledge.

KNOWLEDGE DISTRIBUTION

Knowledge needs to be distributed and shared throughout the organization, before it can be exploited at the organizational level. The interactions between organizational technologies, techniques, and people can have direct bearing on knowledge distribution. For example, organizational structure, based on traditional command and control, minimizes the interactions between technologies, techniques, and people, and thus reduces the opportunities in knowledge distribution. Similarly, knowledge distribution through supervision and a predetermined channel will minimize the interactions and consequently reduce the opportunity to question the validity of the transferred knowledge. On the other hand, horizontal organizational structure, empowerment, and open-door policy speed up knowledge flow between different participants and departments. The application of e-mail, intranet, bulletin board and newsgroup can support the distribution of knowledge throughout the organization and allows organizational members to debate, discuss, and interpret information through multiple perspectives.

KNOWLEDGE APPLICATION

In general, organizational knowledge needs to be employed into a company's products, processes, and services. If an organization does not find it easy to locate the right kind of knowledge in the right form, the firm may find it difficult to sustain its competitive advantage. When innovation and creativity are the hallmark of the present competitive arena, an organization should be swift in finding the right kind of knowledge in the right form from the organization. There are a number of ways through which an organization can employ its knowledge resources. For example, it could repackage available knowledge in a different context, raise the internal measurement standard, train and motivate its people to think creatively and use their understanding in the company's products, processes, or services. For example, by comparing the practices of gas compression in fields, a Chevron team learned that it could save \$20 million a year by adopting the best practices in the field; with its implementation of Lotus-Notes and making a central group to capture and distribute information throughout the organization, Price Waterhouse significantly improved its documentation process. Knowledge application means making knowledge more active and relevant for the firm in creating values. For example, Intel has been on the fore front to upgrade and improve the design and speed of its micro processor continuously. Similarly, by improving continuously its position in the liquid-crystal display (LCD), Sharp has become a dominant player in the LCD market. With a different aim, AT&T is now beginning to review its knowledge in multimedia (Collis and Montgomery, 1995). The criteria of evaluating the usefulness of knowledge are not often readily apparent. However, if a company believes in the usefulness of knowledge in supporting its practical and day-to-day common activities, management should provide sufficient latitude to the communities of practice for experimentation to assess the potential of the knowledge. Certainly, a number of factors, including time period of the completion of the project, its cost,

and uncertainty of benefits, need a thorough evaluation. However, often management's understanding of the scope and potential of knowledge can have a dramatic effect on the outcome of the project's future.

MODEL OF KM

As can be seen in figure 2, a conceptual model for KM efficiency is proposed. It strategic decisions, organisational effectiveness and management performance can be the logical results obtained from KM efficiency based on intelligent agents and technical tools, namely IT and DSS. This model takes into account numerous determinants of the relationships among various fields. The top portion of the model shows the main sources where knowledge can be acquired (data, information and experience).

KM has to deal with two domains:

- (i) Technical tools; and
- (ii) Intelligent agents,

Technical tools include IT and SDSS because they contribute intensively to the formulation of competitive strategies. The factors that affect drastically the technical tools are development, differentiation and integration. As explained previously, intelligent agents are persons whose functions imply learning efforts, creativity and decision capacities at different levels in the organisation. Intelligent agents make knowledge progress based on each individual's efforts and skills. Nevertheless, the behaviour of each intelligent agent depends also on the motivation methodology adopted by the organisation and on the actions that management takes. Within this architecture, technical tools and intelligent agents can contribute to knowledge-development decisions based on certain predictive modelling methods. The adequate combination of IT, SDSS and intelligent agent's activities can lead the organisation to a particularly strong competitive set. In its architecture, the KM conceptual model uses intelligent agent to acquire and develop knowledge units, DSS for managing

decision- making processes and IT to support those processes. Thus, the organisational effectiveness and provide impressive qualitative results of management performance.

Until now, this model has only been conceptualised according to literature review and our personal perspective. Further work will be required in order to validate this model.

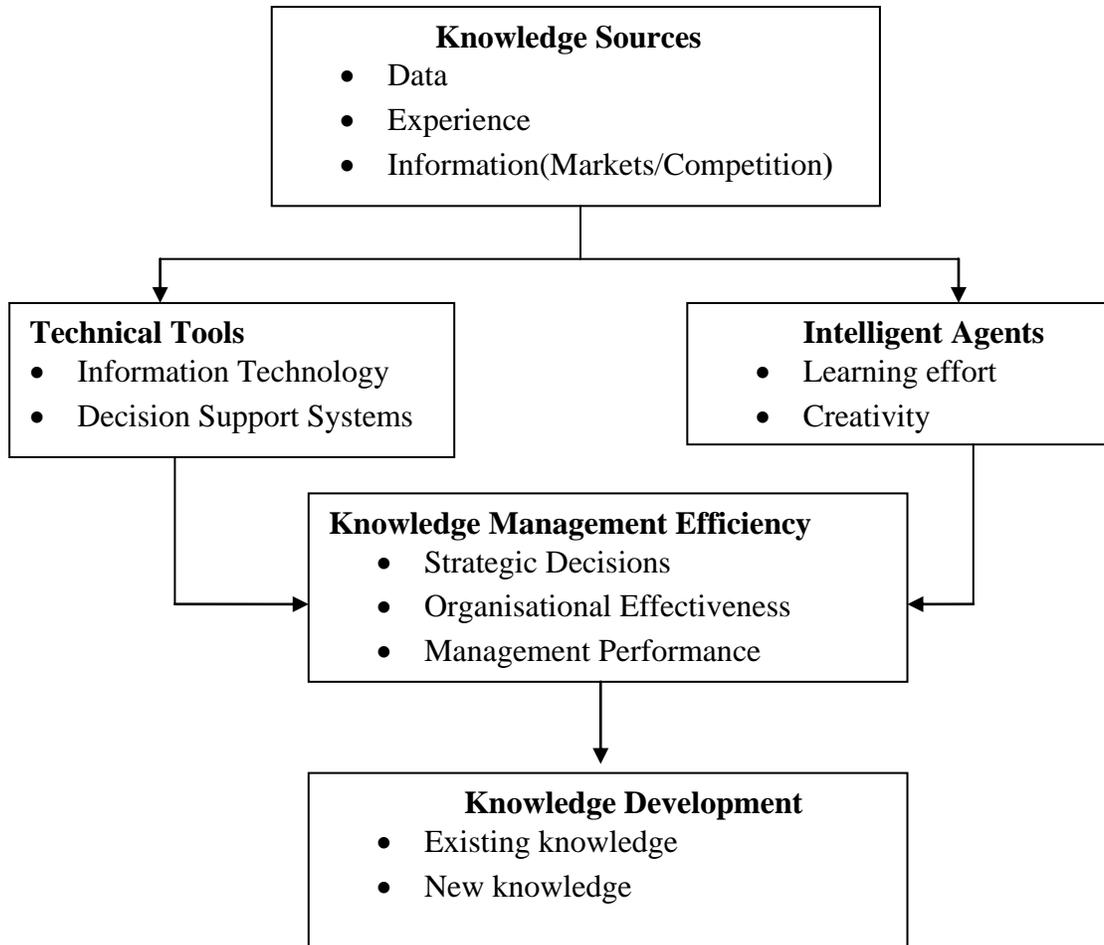


Figure: 2 - Conceptual Model of Knowledge Management

LIMITATION IN KM

If information management is the structured organization of predefined data, knowledge management must link structured and unstructured information with the changing rules by which people apply that information. Current knowledge management technologies cannot yet handle uncertainty with imperfect information. They cannot deliver the right information to the right person at the right time because companies cannot predict

what the right information to distribute is and who the right people to distribute it to are when there is fundamental, not incremental, change. The digital corpus itself will be constructed over time as contributions are added. But, more fundamentally, tacit knowledge held in people's minds and bodies - our unarticulated knowledge which is the very basis of creativity is not easily codified.

Knowledge management is fraught with what may be called the knowledge management problem stated as follows. How does one manage the

inevitable incompleteness and inconsistencies in an organizational knowledge base due to uncodified or uncodifiable knowledge? Since all representations are simplifications, the question is whether a particular knowledge modelling is an over simplification, regardless of (the "ontology" of) any specific representation methodology or technology. The effective creation of new knowledge, especially tacit knowledge, hinges on strong caring relationships among organization members. But business and economic forces are increasingly disrupting the social nature of the workplace where tacit knowledge lives and thrives. Knowledge management efforts must focus more on tacit knowledge and experiment with new organizational forms, cultures and reward systems to enhance interpersonal interaction and social relationships within which tacit knowledge gets expressed, shared and augmented. Generally, modelling the informal and social knowledge processes and inter dependencies in organizations is very difficult. Formalized representations of employee skills and work processes may not adequately express the true nature of their expertise, contributions and workflows. If the representation of organizational dynamics is too incomplete, the most powerful manipulations and analyses become less than meaningful. This consideration is all the more important in complex intellectual work where the quality of reasoning and accessibility of rationale for decisions are particularly important. Knowledge management must capture for future reference the various aspects of reasoning that are employed as problems are discussed, including negotiations about what to include, how it is to be organized, who is to have access, etc. That is, knowledge has to be encoded, archived and recovered in relation to actual messy contextualized activities in the social world. One other important consideration is what information gets encoded as being reliable knowledge. This depends on who the community of stakeholders is that endows significance on which sources of knowledge. Depending on our audience, we tend to say different things to different people or the same thing in different presentations, varying the linguistic formality, level of detail, emphasis,

perspective, and so forth. Thus, in knowledge management, key processes in trying to create a shared knowledge resource are deliberations about what information should be included, how best to organize it, and who should be authorized to access and alter it. In adopting any representation, we are simultaneously making decisions about how to see the world, what to see in the world, while implicitly endorsing what to ignore. That is, we ask not only what information, whether content or context, gets formalized as being authoritative or reliable knowledge but also what gets filtered out of a given scheme of representation and thereby forgotten (Davis et al., 1993; Bowers, 1991).

CONCLUSION

This paper has shown that knowledge management is not a simple question of capturing, storing, and transferring information; rather it requires interpretation and organization of information from multiple perspectives. Only by changing organizational culture, can an organization gradually change the pattern of interaction between people, technologies, and techniques, because the core-competencies of an organization are entrenched deep into organizational practice. When environment is dynamic, and complex, it often becomes essential for organizations that they continually create, validate, and apply new knowledge into their products, processes, and services for value-addition. Knowledge management is a comprehensive process of knowledge creation, knowledge validation, knowledge presentation, knowledge distribution, and knowledge application. The coordination of these phases is critical, because short circuiting any of the above phases may result in less than optimum outcome of the knowledge management. If management is serious about making knowledge management as a priority in the organization, it will require reconsidering and analysing the balance between technological and social facet of the organization.

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