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Strategies for Managing Knowledge in Organisations: A Conceptual Study

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Abstract

Strategies for managing and safeguarding knowledge are crucial for organisations, which calls for proper preservation and retention. The ability to create closer ties and better understanding between knowledge management (KM) and organisational performance is by establishing strategies. Strategies are used to plan, monitor and assess knowledge in organisations. Several factors need to be considered when deciding on a particular strategy to adopt, as the choice of strategy depends on the nature of the organisation. This study sought to analyse the strategies that organisations deploy to facilitate KM practices. It was discovered that the main strategies used to promote and safeguard knowledge at the universities were coaching, e-learning, communities of practice, mentorship, apprenticeship, and storytelling as the main strategies for managing knowledge. Organisations, therefore, put in place policies to encourage the use of these strategies. These are essential for organisations who want to maintain a coherent and align their practice.

Keywords: knowledge management, knowledge management strategies, e-learning, communities of practice, storytelling, coaching.

1. Knowledge Management

Very early in the KM movement, Davenport (1994) offered the still widely quoted definition for KM: the process of capturing, processing, sharing and effectively using knowledge. This definition has the virtue of being simple, stark and to the point. Davenport & Prusak (1998) and Knoco (2018) also express that KM is concerned with the exploitation and development of the knowledge assets of an organisation with a view to furthering the organisation's objectives. 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.

Koenig (2012), Girard & Girard (2015), Knoco (2018), and Kundu (2013) concurrently created another definition of KM, which is perhaps the most frequently cited one. KM is a discipline that

promotes an integrated approach to identifying, capturing, evaluating, retrieving and sharing all of an organisation's information assets. These assets may include people, databases, documents, policies, procedures and previously uncaptured expertise and experience in individual workers.

Ramohlale (2014) asserts that the ultimate aim of KM is to organise, share and put together knowledge to create substance and value in knowledge, retain key talent, improve customer service, boost innovation, achieve business objectives faster and better and promote the development of unique market offerings. This is achieved through an integrated set of initiatives, systems and behavioural interventions to promote smooth flow and sharing of knowledge relevant to the business and to eliminate reinvention (Arun, 2015).

KM thus consist of some basic components which are: processes (the creation, capturing, storing, sharing and effective use of knowledge in an organisation); people (individuals and the roles they play in supporting KM process in the organisation); technology (the tools/infrastructure that an organisation uses to support KM processes); and culture (the norms/traditions of knowledge creation and sharing within an organisation).

2. Knowledge Management Strategies

All organisations need a systematic strategy that clearly outlines the goals and objectives of the organisation and a broad plan to help employees share knowledge (US Department of Health and Human Sciences, 2012). As Warner (2011) states, a strategy is closely associated with an organisation's overall objectives and usually starts by revisiting the organisation's vision and mission and the associated strategic and business plans.

According to Frost (2015), KM strategy is simply a blueprint that describes how an organisation will manage its knowledge resources/assets better for the benefit of the organisation and its stakeholders. It describes the systematic approaches (methodologies, procedures, and tools) an organisation wishes to follow in the management of its knowledge assets (Shannak, 2013). Its focus is on building an organisation based all-inclusive, enterprise-wide KM programme. At the end thereof, it defines the business case, develops a future state model, pinpoints the most significant strategic recommendations from experts in the field and creates a roadmap for implementing all these processes (Kane, 2014). This ensures that the KM implementation process in organisations proceeds in a way that is aligned with its current business approaches, targeted at the right problems and coordinated with other existing change initiatives (Knoco, 2012). In addition, it helps to identify the performance gap between the current workflow and the optimal workflow required to achieve strategic objectives (Warner, 2011).

Furthermore, KM strategy is essential if organisations want to maintain a coherent and aligned KM practice, that is, the ability to create closer ties and better understanding between KM and business (Kane, 2014). Like every business strategy, a KM strategy must address the key business

needs and issues (Knoco, 2014). Tissayakorn & Song (2013) express that for an organisation to be successful, its KM strategy must do more than just outline goals. The organisation needs to focus strongly on the needs analysis activities with staff to drive a primary strategy, such as identifying the key staff groups within the organisation (these groups deliver the greatest business value, or are involved in the most important business activities) and conducting comprehensive and holistic needs analysis activities with selected staff groups, to identify key needs and issues (Tissayakorn & Song 2013; Knoco, 2014).

There are different strategies for managing and safeguarding knowledge in organisations. These include coaching; storytelling (Anduvare, 2015); communities of practice (Denning, 2015); mentorship and apprenticeship (APQC, 2015); and e-learning (Itmazi, 2011).

2.1. Coaching

Coaching is concerned primarily with performance and the development of definable skills (Alemna, 2016). For Fazel (2013) and Stokes (2015), coaching is a partnership between a manager (coach) and an individual (coachee) who reports directly to him or her (coach) in which the coach focuses on helping the coachee (learner) to optimise his or her potential. It usually starts with the learning goal already identified (Stevenson, 2014). The most effective coaches share with mentors the capability to help the learner develop the skills of listening and observing themselves, which leads to much faster acquisition of skills and modification of behaviour (University of Wolverhampton, 2017). Lubin (2013) identified three main strategies for coaching: establishment of a relationship between the coach and coachee; observation to uncover technical and skill deficiencies that need coaching; and demonstration of alternative ways to increase an individual's effectiveness.

Kempster & Iszatt-White (2012) indicates that coaching empowers employees to be more productive and improve morale. Coaching can help organisations to address five common concerns:

1. How to use time effectively and reduce over-commitment and stress.
2. How to lead an organisation rather than just manage its day-to-day activities.
3. How to be strategic while being deluged with e-mail, voice mail, fax messages, telephone calls, regular mail and staff members, all requiring responses.
4. How to maximise the effectiveness of staff while avoiding micro-management.
5. How to deal effectively with difficult employees.

A survey commissioned by Manchester Consulting revealed that the personal benefits of coaching include improvements in working relationships, relationships with immediate supervisors, teamwork, relationships with peers and job satisfaction. Lubin (2013) proposes that the success factors needed for effective coaching engagement are: a motivated client/customers; organisational and cultural support; tracking progress; and maintaining dynamics. However, Stokes (2015)

reports that successful coaching in organisations takes place when a coachee maintains a level of dedication and commitment to the coach, as well as to the goals. The survey also shows that clients turn to their coach for help with time management, career guidance and for business advice.

2.2. Communities of Practice

A major means of facilitating and fostering effective KM practices in universities is through the establishment of CoPs. The phenomenon of CoPs is known under different names. In the World Bank, they are called “Thematic Groups”; in Hewlett Packard, they are "Learning Communities" or "Learning Networks"; in Chevron they are called "Best Practice Teams" and in Xerox, they are known as "Family Groups”.

The term CoPs was first used in 1991 by theorists Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger who discussed the notion of legitimate peripheral participation. It served as the basis of a social theory of learning and KM (Wenger, 2013). Wenger (2015) Davis (2016) explain that CoPs are basically formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour: a tribe learning to survive, a band of artists seeking new forms of expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a clique of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first-time managers helping each other cope. Such communities are typically based on the affinity created by common interests or experience, where practitioners face a common set of problems in a particular knowledge area and have an interest in finding, or improving the effectiveness of solutions to those problems (Wenger 2015). Their emergence may be spontaneous and they are held together by informal relationships and common purpose, they share common knowledge or a specific domain, expertise and tools and learn from one another (Harken, 2018). They possess knowledge, which is crucial to the success of the organisations (Badu & Badu, 2016).

Badu & Badu (2016) are of the view that CoPs can exist wherever there is a will to create and share knowledge and experiences in a helpful and like-minded community. From Wenger (2015), the group can evolve naturally because of the members’ common interest in a particular domain or area, or it can be created specifically with the goal of gaining knowledge related to their field. It is through the process of sharing information and experiences with the group that the members learn from each other and have an opportunity to develop themselves personally and professionally. Harken (2018) again posits that participation in the network is interactive and essential and this can help foster relationships and trust within a group. Furthermore, Harken (2018) says that CoPs can be virtual in the sense that members may not physically work in the same location. Members do not even have to be part of the organisation. Thus, CoPs can be established by like-minded individuals like librarians, psychologists, sociologists, physicians, and information and knowledge professionals inside or outside the university set-up/environment. They are set up for a purpose and to achieve certain objectives.

According to Nickols (2012), the purpose of all CoPs and the results expected from it largely depend on the issue, process, or practice area around which it is organised and upon which it is focused. Furthermore, the generally expected outcomes for all CoPs are to stimulate interaction, foster learning, create new knowledge, socialise new members and identify and share best practices (Nickols, 2012); address key strategic themes and validate knowledge assets (Sundrock, 2006); and accelerate the sharing and flow of knowledge and expertise (Bhattacharyya, 2012). Badu & Badu (2015) is of the view that CoPs are ideally set up for academics to share and to develop their expertise, all within a supportive and safe environment.

Wenger (2015) also state that CoPs are set up to achieve eight goals. These are: connect people who might not otherwise have the opportunity to interact, either frequently or at all; provide a shared context for people to communicate and share information, stories and personal experiences in a way that builds understanding and insight; enable dialogue between people who come together to explore new possibilities, solve challenging problems and create new, mutually beneficial opportunities; stimulate learning by serving as a vehicle for authentic communication, mentoring, coaching and self-reflection; capture and diffuse existing knowledge to help people improve their practice by providing a forum to identify solutions to common problems and a process to collect and evaluate best practices; introduce collaborative processes to groups and organisations as well as between organisations to encourage the free flow of ideas and exchange of information; help people organize around purposeful actions that deliver tangible results; and generate new knowledge to help people transform their practice to accommodate changes in needs and technologies.

There are many technologies (tools) that facilitate CoPs in universities. These tools are mainly technological or non-technological (social and people) (Tammets, 2012; Hoadley, 2012; Wenger, 2015).

Penman & Rodger (2011), Tammets (2012), Hoadley (2012), and Kaplan (2013) classify the technological tools as hardware-centred technology (collaborative) and software-centred technology (voice over internet protocol (VoIP)). They support the knowledge accumulation, processing, storage, collaboration and sharing such as the Web 2.0 tools that sustain the needs for communication, socialisation, networking and collaboration, which are important for the CoPs (Tammets, 2012). Kaplan (2013) express that the collaborative tool also known as real-time conferencing, consists of the following: synchronous tools (audio-conferencing, web- and video-conferencing, chat, instant messaging and whiteboarding), asynchronous tools (discussion boards, calendar, website links, group announcements, messaging/e-mail, surveys and polls and decision support tools), content integration (streaming audio and video, narrated slideshows and web books), document management (resource library, document collaboration, version tracking and control and permission-based access).

For Wenger (2015), CoPs are the basic building blocks of a social learning system because they are the social ‘containers’ of the competencies that make up such a system. That is, CoPs are part of a larger social learning system, which also include the boundary (the borders that determine whether one will belong to the CoPs or not) and the identity (what we know, what is foreign and what we choose to know, as well as how we know) that determine with whom to interact in a knowledge-sharing activity and the willingness and capacity to engage in boundary interactions.

The people systems refer to the users of the CoPs and they support the technology and social system (Tammets, 2012). Kaplan (2013) identifies four groups of people that support the strategic objectives and responsibilities of many typical CoPs. These represent people who are to affiliate (affinity networks); learn (learning communities); practice (communities of practice); and take action (project teams). The people have clearly defined roles that describe the relationships between the different roles in the community (including the instructor, subgroups, group leaders/facilitators and individual learners) and outline their responsibilities and interdependencies. The people create sub-groups of learners that have their own online space for small-group learning activities and group project collaboration. The people also support individuals by way of assisting learners to create personal profiles that contain their photos and salient information relevant to the topic at hand (e.g. for a course on marketing a profile item might include something fun such as "favourite innovative television commercial").

Chatterton (2010), and Knoco (2014), on the other hand, consider the people as role players of the CoPs. Sundrock (2006) explains that these people serve as active and contributing members, ensure that the community functions as a knowledge-sharing mechanism and are involved in the start-up and growth of the community. Knoco (2014) stresses that people develop and maintain community processes and normally report to the community sponsor. The people are made up of the facilitators who support the leader and liaise with the sponsor by building membership, managing discussions and relationships (Knoco, 2014). Sundrock (2006) adds other members such as the core group and team members, occasional participants, lookers, subject matter experts, coordinators, member supports, information resources and website administrator. Chatterton (2010) explains that each role can be played by one or more people and responsibilities can be shared throughout the team.

2.3. Mentoring and Apprenticeship Programmes

Mentoring involves a relationship between a less experienced individual (mentee or protégé) and a more experienced individual (mentor) (Asin, 2017). In the academic environment, it is viewed as a dyadic, face-to-face, long-term relationship between a supervisory and experienced knowledge expert and a novice (employee/student) that fosters the mentee’s professional, academic, or personal development (Wronka, 2013). It has been argued as the most effective way to transfer skills, know-how, experience and knowledge quickly and inspire loyalty in new and less experienced employees to cooperate in an organisation (University of Belgrade, 2016).

Donaldson (2000) and Beazley, et al. (2002) express that in mentoring, the mentor should establish a good relationship with his/her mentees/protégés and assess their needs, in consultation with other interested and appropriate parties. Each mentoring arrangement is unique and its particular nature will be established according to the personalities of the two individuals concerned (University of Belgrade, 2016)

University of Belgrade (2016) again assert that mentorship and apprenticeship are purposeful, open and mutual relationships, which result in learning and development with mutual respect, acceptance and trust. They are designed and implemented in organisations as a strategy to manage succession planning, manage talent and manage and safeguard knowledge. It ensures that there are adequate experts (people) to take over some tasks when more experienced employees leave (retire or resign) the organisation (APQC, 2015). Mentoring and apprenticeship are also designed to minimise the call-back of retired employees (knowledge experts) to the organisation at an exorbitant salary to transfer the knowledge that should have been transferred while they were still employees of the organisation (Mavuso, 2007).

During mentoring and apprenticeship, knowledge experts transfer their knowledge, know-how, wisdom, specific insights, experiences and skills to less experienced employees or newer employees so that when the experienced employees leave the organisation, the organisation's practices, knowledge, history, stories and culture are preserved (APQC, 2015). Apart from knowledge transfer and retaining expertise within the organisation, mentoring and apprenticeship help the mentee to become a recognised and accepted member of the organisation, through passing on corporate vision and values and improving his/her grasp of corporate networking (Mavuso, 2007; Frost, 2015).

Mentoring and apprenticeship in universities come in different forms: natural and planned (Myburgh, 2004), formal and informal (Frost, 2014), e-mentoring and situational mentoring (Mavuso, 2007), care guide, information source, friend, intellectual, flash, reverse, supervisory, team, guide group, peer and self-managed (Mavuso, 2007).

2.4. Storytelling

In the organisation, stories are used to capture knowledge and routines of the past and enable employees in the present to adapt it to the new conditions (Frost, 2015 Liebowitz, 2009). They are instrumental in knowledge sharing and collaboration in the organisation because listeners are given the opportunity to ask questions, which then puts the story into perspective (Tobin & Snyman, 2008). Alosaimi (2016) and Tobin & Snyman (2008) looks at three main building blocks for stories in an organisation: story-crafting (design of the story, including level of complexity and relevance); storytelling (who tells the story, whether it is oral or recorded and using different type of media formats) and story-listening (monitor the reception, use the feedback for design and content of future stories).

Frost (2015) expresses that storytelling is a means of sharing norms and values, developing trust and commitment, sharing tacit knowledge, facilitating learning and generating an emotional connection. According to Alosaimi (2016) and Grobstein (2005), storytelling encourages people to share a broader understanding of things that might not otherwise be achieved. Hajric (2016) describe the typical sequence in storytelling as being the story (someone tells it, someone (or a group) listens); the understanding (listeners and narrators gain depth of understanding); and the shared meaning (groups use shared understanding as a metaphor and a kind of shorthand for wider understanding).

In terms of teaching and learning, storytelling is certainly one of the ways of transferring tacit knowledge so that others can use it and refer to it (Shim, 2006). It is important to acquire tacit knowledge from those people who have seniority and who have been with the university for some time. Storytelling is a way of capturing what is unique about an individual's experience and what is unique per individual is tacit knowledge. Storytelling is one of the prevailing forms of communication and it possesses great potential for teaching and learning (LeBlanc & Hogg, 2006). Individuals stand to benefit in terms of satisfaction on the part of the storyteller and the listener (feeling of self-esteem), recognition (the story itself is a valuable contribution) and belonging (telling the story helps in relationship building) (Hajric, 2015). Denning (2000) further opines that stories enhance and change perceptions and are easy to remember, are inherently non-adversarial and engage the feelings of individuals.

2.5. Electronic Learning (e-learning)

E-learning is the use of electronic media and ICT in education to facilitate knowledge sharing (Pavela, Fruthb, & Neacsuc, 2015). It uses internet technologies to deliver a broad array of solutions that enhance knowledge and performance. Similarly, Itmazi (2011) asserts that e-learning is the use of new multimedia technologies and the internet to improve the quality of learning by facilitating access to resources and services as well as remote exchanges and collaboration. In the view of IEDHE (2012), e-learning is education and knowledge sharing based on modern methods of communication, including the use of computers and its networks, various audio-visual materials, search engines, electronic libraries and websites, whether accomplished in the classroom or at a distance.

Hajric (2015) express that this type of education is delivered through the medium of the World Wide Web where the educational institution makes its programmes and materials available on a special website in such a manner that students are able to make use of them and interact with them with ease through closed or shared networks or the internet and through the use of e-mail and online discussion groups. The learning process needs techniques and tools to present the knowledge (from different resources), interact with it and share it with others. This tool has the potential to enhance and support the traditional learning system and make it more accessible and

the content/knowledge shareable. Browaeys (2006) concludes that e-learning is an umbrella term that covers learning and knowledge sharing almost anytime, anywhere (asynchronous) on a computer, usually connected to a network to promote higher thinking and KM.

It is the opinion of Lwoga (2012) that e-learning mainly consists of five characteristics. These are as follows:

1. Learning takes place anytime and anywhere, not only in the classroom.
2. Learners take on the role of organisers. Instructors serve as both the distributors of educational content and facilitators of the learning process.
3. Learning is a lifelong process and thus it is not linked solely to educational institutions.
4. Learning takes place in communities of learning or communities of practice, learners participate in formal as well as informal communities.
5. Learning is informal and non-formal takes place at home, at the workplace and during leisure time and is no longer centred on teachers or institutions.

In promoting higher-order thinking and KM through technology-based learning environments, Frost (2015) advocates that the implementation of instructional strategies, which promote learners to make connections with new information to old, acquire meaningful knowledge and employ metacognitive thinking skills, are required within the e-learning environment. This requires an analysis of the learner; the learning context; the learners' specific learning needs; and the learning system. According to Siragusa (2007), e-learning systems consist of the learner (student) and instructor (lecturer).

Ntuny-Coleman (2011) outline that e-learning is broadly inclusive of all forms of educational technology in learning and teaching and it is synonymous with other terminologies such multimedia learning, technology-enhanced learning, computer-based instruction, computer-based training, computer-assisted instruction or computer-aided instruction, internet-based training, web-based training, online education, virtual education, virtual learning environment, m-learning, digital educational collaboration, distributed learning and learning from a CD-ROM. Ntuny-Coleman (2011) notes that these different synonyms express and mean the same thing.

However, Pavela et al. (2015) draw attention to the fact that there are differences among all the synonyms used for e-learning. Ruiz, et al. (2006) note that some of these tools involve just the use and application of computers to facilitate teaching and learning in a localised environment, whereas others involve the networking and application of the internet facilities to aid knowledge sharing and learning. Furthermore, these alternative names emphasise a particular aspect, component or delivery method of e-learning. For instance, some are web-based learning, computer-based learning, virtual classrooms and digital collaboration, use of audio or video recording, satellite or land-based broadcasts, CD-ROM, DVD, videoconferencing and even the telephone system. One of the key features of modern web-based learning environments is the

capacity for users to learn remotely, from a different geographical area. Therefore, they considered them as types of e-learning to some extent.

Kumar (2013), Omeruo (2013), Moturi (2013), and CourseMrchant (2013), again reveal that e-learning can either be synchronous, asynchronous, database e-learning, classroom 2.0, e-learning 2.0, collaborative learning, linear learning, learning management system and computer-aided assessment. In addition, there are several aspects to describing the intellectual and technical development of e-learning, which can be categorised into four discrete areas. These are:

- e-learning as an educational approach or tool that supports traditional subjects
- e-learning as a technological medium that assists in the communication of knowledge and its development and exchange
- e-learning as an educational subject, such as computer or information science
- e-learning as administrative tools such as education management information systems

2.6. Other Strategies

According to Anduvare (2015), one fact that is agreed on in terms of KM is that there are different situations for different KM strategies. Aside from e-learning, CoPs, storytelling and coaching and mentorship, Dei (2017) in a study on assessing knowledge management practices in universities established that many other strategies were used to promote and safeguard knowledge at the universities. These strategies include training, development, education, exit interviews, motivational aids, incentives, face-to-face interactions, knowledge cafes, telephone conversation, sharing of experiences, succession planning, rotation and mobility of staff, workshops, joint problem-solving, joint decision-making and video conferencing. According to Ramalingam (2006), these are strategies that relate to how organisations look at their knowledge and learning in a strategic manner.

All of these strategies are used to plan, monitor and assess knowledge at the universities. Haggie & Kingston (2003) conclude that several factors need to be considered when deciding on a particular strategy to adopt, as the choice of strategy depends on the nature of the universities. Other studies by DiGiacomo (2003), Al Ammary & Fung (2008), Schulz & Jobe (2001) and Ramohlale (2014) established that many other strategies are used to manage knowledge in organisations. However, they only focused on certain aspects of the identified strategies. For instance, Ramohlale (2014) identified and discussed mentorship, gap analysis and knowledge audit as the main strategies used to manage and safeguard knowledge in organisations.

3. Conclusion

KM practices in organisation consist of some basic components which are: processes (the creation, capturing, storing, sharing and effective use of knowledge in an organisation); people (individuals and the roles they play in supporting KM process in the organisation); technology (the tools/infrastructure that an organisation uses to support KM processes); and culture (the

norms/traditions of knowledge creation and sharing within an organisation). For KM practices in organisations to be successful, it must develop strategies and systematic approaches (methodologies, procedures, and tools) the organisation wishes to follow in the management of its knowledge assets. There are different strategies for managing and safeguarding knowledge in organisations. These include coaching; storytelling; communities of practice; mentorship and apprenticeship; and e-learning.

Coaching is a partnership between a manager (coach) and an individual (coachee) who reports directly to him or her (coach) in which the coach focuses on helping the coachee (learner) to optimise his or her potential. It usually involves the establishment of a relationship between the coach and coachee; observation to uncover technical and skill deficiencies that need coaching; and demonstration of alternative ways to increase an individual's effectiveness.

Another major means of facilitating and fostering effective KM practices in universities is through the establishment of CoPs which are basically formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour: a tribe learning to survive, a band of artists seeking new forms of expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a clique of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first-time managers helping each other cope. Such communities are typically based on the affinity created by common interests or experience, where practitioners face a common set of problems in a particular knowledge area and have an interest in finding, or improving the effectiveness of solutions to those problems

During mentoring and apprenticeship, knowledge experts transfer their knowledge, know-how, wisdom, specific insights, experiences and skills to less experienced employees or newer employees so that when the experienced employees leave the organisation, the organisation's practices, knowledge, history, stories and culture are preserved. Apart from knowledge transfer and retaining expertise within the organisation, mentoring and apprenticeship help the mentee to become a recognised and accepted member of the organisation, through passing on corporate vision and values and improving his/her grasp of corporate networking. Mentoring and apprenticeship in universities come in different forms: natural and planned, formal and informal, e-mentoring and situational mentoring, care guide, information source, friend, intellectual, flash, reverse, supervisory, team, guide group, peer and self-managed.

In the organisation, stories are used to capture knowledge and routines of the past and enable employees in the present to adapt it to the new conditions. They are instrumental in knowledge sharing and collaboration in the organisation because listeners are given the opportunity to ask questions, which then puts the story into perspective. Storytelling serves as a means of sharing norms and values, developing trust and commitment, sharing tacit knowledge, facilitating learning and generating an emotional connection.

Organisations also deploys e-learning as a KM strategy. This is concerned with education and knowledge sharing based on modern methods of communication, including the use of computers and its networks, various audio-visual materials, search engines, electronic libraries and websites, whether accomplished in the classroom or at a distance.

Other strategies include training, development, education, exit interviews, motivational aids, incentives, face-to-face interactions, knowledge cafes, telephone conversation, sharing of experiences, succession planning, rotation and mobility of staff, workshops, joint problem-solving, joint decision-making and video conferencing. It is, therefore, recommended that organisations put in place policies to encourage the use of these strategies. These are essential for organisations who want to maintain a coherent and align their practice.

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