

# Impact of Communication Climate on Knowledge Management Readiness among Universities in Lagos State

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## Abstract

Knowledge is both a blessing and a curse, blessing because it is the only organisation source, which is neither depletable nor depreciable and curse because it is easily available and accessible to others, including competitors, and hence shortens the life of organisation competitive advantage. This is not a surprise because knowledge economy in organisation strategy where activities, products and services are knowledge-driven and knowledge based. This paper investigated the impact of communication climate on knowledge management readiness among administrative staff of libraries of universities located in Lagos state, Nigeria.

Research questions were raised and hypotheses were formulated, data was sourced from primary sources making use of questionnaire as the instrument of data collection. This was analysed with simple statistical tool of percentages, mean and descriptive tool of pie and bar chart to demonstrate the frequencies.

It was discovered that when organisation is ready for knowledge management readiness, individuals, contents, contexts and process variables can explain variances in commitment and pessimism toward knowledge management. It specifically assessed the effects of critical success factors, including positive and negative effects, innovativeness, perceived organisational support, communication climate, appropriateness, personal valence, management support, participation and quality of information on the affective, continuous and normative commitment and pessimism for determining the extent that an organisation is ready to embrace knowledge management initiatives. As employees in organisations progress with age, they acquire a set of knowledge that is customized to the firms' operations, structure and culture.

This study concluded and recommends that regardless of the type of organisation, there is no doubt that acumen and insight will give an organisation a winning edge. Therefore, leveraging the advantages of knowledge management readiness in an institution requires long-term commitment and leadership that values trial and error and a dedication to innovation and continuous improvement.

**Key Words:** *Knowledge Management, Knowledge Management Readiness and Administrative Staff*

## 1.0 Introduction

Knowledge in today's modern economy is regarded as the most critical elements of competitive advantage strategy. The prominence of knowledge in organisation strategy comes as no surprise in a knowledge economy where activities, products and services are knowledge-driven and knowledge based (Drucker, 1993; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). At the same time, free market economy and globalization assisted by technological and information revolution have led to knowledge explosion and unrestricted access to knowledge. The emergence of some of the most successful and influential companies ever come to being is the direct result of the new era of knowledge-driven economy. However, knowledge is both a blessing and a curse. It is a blessing, because knowledge is the only organisation source, which is neither depletable nor depreciable. It is a curse, because it is easily available and accessible to others, including competitors, and hence shortens the life of organisation competitive advantage. This implies that sustainable competitive advantage comes from the extent that knowledge is utilized and maximized rather than how it is monopolized or protected. Maximum utility of knowledge is geared to its effective management, i.e. how to create, acquire, capture, share and use knowledge faster, better and cheaper than competitors. This requires the organisational ability to design and implement systems, structures, processes, cultures and tools to improve and support organisation knowledge for effective decision-making' (DeLong and Fahey, 2000).

Knowledge management is a viable means in which academic libraries could improve their services in the knowledge economy. This can be achieved through creating an organisational culture of sharing knowledge and expertise within the library. Organisations, including academic libraries can create and leverage its knowledge base through initiation of appropriate knowledge management practices. The changing role of academic librarians as knowledge managers emphasises the need to constantly update or acquire new skills and knowledge to remain relevant to the today's library environment. Academic libraries as constituents of the parent university should rethink and explore ways to improve their services and become learning organisations in which to

discover how to capture and share tacit and explicit knowledge within the library. Academic libraries may need to restructure their functions, expand their roles and responsibilities to effectively contribute and meet the needs of a large and diverse university community.

TFPL (1999) argued that “for organisations to compete effectively in the knowledge economy they need to change their values and establish a new focus on creating and using intellectual assets”. The success of academic libraries depends on their ability to utilize information and knowledge of its staff to better serve the needs of the academic community. The conventional function of academic libraries is to collect, process, disseminate, store and utilise information to provide service to the university community.

In the present information and knowledge era, knowledge has become a key resource. Faced with competition and increasingly dynamic environments, organisations are beginning to realise that there is a vast and largely untapped asset diffused around in the organisation – knowledge (Gupta, Iyer and Aronson, 2000). This realisation not only occurs in business organisations but also in non-profit organisations such as academic libraries. Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) considered knowledge and intellectual capital as a company’s primary source of production and value. Human capital, recognized by organisations as the strategic value of the human assets, is the collective value of the workforce. Human capital is not the worker in a company- it is what that person brings and contributes to the success of the organisation. Human capital is the collective value of the capabilities, knowledge, skills, life experiences, and motivation of the workforce (Aldisent, 2002). Also called intellectual capital to reflect the thinking, knowledge, creativity, and decision making that people in organisations contribute, human capital includes these organisational contributions (Kaplan and Norton, 2004). Ulrich (1998) explained the importance of knowledge management within an organisation - knowledge is an organisation’s only appreciable asset and knowledge work continues to increase.

To remain competitive companies need to develop strategies to retain this knowledge from older workers and transfer it successfully to other employees in the corporation (Calo, 2008). “As the Baby Boomer generation prepares for retirement, many firms want to be sure that the knowledge and experience gained by the current leadership does not walk out the door when they do” (Glick, 2007). A growing concern among organisations is the vast wealth of knowledge and experience built by Baby Boomers walking out the door (Paton, 2008). Experienced executives contain important know-how, if this information were to be lost, it would result in a pricey undertaking for the organisation to recover that information, if even at all (Martin, 2000). This study explores generational diversity workplace variables that affect achieving optimal knowledge management within organisations. Further, this paper seeks to reflect upon knowledge management strategies from the perspective of knowledge transfer within multi-generational workforce environments. Hence, the paper is divided into four sections; section one is the introduction, section two is the literature review while section three is the methodology which comprise of the method adopted for data collection and analysis and section four is the interpretation of results, recommendations and conclusion of the paper.

The objective of this paper is to examine factors affecting knowledge management readiness among administrative staff of three Nigerian institutions. Specifically, the paper will analyse if there are an awareness of knowledge management readiness within the institutions, to ascertain whether the appropriate technological and human resources are available to facilitate effective knowledge management readiness. The tentative statements are that

1. There is no significant relationship between communication climate and knowledge management readiness in Universities in Lagos State.
2. There is no significant relationship between organisational management support and knowledge management readiness in Universities in Lagos State.

The study is restricted to final year undergraduate students of selected higher institutions within Lagos state (which are University of Lagos, Akoka, Yaba, Lagos State University, Ojo, Caleb University, Imota and Pan African University, Ajah in Lagos State).

Regardless of the type of organisation, there is no doubt that acumen and insight will give an organisation a winning edge. Therefore, leveraging the advantages of knowledge management readiness in an institution requires long-term commitment and leadership that values trial and error and a dedication to innovation and continuous improvement. Therefore the study is relevant for the need to establish an organisational memory or knowledge readiness repository when implementing a knowledge management initiative.

## **2.0 Literature Review**

There are considerable factors affecting knowledge management readiness among administrative staff in Nigerian institution of learning. In the current information age and knowledge economy and it is becoming increasingly necessary for institutions to generate and utilize knowledge to obtain a competitive advantage and function efficiently. Although the notion of obtaining a competitive advantage is not necessarily relevant to the public sector, the process of knowledge management has significant implications for the Nigerian institution as

well. However, the problem most organisation experience is that most employees are not willing to share their knowledge and the experience they have gathered on the job, thus this has affected the newly employed thereby it invariably affect their performance on the job.

One of the implications is that Nigerian institution should be strategically aligned to provide better services to their administrative staff by gaining a better understanding of their staff. This is especially important for the institution of learning in terms of service delivery. Knowledge management readiness cannot be imposed on an organisation from the top; it is crucial that the initiative enjoys the support of the entire organisation to guarantee success. Knowledge management readiness involves changes in an organisation and its implication is dependent on the absolute support of senior management, as these changes have an impact on the operations, management style and value system of the organisation (Aabell and Oxbrow, 1999).

Further, most organisation are not ready to invest on staff training, they believe that it is costly and moreover it will not yield positive impact on their job effectiveness. Apart from this they are not ready to provide ICT facilities for their staff to perform their duties. Even when they are available the management are not ready to train them on how to use the facilities. Also the organisational support is relatively low and there is no adequate incentives, innovativeness and reward for knowledge sharing. More so, there is no good leadership style that support knowledge transfer and sharing in the organisational culture.

Knowledge Management (KM) and its various aspects has become the subject of much debate amongst scholars of diverse fields (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). This has contributed to the plethora of frameworks, models or even definitions that often reflect author's own perspective and interests. However, there is a general agreement on the underlying purpose of KM, which is to enhance organisational performance and competitiveness. O'Dell and Jackson (1998) argue that KM strategy aims to ensure that knowledge reaches the right people at the right time, and that these people share and use information to improve organisational functions. Despite the appeal of KM concept, the establishment of KM encounters several structural, personnel and managerial barriers, and many organisations that have embraced KM strategy have failed to implement it successfully, since they have failed to pay proper attention to its potential problems and setbacks.

## 2.1 Conceptual Framework

Knowledge management, an evolving term, has a glut of contributions surrounding a formal definition, exact definition of what knowledge management is has been ambiguous but the use of knowledge management across various fields has given the subject several different interpretations and meanings. This difficulty stems from the confusion existing in a term which is commonly used in organisations to describe the practice (and technology infrastructure system) of managing its knowledge-the process of collecting, codifying, accessing and transferring the totality of an organisation's knowledge.

Debates are ongoing as to concepts involved and how to properly convey it in a universal fashion (Slagter, 2007). Indeed, Sveiby (2001) states, knowledge cannot be managed and therefore knowledge management is a poor term. Sveiby (2001) offers that knowledge focus or knowledge creation, coined by Nonaka, are better terms because they describe a mindset in which knowledge is an activity not an object. McInerney (2002) broadly described knowledge management as a common business practice and as a theoretical field of study. Others have simply concluded that knowledge management is the creation, transfer and retention of knowledge by organisations (Martin de Holan and Phillips, 2004). In practice, knowledge management is a conscious effort to gain from the knowledge that lies within in an organisation by using it to achieve the organisation's mission (McInerney, 2002). A more substantial definition was supplied by Gephart, Marsick, Van Buren, and Spiro (1996), knowledge management refers to the process of enhancing company performance by designing and implementing tools, process, systems, structures, and cultures to improve the creation, sharing and use of knowledge'. In the same vein, Rastogi (2000) defines knowledge management as a systematic and integrative process of coordinating organisation-wide activities of acquiring, creating, storing, sharing, diffusing, developing, and deploying knowledge by individuals and groups in pursuit of major organisational goals. It is the process through which organisations create and use their institutional and collective knowledge. While many definitions stress system processes with an IT focus, Rastogi's (2000) rich definition also includes the process of knowledge from the creation or acquisition of knowledge to its use. Internal knowledge is knowledge that is created within the company through innovative attempts while external knowledge is gained from outside sources (Seidler-de Alwis and Hartmann, 2008). Whichever way knowledge is acquired, it needs to have a way by which it can be stored, shared and ultimately deployed.

## 2.2 Knowledge Management Readiness

Knowledge and knowledge management are recognized as valuable corporate resources in the same vein as land, buildings, financial resources, people, capital equipment, and other tangible assets (Kipley, Lewis and Helm, 2008). Knowledge management (KM) readiness is the ability of an organisation, department or workgroup to successfully adopt, use and benefit from KM. Readiness is a necessary precondition for a person or an

organisation to succeed in facing organisational change (Holt, 2000). Holt (2000) describes readiness for change as “a comprehensive approach that is simultaneously raised by content (what is changing), process (how change comes into force), context (the conditions under which change has occurred) and individuals (whom their features is being asked to change)”. Given that it is people who implement organisation change strategies, the KM readiness is a paradigm that needs to be evaluated at individual level. Eby *et al.* (2000) argue that the perception of organisation’s readiness for change is based on a unique interpretation of organisational context by employees and generally evolves over time. They further emphasize that management interventions (i.e. communications, participation and active support) can help shaping those perceptions.

Gold *et al.* (2001) introduce infrastructure capabilities (such as technology, structure and culture) and process features (such as processes of gain, conversion and use) as preconditions for effective KM. These enablers provide a KM framework which emphasises the role organisation members play in such a project (Cho *et al.*, 2000; employees), the place where KM is created (O’Del *et al.* 1998; culture), the parts of the organisation that are involved (Havens and Knapp, 1999; content) and the way KM is being created (Gold *et al.*, 2001; process). Given the critical role of peoples’ involvement and support in organisational changes, it is argued that KM system has a chance to succeed, only if members and managers are committed and excited about it.

Therefore, the employee remains a member of the organisation because he/she “has to”. These feelings may derive from many sources. For example, the organisation may have invested resources in training an employee who then feels a ‘moral’ obligation to put forth effort on the job and stay with the organisation to repay the debt. It may also reflect an internalized norm, developed before the person joins the organisation through family or other socialization processes, that one should be loyal to one’s organisation. The employee stays with the organisation, because he/she “ought to”. Similarly, pessimism, i.e. perceiving things negatively, affect people’s attitude toward change (Wanous, *et al.*, 2000). High pessimism might result in more adversarial position over time (Robinson-Whelen, *et al.*, 1997; Burger and Palmer, 1997).

Watson and Clark (1997) states, those that are high in positive affects desire change and variety in their lives, and become bored or dissatisfied when change is absent”. Thus, in this study, positive affects measures the extent to which respondents tend to experience positive emotional states. Similarly, negative affects measures the extent to which respondents tend to experience negative emotional states. Malhotra (2003), argue further that managers would need to facilitate the confidence of knowledge workers in acting on incomplete information, trusting their own judgments, and taking decisive actions for capturing increasingly shorter windows of opportunity. Stewart (1994) states that change is easier, if managers and employees are rewarded for taking risks, being innovative and looking for new solutions. While positive and negative affects measure emotional states, efficacy measures the extent to which respondents feel they are capable of fulfilling the roles and behaviours associated with KM initiatives and innovativeness measures the extent to which respondents feel they can creatively confront organisational challenge.

Holsapple and Joshi (2000) highlight the coordination of the management of knowledge as a key managerial influence. Coordination approaches suggested and used to manage dependencies in a knowledge-based organisation include linking reward structures to knowledge sharing, establishing communications for knowledge sharing and constructing programs to encourage learning. While Grimaud (1994) suggested that this is the position, which some individuals believe “there’s nothing in it for me”. Individuals who perceive that a change will not benefit them personally are fairly certain to resist it. Therefore, valence is a considerable content variable, which measures the extent to which respondents feel they will benefit from the implementation of KM.

Knowledge in today’s modern economy is regarded as the most critical elements of competitive advantage strategy. The prominence of knowledge in organisation strategy comes as no surprise in a knowledge economy where activities, products and services are knowledge-driven and knowledge based (Drucker, 1993; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). At the same time, free market economy and globalization assisted by technological and information revolution have led to knowledge explosion and unrestricted access to knowledge. The emergence of some of the most successful and influential companies ever come to being is the direct result of the new era of knowledge-driven economy. However, knowledge is both a blessing and a curse. It is a blessing, because knowledge is the only organisation source, which is neither depletable nor depreciable. It is a curse, because it is easily available and accessible to others, including competitors, and hence shortens the life of organisation competitive advantage. This implies that sustainable competitive advantage comes from the extent that knowledge is utilized and maximized rather than how it is monopolized or protected. Maximum utility of knowledge is geared to its effective management, i.e. how to create, acquire, capture, share and use knowledge faster, better and cheaper than competitors. This requires the organisational ability to design and implement systems, structures, processes, cultures and tools to improve and support organisation knowledge for effective decision-making’ (DeLong and Fahey, 2000).

### 2.3 Knowledge Management in Universities

Knowledge management as it evolved in the business sector is slowly gaining acceptance in the academic sector. Oosterlink and Leuven (2002) opined that in this era of knowledge society and a knowledge economy, it is clear that universities have a major role to play. In other words, universities are faced with a challenge to better create and disseminate knowledge to society. But Reid (2000) argued that traditionally, universities have been the sites of knowledge production, storage, dissemination and authorisation. Similarly, Ratcliffe-Martin, Coakes and Sugden (2000) articulated that universities traditionally focus on the acquisition of knowledge and learning. As organisations (recognised to be in the knowledge business), universities and other higher education institutions face similar challenges that many other non-profit and for-profit organisations face (Rowley, 2000; Petrides and Nodine, 2003). Among these challenges are financial pressures, increasing public scrutiny and accountability, rapidly evolving technologies, changing staff roles, diverse staff and student demographics, competing values and a rapidly changing world (Naidoo, 2002).

Universities seek to share information and knowledge among the academic community within the institution. Knowledge management has become a key issue in universities due to changes in knowledge cultures. Oosterlink and Leuven (2002) argued that: Universities are no longer living in splendid isolation. They have their own place in society, and they have a responsibility to society, which expects something in return for privileges it has granted. In other words, universities do not exist as single entities. They are part of society through engaging in teaching, research and community service. Therefore, the knowledge created in universities through research and teaching should be relevant to the labour market. It may be noted that the university is concerned with the conservation of knowledge and ideas; teaching, research, publication, extension and services and interpretation (Budd, 1998; Ratcliffe-Martin, Coakes and Sugden, 2000). As a result, promoting knowledge as the business of the university should be the major focus of higher education institutions. Similar to corporate organisations there are forces that are driving the changes in the way universities operate. Nunan (1999) cited in Reid (2000) argued that “higher education is undergoing transformations due to a range of external forces such as market competition, virtualisation and internationalisation, giving rise to new ways of understanding the role and function of the university”. This implies that the present day economic, social and technological context is bringing about changes to which universities must also adapt (CRUE, 2002). Universities compete against each other due to a great number of people who have access to higher education. Further, the competitive pressures universities are now experiencing also result from changes in financial support, increasing costs of education and demand for educational services. Again, the present speed of knowledge transfer has generated an increasing demand from professionals and businesses for continuing education (CRUE, 2002).

In addition, the universities’ market demands are changing in terms of improving student learning outcomes. Some of the changes taking place in higher education have a direct impact on the library and its services. These include alterations in institution’s curricula, demographic changes in student bodies and additions to the media used in the classroom and in support of research (Budd, 1998). This translates to a demand that cannot be met with current resources, present bureaucratic structures and traditional methods for delivering services. Reid (2000) pointed out that this causes universities to measure their teaching programmes, at least to some extent, as a market commodity that is aimed to meet the needs of the customer. In addition, universities will be required to re-examine all traditional methods and frameworks for a university education. In doing so, the discussion about this re-examination of the university will move into the same kind of paradigm shifting as that about libraries (Stoffle, 1996). It is also a challenge to academic libraries to support the needs of students for virtual learning. Due to these challenges, it is clear that academic libraries are turning to be “libraries without walls” and the information they deal with is now multi-format.

Further, emerging information and communication technologies (ICTs) allow for the virtualisation of teaching and learning (Reid, 2000). The use of ICTs in universities makes it possible for courses, modules and training programmes that are interactive and multimedia based to be delivered on any time any place basis (Stoffle, 1996). This has created competition between universities in terms of delivering higher education services to the academic community. In addition, universities have been influenced by the modes of organising that dominated the corporate world and institutions. The upshot of the foregoing is that universities are facing the need for massive change in organisational structure, organisational culture in order to facilitate and integrate the sharing of knowledge within the university community. Commitment to change and learning together is important in that it combines to turn the universities into learning organisations.

As organisations grow ever complex, the organisational structures reflect specialisation in knowledge and expertise. Budd (1998) argued that higher education, as it grew, took an organisational characteristic of these other institutions, because there was increasing organisational complexity, that is, the level of knowledge and expertise in an organisation. As a result, today many educational institutions are seeking better ways to transform that knowledge into effective decision-making and action (Petrides and Nodine, 2003). The focus of universities, is based on making individual knowledge reusable for the achievement of the missions of the university. However, Ratcliffe-Martin, Coakes and Sugden (2000) argued that: Universities do not generally manage

information well. They tend to lose it, fail to exploit it, duplicate it, do not share it, do not always share it, do not always know what they know and do not recognise knowledge as an asset. In order for universities to achieve their institutional mission, that is, education, research and service to society, they need to be consciously and explicitly managing the processes associated with the creation of knowledge. Academic institutions exist to create knowledge, and thus, they have a role to play. Knowledge management should have significance in higher education institutions. Sallis and Jones (2002) pointed out that education ought to find it easier to embrace knowledge management ideas, processes and techniques than many other organisations. Oosterlink and Leuven (2002) emphasised that with a suitable and multifaceted approach to knowledge management, universities can guarantee their own survival and at the same time prove that they are essential to modern society. This is supported to some extent by Achava-Amrung (2001), who argued that knowledge management involves setting an environment that allows college and university constituencies to create, capture, share and leverage knowledge to improve their performance in fulfilling institutional missions.

### **Organisational Structures**

As a result of rapid environmental changes, academic libraries need to rethink their organisational structures in an attempt to provide quality service to the university community. Hazen (2000) pointed out that the structures that define academic libraries vary between countries, between institutions and between types of institutions. In other words, the type of organisational structure existing in academic libraries is determined by their readiness to deal with current challenges. Stoffle (1996) suggested that we must flatten our organisations and eliminate the bureaucracies that make us inflexible and slow in our response to our environment and the opportunities that are constantly presented". Flatter organisational structures are more conducive to innovation than are rigid hierarchies (Edwards and Walton, 1996). They promote the creation of ideas.

There is a need to reshape the structure of academic libraries so that they will be able to improve the services they provide to both today's and tomorrow's users. Wilson (1998) urged university librarians to make their organisations more client centred, to redesign work processes in light of organisational goals, and restructure in order to support front-line performance. The emphasis is more on the needs of the library user than the needs of the library. Moran (2001) argued that the hallmark of a learning organisation is information sharing, team-based structure, empowered employees, decentralised decision making and participative strategy. Like other organisations, academic libraries need to reshape their structures to better serve their users. In an age of great change in information formats, delivery models and technologies, an important new role emerges for the academic librarian (CETUS, 1999). Bertnes (2000) argued that knowledge workers will be the most important profession in this century. There is no doubt that they are librarians. One of the major roles of academic librarians in the knowledge economy is that of knowledge managers. It is evident that academic librarians can no longer meet the information needs of the university community through the traditional avenue of simply adding to their library collections. Academic librarians need to go an extra mile. They need to understand the information and knowledge needs of users. They should be in a position to map internal and external knowledge that would assist them in increasing their efficiency. In other words, academic librarians should extend their information management roles and enhance their knowledge management competencies. Foo *et al.*, (2002) pointed out that academic librarians as knowledge workers need to play active roles in searching for innovative solutions to the issues involved in adapting to new environments.

### **Changing Environment and Academic Libraries**

The rapid growth of information and communication technologies (ICTs) are said to be changing the way academic libraries operate today. Academic library collections are no longer collections comprised almost entirely of printed materials but collections comprised almost of materials in multiple formats and media (Budd, 1998). Information technologies such as computers, multimedia and CD-ROMs are bringing unprecedented abilities to academic libraries in providing services and resources to the university community. Over the past few years, the Web has had a tremendous effect on the growth of information and the speed of transmission. The problem with the Web is that, there is no real organisation of information like in the case of libraries. New means to deliver information over the Web places a challenge to academic librarians in terms of helping students make sense of information found on websites.

Another challenge facing academic libraries in the networked online environment is to exploit all forms of digital and telecommunication technologies and find new ways and means to provide feasible forms of collections; services and access to library materials (Foo *et al.*, 2002). These technologies however, require greater responsibility to academic librarians. The challenge for academic librarians is to manage services, which offer users a carefully selected mix of multiple formats and media. Academic libraries should rethink their role in the whole university community. There is a need to support the needs of the users since the teaching and learning patterns in universities have changed. As information and research resources become more varied, this places a challenge to academic libraries. Hazen (2000) argued that the changes in the nature of information, in research strategies and in the structure of higher education are affecting academic libraries. These changes define much of the shifting context within which academic libraries must operate. The changes brought by electronic

media necessitate transformation in the way librarians think about their jobs, the users of information and communication process of which they are part of (Budd 1998). Academic librarians must strive to remain competent navigators of each medium on order to assist the library users.

### **Service Quality**

Service quality involves the quality of IS staff support to the system's end-users. It is assessed here by the five indicators: reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy (based on Kettinger and Lee(1994)), and training. Users of any system have similar criteria for evaluating service quality (Parasuraman et al, 1985). IS effectiveness measurement is undermined by ignoring service quality (DeLone and McLean, 2003). For effective KMS deployment, service quality is also important (Maier, 2002). Reliable, responsive, understandable, and available IT support staff is essential to motivate KMS users. Also, training is needed to improve the success of an information system (Turban et al., 2001). Service quality can be defined as "the collective effect of service performances which determine the degree of satisfaction of a user of the service".

In other words, quality is the customer's perception of a delivered service. By service-quality management, we refer to the monitoring and maintenance of end-to-end services for specific customers or classes of customers. As larger varieties of services are offered to customers, the impact of network performance on the quality of service will be more complex. It is vital that service engineers identify network-performance issues that impact customer service. They also must quantify revenue lost due to service degradation.

Quality plays an integral role in all aspects of management. Delivering high quality products and services on time and on budget is every project manager's goal. The purpose of a quality management process in a project is to ensure that its activities are appropriate for the project, to identify and report successful results, and also to identify and report those activities and processes where is still room for improvements and use this as a reference for the subsequent phases of the project and for future projects. There is a multidimensional relationship between the quality of a service and the organisation that is providing that service. Some of the factors that are making this multidimensional relationship are: business strategy, organisation knowledge, available resources, etc. The Quality Management Framework (QMF) helps placing into context this multidimensional relationship between the organisation and it's provided services.

The object or entity in the QMF context refers to any product, service, process, activity, etc. to which quality can be applied. The quality of an object (entity) is directly related to the quality of the process used to create or deliver the object (entity). Requirements are the sole purpose of producing a product or offering a service. The degree in which the final product or service meets initial requirements affects the quality of the product or service. The user formulates requirements and is the beneficiary of the product or service. The user can provide feedback in regards with the product or service that is being offered. Evaluation is a qualitative process to analyze the degree in which requirements have been fulfilled. Measure and measurement is a quantitative process where quality metrics are being defined and calculated to enable quantification in the quality management process.

### **2.4 Factors affecting knowledge management readiness**

Knowledge is increasingly viewed as a firm's most important asset, the considerable growth in the number of knowledge workers and organisations attests to this fact, paving the way for the emergence of knowledge management and value-based managerial paradigms. These dynamic shifts are also commensurate with the dawn of post-modern and post-industrial societies, which undergird knowledge-based economies. Management approaches, methods, and tools have likewise undergone considerable change, both in form and content. The outcome of these changes is crystallized in value-based businesses. Also, an analysis of these developments in the context of systems thinking supports the necessity of change in knowledge management infrastructure. In this context, focus on social capital as a catalyst to the implementation of knowledge management systems has become paramount.

Social capital is one of the main components of intellectual capital, which emerges as the most valued asset of any organisation. Human capital plays a key role in the success and survival of organisations in an era of globalization. A well-rounded evaluation of the social capital status of organisations is a key stage in the evaluation of their readiness to effectively and efficiently embrace knowledge management systems. Nowadays these evaluations are part and parcel of the management of value-based businesses.

The analysis of individual factors, including positive and negative affects, efficacy and innovation are the best predictors of employees' readiness to adopt KM system. This implies that the extent that employees feel able to perform their roles related to KM initiatives and to confront organisational challenges pave the way for getting involved in such management actions. Assessing employees' general attitudes toward KM system may reveal critical barriers that management needs to address prior to introducing the system. Results for context variables are somewhat different from results obtained for individual variables. Perceived organisational support and communication climate are related only to pessimism and affective commitment. This suggests that employees'

perception of organisation, i.e. it cares for them and pays attention to their satisfaction, prosperity and success, predicts their affective dependency on KM initiative (Eisenberger, et al., 1986). Hence, to promote affective dependency and reduce pessimism, managers are encouraged to convey to employees the sense of being important and valued. Such a positive perception can be reinforced by providing employees with useful, timely and adequate information about the KM system.

Open dialogue and discussion can also reduce a sense of pessimism. The results obtained from regression model analysis suggest that while there is no significant correlation between content variables and pessimism, these variables are good predictors for explaining variance, occurring in various types of commitment toward KM. For instance, appropriateness has a significant effect on all three types of commitment, which indicates the extent to which employees feel the KM initiative is congruent with organisational goals and is likely to meet them. Therefore, promoting the understanding about necessity, importance and benefits of knowledge management readiness for the organisation among employees, and convincing them through discussions and rational reasoning can increase their commitment to such programs. The findings also showed management support, participation and quality of information; consistently affect pessimism, affective commitment and emotional commitment. This seems to suggest that managers' actions to encourage their employees to welcome such programs will lead to knowledge sharing, responsibility sharing and reduced sense of pessimism toward knowledge management initiatives. Further, increasing the level of employees' participation in KM initiatives and providing platforms for employees to take a greater interest in the decision-making process, related to knowledge management, play a significant role in instilling positive attitudes and commitment. Timely and adequate information about KM programs can also promote employees' normative commitment to KM, i.e. they tend to stay in the organisation, as they feel a heightened sense of responsibility, loyalty or obligation (Holt, 2002; Wanberg and Banas, 2000 and Miller *et al.*, 1994).

## 2.5 Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

Many suggestions on how to encourage sharing of knowledge within the job environment have been discussed by previous researchers. Most of these approaches are enforcing the practice of sharing job knowledge in the job, based on well-organised and formal instructed plans. Such activities are proposed to create an environment, where one should feel that it is their duty to share knowledge to contribute to the organisation and to develop themselves to be successful in his or her job. Listed below are the recommended methods:

Ryan (2006) recommends identifying key business needs and then communicating these initiatives in business language that matches the problem being solved and the staff being targeted". The organisation needs to point out to its employees of what it is heading for and what it hopes for from the employees in order to achieve its vision and mission. The management needs to make a clear message to its employees about the organisation's production targets and how soon they want the targets to be achieved. The management should also stress the importance of knowledge sharing and to what extent it appreciates the sharing behaviour. American Productivity and Quality Centre (1994-2002), explains that if the organisation wants its employees to share what they know with the organisation, then the employees need to know why sharing knowledge is going to be good for the organisation and for the employees themselves. If people believe they will benefit from sharing knowledge, they are more likely to share (The Specialist Library, 2005). The organisation needs to establish a compelling reason for the employees to embrace the change. Some people feel that it's not worth sharing their knowledge with someone because they are unaware of the importance of sharing knowledge to the organisation and to themselves (Tech Republic, 2000).

The management could focus on a specific problem and encourage its employees to come up with ideas and actions to overcome such problems. Communicating key business clearly projects the start of an organisational culture which eventually motivates employees to support the needs of the organisation. Knowledge sharing through this way works automatically within the work environment and this could "improve the coordination of project teams, or increase consistency of interaction with customers, or reduce processing errors" (Ryan, 2006). To communicate such needs, Ryan (2006) suggested appointing a work leader who can cultivate workplace culture. Employees' leader has the capability of changing from a competing to a sharing work environment. The leader could present a report at the end of the project on how each team member worked towards achieving the plan. As such, employees may want to show the leader their highest contribution to the needs of the organisation and tend to perform harder by sharing ideas and knowledge.

**Peer assist:** A peer assist is simply a process where a team of people who are working on a project or activity call a meeting or workshop to seek knowledge and insights from people in other teams" (Specialist Library, 2005). It involves a group of employees with the intention of sharing feedback and learning new ideas from other participants' knowledge and experience with topics related to a problem or activity. Faul & Camacho (2004) suggest that the department could select a facilitator who is able to lead the peer-assist plan and discussions. They added that the facilitator needs to clarify the purpose and define the specific challenge or problem for which the group is seeking help. The facilitator needs to set a schedule (time, date, job knowledge and



participants) for the peer assist and later invite participants with a diversity of knowledge, skills and expertise, tailored to the objectives of the peer assist. The purpose is to learn how other colleagues would approach the issue to develop ideas and solutions to the problems.

Through this way, employees learn new approaches or methods to solving problems and at the same time develop stronger bonds with colleagues. This is a clear effort of knowledge sharing without much expectation of reward. Employee performance equally increases due to improvement in the job.

**Job descriptions:** The other method is that to make knowledge work part of everyone's job. Of all the reasons people have for not sharing knowledge is being too busy with real job and not having the time (Specialist Library, 2005). Therefore, Specialist Library suggest that by making knowledge sharing a formal part of employees' responsibilities, using it in job description, and incorporating it into performance appraisal processes, the importance of knowledge sharing can be demonstrated. Two employees can possibly share the same responsibilities but with an equally divided workload. For example, an assignment can be divided 60% to one staff and the remaining 40% to the other staff so that the two persons will follow-up with each other in order to finish the assignment. This process can also involve more than two people. Hence, this will enable two employees to learn the same responsibilities as the employees will assist each other and sharing knowledge will not be a problem. Denning (2004) recommends to add some key responsibilities to their job so that knowledge sharing takes place as the job goes on.

He urges to add specific descriptions to the job to encourage employees to share knowledge through the organisation's operational business processes and systems; and also share experiences across communities of practice, business units, and networks on innovative approaches in knowledge sharing. Through this way, employees cannot say that they have no time to share because they need to share in order to complete their job.

**Training and mentoring:** Baastrup (2003) recommended that training and mentoring within the department could be one-way an employee can share knowledge with other employees. A mentor might use a variety of approaches such as coaching, training, discussion, and counselling to transfer his or her best practices. The process of mentoring is more of encouraging experienced workers to share their knowledge with those who are less experienced as well as encouraging them to take further training. The impact of the on-the-job coaching is merely to improve employee skills (Barkley and Bianco, 2003). American Productivity Quality Centre (1994-2002) conducted a study on mentoring and 60% of the employees who were mentoring were doing it because they are intrinsically motivated to share knowledge and they thought it was the right thing to do and they got internal satisfaction by doing it. As such, knowledge can best be shared if employee mentors are selected in the department to guide and teach colleagues or junior employees. A mentor will make sure that a new employee learns everything that is required in the job. He can also teach other senior employees skills and techniques needed if they were to take over new assignments in the future. Through this way, no employees are left out in the competition of hoarding knowledge. Nobscot Corporation (2003-2006) opines that in training and mentoring, "the knowledge retained in key individuals is the most valuable part of the organisation". This according to them, not only benefit the organisation by "reducing the risk of loss of key skills and knowledge", but it also helps "reduce the load on the key employees".

## 2.6 Theoretical Framework

### Systems Theory

The system theory was developed by Ludwig Von Bertalanffy a biologist in 1938. The theory stated that a system is a set of elements standing in interrelation among them and with the environment which forms a larger whole that is more than its part. The theory views all events as interrelated and part of a greater whole, without one of the cooperating and collaborating parts, there will not be appropriate cohesion and this will force the system to grind to a halt. It is only when all parts work together that one can achieve efficiency and effectiveness. By emphasizing the relationships among the part of a whole, one could understand how change in one component of an organisation can have repercussions throughout the whole organisation.

Hence, system theory gives a more comprehensive view of organisational processes because an organisation is a managed system, designed and run to achieve a specific set of objectives. In applying this theory to this study, a library is seen as system which is made up of a number of subsystems. It is an open system and it interacts with its environment which is in turn influenced by it. For instance let take the issue of information technology that is now affecting library services, at the same time library staff have to adjust to this challenges so that they will be relevant, also the users are not left out, they have to be familiar with the system. Consequently, the organisational culture of a library stands in interrelation with the knowledge sharing habit of its staff which in turns affects organisational effectiveness. For example, if the culture of a library encourage sharing of knowledge, it will be embedded in work procedure through staff interaction. This can thereby become a norm which will eventually result in organisational effectiveness. Hence, a change in culture will affect all other subsystems and vice versa.

### **Fiedler's contingency theory**

Fiedler's contingency theory centers on the belief that there is no best way for managers to lead. Different situations create different leadership style requirements for managers. The style that works in one environment may not work in another. Fiedler looked at three elements that dictate a leader's situational control. These elements are:

**Task structure:** Is the job highly structured, fairly unstructured, or somewhere in between? The spelling out in detail (favorable) of what is required of subordinates affects task structure.

**Leader/member relations:** This element applies to the amount of loyalty, dependability, and support that a leader receives from his or her employees. In a favorable relationship, a manager has a highly formed task structure and is able to reward and/or punish employees without any problems. In an unfavorable relationship, the task structure is usually poorly formed, and the leader possesses limited authority.

**Positioning power:** Positioning power measures the amount of power or authority a manager perceives the organisation has given him or her for the purpose of directing, rewarding, and punishing subordinates. Positioning powers of managers depends on the taking away (favorable) or increasing (unfavorable) of the decision-making power of employees.

Fiedler then rated managers as to whether they were relationship oriented or task oriented. Task-oriented managers tended to do better in situations with good leader/member relationships, structured tasks, and either weak or strong position power. They also did well when the tasks were unstructured but position power was strong, as well as when the leader/member relations were moderate to poor and the tasks were unstructured. Relationship-oriented managers, on the other hand, do better in all other situations. The task-motivated style leader experiences pride and satisfaction in task accomplishment for his or her organisation, while the relationship-motivated style leader seeks to build interpersonal relations and extend extra help for team development in his or her organisation.

Judging whether a leadership style is good or bad can be difficult. Each manager has his or her own preferences for leadership. Task-motivated leaders are at their best when their teams perform successfully—such as achieving new sales records or outperforming major competitors. Relationship-oriented leaders are at their best when greater customer satisfaction is gained and positive company images are established.

### **2.7 Organisational Readiness for Knowledge Management**

Holt (2000) considers readiness as a prerequisite for a person or an organisation to succeed in the implementation of organisational change. The final success rate in change implementation encourages managers to proactively resort to change management tools so as to evaluate the firm's situation prior to change implementation. Following Holt's lead, other researchers such Simon (1996) and Jansen (2000) believe that managers must provide answers to two questions in order to minimize risk and uncertainty: a) What is a firm's main competence in the knowledge management arena; and b) what are the prerequisite changes that need to be carried out prior to the implementation of knowledge management. Also, Choi and Behling (1997) showed that organisations and managers in various levels and departments, whether in private or public sector, recognize that the only constant factor is change.

Numerous definitions of knowledge management have been analyzed by Jaspi (2008), among them, Li (2006) and Lee (2001) believes that the dimensions of knowledge dealing with wisdom are less concerned with performance and effectiveness. Although, in the end, they can result in improved performance and effectiveness, based on the experience of authors in various firms, namely general contractors and project based firms, knowledge management is commensurate with management technology and is directly tied to the necessary cost of controlling a risk department. These approaches can be categorized as follows (Khan, 2001; Gelbard, 2002; Zaghloul, 2003; Frimbong 2003):

1. Categorization based on the structure of experience
2. Categorization based on data
3. Categorization based on structure
4. Categorization based on object-oriented systems analysis

Depending on its location, knowledge can be either explicit (formal) or implicit (informal) (Fathian, 2005). Outputs of personnel in the form reports, papers, projects, plans, and memos are considered as formal organisational knowledge. Nonaka, along with Hall and Andriani, maintain that explicit knowledge is codified and easily broadcast, processed, transmitted, and finally stored in databases. Another type of knowledge is the kind that facilitates the creation of formal knowledge and forms its basis. This type of knowledge emerges in the form of ideas, facts, premises, understandings, questions, decisions, hypotheses, conjectures, stories, and viewpoints (Gonklin, 2001). Tacit knowledge is individual and its formulation is challenging. This type of knowledge is acquired through experience-based imitation and observation. It is thus rooted in actions, procedures, commitments, values, and emotions. Tacit knowledge is not codified and is not transmitted through a common language. Tacit knowledge cannot be transferred or sold independently in the market.

Tacit knowledge resides in the minds of individuals. Information technology cannot register or store the semantic maps of individuals unless the mind of a person could be seen and its activities could be directly registered in a database. As such it is unfathomable for an individual to recover the experience of another person. Lang (2001), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) believe: The advantages that many organisations overlook consist of insights, intuitions, conjectures, unconscious emotions, values, imaginations, metaphors, and comparisons. Benefitting from these tacit advantages can boost the operational value of firms.

## 2.8 Career Development and Knowledge Sharing

Organisations need to realise that positive career development for their workforce is a way of helping to attract and retain the best people: by recognising and responding to the needs of individual employees they will get the best out of them. More effective guidance will assist the development of a knowledge economy and benefit individuals, employers and society at large. It will, however, require a cultural shift in management behaviour in organisations towards self-management (Hackman, 1986). Understanding how to motivate employees, and knowledge workers in particular, is likely to be a critical factor for organisational success. Paying attention to the career development of individuals will be vital not only for skill development but also to help motivate superior performance at work by giving people a clearer sense of direction and purpose. This will mean that career professionals will need to think in new ways about how they:

- (a) organise and provide career support;
- (b) work effectively with partners from other professional groups;
- (c) use informal career support mechanisms;
- (d) equip managers and others to give career support more effectively.

### The importance of career and career development

Career development has strong implications for individuals, employers and governments.

#### Individuals

Changes in the way work is structured and organised, together with the growth of the knowledge-based economy, will require a reconceptualisation of what a career means to people (Arnold and Jackson, 1997). For much of the 20th century, the term 'career' was used primarily to describe the occupational choice and work history of managers and professionals. It was often linked to ideas of progression up an organisational hierarchy. While many people continue to pursue this kind of organisational career, many others will be leading very different working lives. In the future it will be important to develop a more inclusive model that supports the learning and development of all those participating in the EU economy of the 21st century.

'Career' is a multifaceted concept. It can be about meaning, sense of purpose and direction. It also includes ideas of progression and development both at work and at a personal level. In this way, it embraces ideas about lifelong learning as well as skill development. It is also concerned with people's futures – the skills they want to develop, what they want to achieve at work and as a person – as well as their future employability in a rapidly changing labour market. New career concepts, such as the portfolio career (Handy, 1989) – when someone has more than one job (paid or unpaid) – and the boundary-less career (Arthur, 1994) – pursuing a career across traditional boundaries, such as across organisations (i.e. not within a single organisation), or across functional or job boundaries – recognise that career has a subjective component: the sense that people make of their own career, their personal histories, and the skills, attitudes and beliefs that they have acquired. These concepts are also in part a response to, and recognition of, the fact that professionals and specialists – knowledge workers – may pursue their careers somewhat differently from other groups and are often more loyal to their professional community than to their current employer. For example, they may be more motivated by the intrinsic interest and challenge of their work, and may be more prepared to change employer for professional development. However, these changes apply equally to people who are not knowledge workers. The new, more inclusive, model of a career 'recognises both the changed objective realities in which (all) careers are being developed and also the universality of people's intense involvement with the subjective aspects of their career' (Arnold and Jackson, 1997).

#### Employers

Effective career development support is important not only for individuals but also for the organisations that employ them. For both of them it is part of a strategy of achieving resilience to handle change more effectively. The business argument, as Hirsh and Jackson (2004) point out, is that careers are also:

- (a) How higher-level and business-specific skills and knowledge are acquired, through employees undertaking a sequence of work experiences which progressively improve those skills. Key writers on careers in organisations see careers and learning as inextricably linked (Schein, 1978; Hall, 1976);
- (b) How skills and knowledge are deployed and spread within organisations by employees moving from one job to another, in response to where they are needed. Such deployment and knowledge-sharing is critical to organisational flexibility;

(c) Career movement is how culture and values – the ‘glue’ of the organisation – are transmitted, and how personal networks are extended and strengthened. Corporate culture and networks are often key to rapid and effective action;

(d) Career development is a major tool for attracting, motivating and retaining good quality employees. Purcell *et al.* (2003) found that providing career opportunities is one of 11 key practices which influence organisational performance.

Career skills are important for both employees and employers, along with the career education to acquire those skills (Tamkin and Hillage, 1999). Employees need career management skills to navigate the labour market. Employers who have more skilful employees can expect them to navigate their internal labour markets more effectively and for these employees to be more aware of the need to keep their skills relevant.

### **Governments**

There is also an important role for governments in facilitating career development, not only to support the development of a knowledge economy but also to avoid the consequences of some people being excluded from having careers in any meaningful sense. Recognising that everyone potentially has a career and that, as a consequence, everyone has career development needs, means that attention must be paid to how career development is best supported. The communiqué from the Third international symposium on career development and public policy held in Sydney in April 2006 identified that career development supports workforce development in three ways:

- (a) workforce preparation: how the career development of young people is supported prior to their entry into the labour market;
- (b) workforce adaptability and sustainability: how career development support is provided to employed workers;
- (c) workforce reintegration: how career development support is provided to adults as they move in and out of the labour market and between employers.

The communiqué from the symposium noted that ‘In many developed countries, a major current deficiency is adequate career development support for existing workers. There is an important role for public policy in encouraging and supporting employers in providing career development services for their employees and assuring access to career development services in the wider community’. Understanding the role of public policy in providing career guidance to support existing workers requires a good appreciation of how employers provide career development support, who the main players are in the provision of career development support, recent developments in the delivery of career support, the changing pattern of employment opportunities and the increasingly specialised labour markets in which many careers are being pursued.

## **3.0 Research Methodology**

This section presents the method of used in carrying out the study, it involve selection of study population and sampling method, source and method of data collection as well as validity and reliability of instrument used. The paper adopted survey design, which consists of the technique of gathering data using direct observation draw a valid conclusion from analysed data.

### **3.1 Population of the study**

The term population refers to the total number of people that are under the geographical focus of a researcher. The study population comprise of Library and knowledge management staff of higher institutions located in Lagos State which are University of Lagos, Akoka, Lagos State university, Ojo, Caleb University, Imota and Pan African university, Ajah all in Lagos State. The total population comprises two hundred and fifty (282) respondents; this included both male and female staff in different cadre. Total enumeration method was adopted in other to enable every administrative staff of Library and knowledge Management of the four institutions to have chance of being selected to ensuring accurate predictions. Purposeful Selection method was adopted in sample selection from the population of study making use of structured questionnaire as the main instrument of data collection instrument The questionnaire consist of two sections, section 1 gathered data on demographic variables of the respondent, section 2 measured various responds to issues of communication climate and knowledge management readiness in Universities in Lagos State while section 3 contain items relating to organisational management support and knowledge management readiness in Universities in Lagos State.

To ensure the validity of the instruments, experts were consulted in various field of knowledge management and pilot study was conducted to determine the authenticity of the instrument in order to know if the instrument will measure what it should measure before it can be administered.

Test re-test method was also applied the second week by re-administering the questionnaire the second time to determine the reliability of the instrument using Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient which was obtained at 0.90. Data obtained was analysed using basic statistical tools Frequency distribution, charts and percentages were used to determine the outcome of the final analysis.

#### 4.0 Presentation of Results, Interpretation and Discussion of Findings

Analyses of data collected were carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, 20.0). Frequency distribution as well as percentage distribution was derived from the output of the statistical analysis. These results were interpreted and used for the presentation of finding. The result is presented below:

#### 4.1 Content analysis

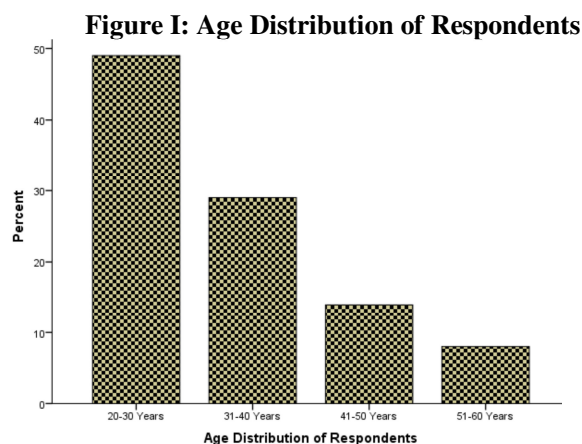
##### Demographic Information

**Table 4.1: showing the Frequency Distribution by Gender**

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	148	59.2%
Female	102	40.8%
Total	250	100.0%

Source: Field Study, 2017.

From the above table, the gender distribution of the respondents shows that of 250 respondents, 148 (59.2%) are male and the remaining 102(40.8%) are females. The result shows that the male staff are more that female staff I the department.



The bar chart above shows the age distribution of respondents according to age. It shows that majority pf the respondents are in the age bracket between 20-30 years with 112 respondents (44.8%), between 31-40years years are 72 respondents (28.8%), between 41-50 years care 46 respondents (18.4%) and the last group are between 51 years and above constitute a total of 20 respondents (8.0%). This is results is in line with National Population Commission Census Report of 2006, where active population is put at age bracket of 20 to 40 years old.

**Figure II: Distribution of Respondents according to Marital status**

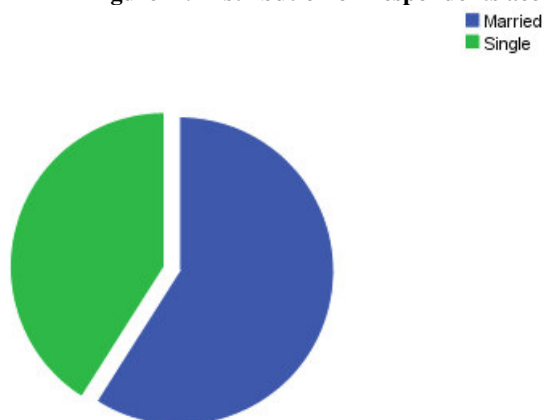


Figure II, shows the frequency distribution of respondents according to marital status, majority are respondents who are married which are 148 respondents (59.2%), while single constitute a total of 102 respondents (40.8%).

**Figure III: Distribution of Respondents according to Educational Qualification**

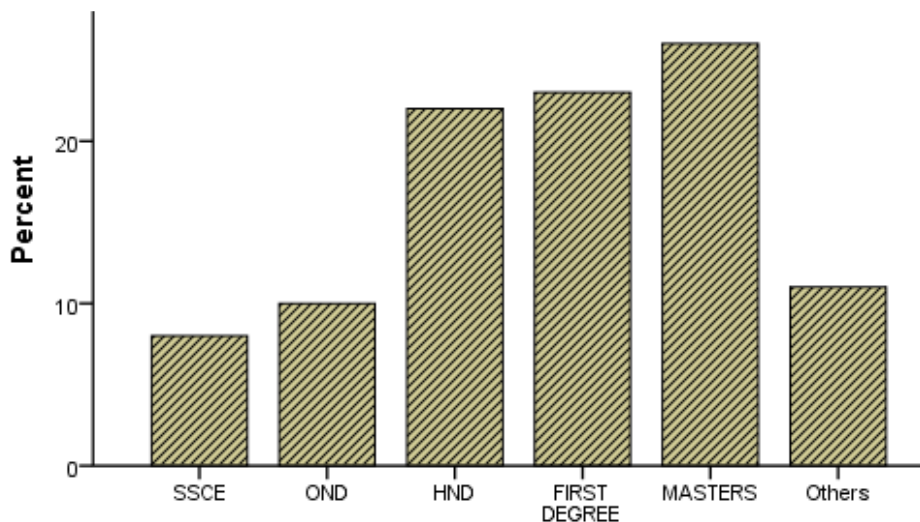
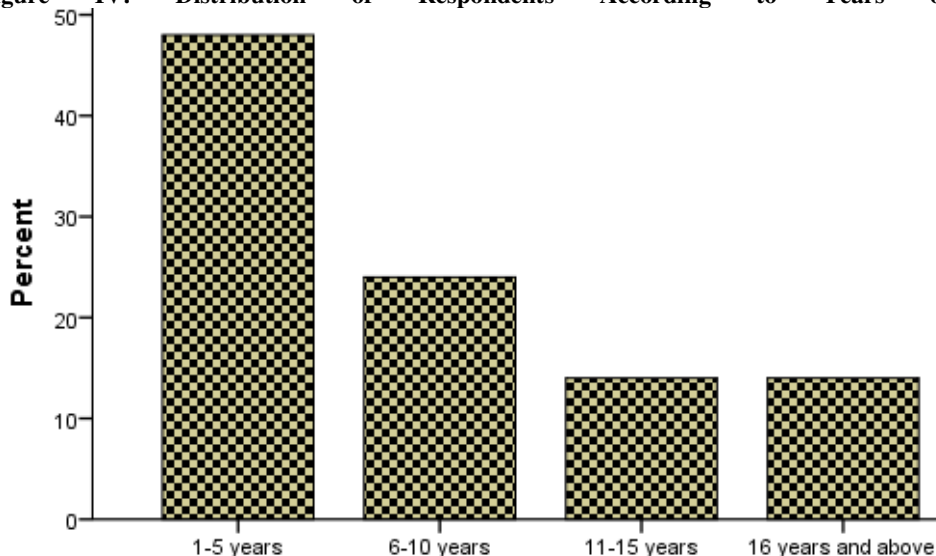


Figure III above shows the frequency distribution of respondents' educational qualification, majority of the respondents has Masters Degree with 64 (25.6%), those with SSCE constitute a total of 21 (8.4%) respondents, OND 25(10.0%), HND 55(22.0%), First Degree 58(23.2%), while those who obtained other qualification constitute a total of 27(10.8%). However, the result shows that those respondents who obtain masters degree constitute the highest in the study population.

**Figure IV: Distribution of Respondents According to Years of Experience**



From Figure IV above, the result of the analyses shows the frequency distribution of respondents according to years of experience. Respondents who have between 1-5 years are 119 (47.6%) Respondents, 6-10 years constitute a total of 63(25.2%) Respondents, 11-15 years constitute a total of 34 (13.6%) Respondents, while those between 25 years and above constitute a total of 34 (13.6%) Respondents. However, the result shows that those respondents whose job tenure falls between 1-5 years constitute the highest in the study population.

**Analyses of Data**

**RQ 1: Communication Climate among administrative staff of Universities in Lagos state**

Analyses and ranking of the communication climate among administrative staff of Universities in Lagos state show that performance would improve if they receive more information about what is going on around them (with Mean =3.15) was ranked highest with 102 respondents which is about 40.8% followed by Respondents are

thoroughly satisfied with the information received about what is going on at in their institution (with Mean =2.92), There are free flow of information in my institution (Mean =2.81), There is a high-level of face to face interactions among colleagues in their institution (Mean =2.80),

### **RQ 2: Organisational management among administrative staff of Universities in Lagos state**

The results of the analyses of the ranking of the organisational management among administrative staff of Universities in Lagos state using items in the section C of the questionnaire. The analyses show that transfer of knowledge is encouraged in my institution (with Mean =2.97) was ranked highest with 78 respondents strongly agreed followed by The top decision makers in my institution have put all their supports behind knowledge sharing efforts (Mean =2.92), Every senior officers has stressed the importance of knowledge management (Mean =2.88), My institution takes pride in my accomplishments (Mean =2.86), My institution encourages me to put in my possible best (Mean =2.84), The top decision makers in my institution have realized that knowledge sharing is beneficial to my institution (Mean =2.84), The management of my institution has sent a clear signal that the institution is going to make changes that will improve knowledge management (Mean =2.83), My institution is willing to extent itself in order to the best of my ability (Mean =2.78), My institution care about my general satisfaction at work (Mean =2.78), The top management of my institution have shown their total support for knowledge creation (Mean =2.76), My institution shows very little concern for me (Mean =2.72), My institution really cares about my well being (Mean =2.72), The management in my institution have encouraged all of us to embrace changes that will improve knowledge sharing (Mean =2.72), I am always encouraged to share my knowledge by my institution (Mean =2.71), I think we are spending a lot of time on when the top management does not want it implemented (Mean =2.63), Even if I did the best job possible, my institution would fail to notice me (Mean =2.61), I am appreciated anytime I put in my possible best efforts on my job (Mean =2.59), The management of my institution is not interested in funding knowledge management (Mean =2.52), The top management of my institution is not interested in changes that will enhance knowledge sharing (Mean =2.49) and lastly by The management of my institution is against knowledge transfer (Mean =2.32) respectively.

### **4.3 Discussion of findings**

This study was carried out to examine factors affecting knowledge management readiness among administrative staff of University of Lagos, Lagos state, Nigeria. Two hundred and fifty administrative staff of the institution was surveyed. In the course of the study, quite a number of issues necessary for knowledge management readiness were discussed and the findings were presented thus;

- ❖ In this study, most of the respondents are male 148 (59.2%) while female are 102 (40.8%). This indicated that the male respondents constitute the highest in the study population. Holt (2000) describes readiness for change as “a comprehensive approach that is simultaneously raised by content (what is changing), process (how change comes into force), context (the conditions under which change has occurred) and individuals (whom their features is being asked to change)”. Given that it is people who implement organisation change strategies, the KM readiness is a paradigm that needs to be evaluated at individual level. Eby *et al.* (2000) argue that the perception of organisation’s readiness for change is based on a unique interpretation of organisational context by employees and generally evolves over time. They further emphasize that management interventions (i.e. communications, participation and active support) can help shaping those perceptions.
- ❖ It was also discovered that when organisation is ready for knowledge management readiness, individuals, contents, contexts and process variables can explain variances in commitment and pessimism toward knowledge management. It specifically assesses the effects of critical success factors, including positive and negative effects, innovativeness, perceived organisational support, communication climate, appropriateness, personal valence, management support, participation and quality of information on the affective, continuous and normative commitment and pessimism for determining the extent that an organisation is ready to embrace knowledge management initiatives. It is argued that to understand people's work related attitudes fully, one must go beyond the concept of job satisfaction, also consider people's feelings toward their organisations. Such attitudes referred to as organisational commitment, reflects the extent to which people identify with and are involved with their organisations. Whether employees are motivated by self-interest or goal congruence, they display different behaviours toward work, colleagues and management wants, including change.

- ❖ In this study, it was found that critical success factors of knowledge management readiness which are human resource management, information technology, leadership, organisational learning, organisational strategy, organisational structure and organisational culture. These factors are an important for successful knowledge management readiness to create, support and enhance innovation. In this regard, Gloet and Terziovski (2004) supported this findings, he said that the success of innovation performance, which includes new process, product and service, depends highly on the integration of knowledge management readiness processes with soft human resource management (HRM) activities and hard information technology activities. The results show that there is a positive relation between knowledge management readiness processes-based on information technology (IT) and HRM with innovation. In similarly, Chen and Huang (2009) concluded that the HRM practices have indirect effect on innovation performance through knowledge management readiness capacity. They found the HRM practices, which includes performance appraisal, compensation, staffing, participation and training have a positive effect on the knowledge management readiness capacity. Subsequently, there is a positive relation between acquisition, sharing and application, which considered knowledge management readiness capacity with innovation performance, which consist of administrative and technical innovation. Therefore it shows that there is significant relationship between communication climate and knowledge management readiness in Universities in Lagos State.
- ❖ Thus, the assessment of readiness for KM requires attention to two essential aspects of the change process; first the extent of existing abilities and capabilities of organisation KM prowess, and the other is the changes that have to occur before the KM initiative begins. This assessment enables organisational leaders to recognize potential gaps between their expectations, and the perception of change agents and members toward change. Therefore it shows that there significant relationship between organisational management support and knowledge management readiness in Universities in Lagos State.

#### **Section V: Conclusions and Recommendations**

Sharing one's individual knowledge is not simply carried out (Davenport & Prusak, 1988), because people are not likely to share their knowledge unless they think it is valuable and important. The biggest challenge organisations face in knowledge management is that of 'changing people's behaviour'. It is then concluded that knowledge sharing is a human activity and that understanding the humans who will do it is the first step to the success of such systems. In general, there are several contextual factors that affect the success of knowledge sharing systems or knowledge sharing behaviour, such as attention to the team structure and workflow issues, collaboration practices, and the nature of documents being shared. Also, task structure and leadership style have been considered as contextual factors facilitating knowledge workers' and their career management.

In conclusion, organisations must continually seek ways to keep their employees and work groups engaged in their work, motivated, efficient and productive. An organisation's success can depend on its ability to create the conditions and systems (formal and informal) that entice the best people to work there. Also, a good incentive system encourages employees to be productive and creative, fosters loyalty among those who are most productive, and stimulates innovation. Incentive systems reside within organisations, their structure, rules, human resource management, opportunities, internal benefits, rewards and sanctions, etc. Based on perception or reality, organisational incentive systems do have a significant influence on the performance of individuals and thus the organisation overall. Therefore this section presents the conclusions drawn from the research and recommendations.

#### **Recommendation**

These recommendations are made from this paper;

- ❖ Efforts to promote performance improvement beyond pay should begin by analysing the spectrum of non-material incentives that can help or hinder individual and organisational performance. In the context of performance management, appropriate ways to inculcate administrative behaviour that embraces a culture of openness, result-orientation and accountability to the public need to be identified.
- ❖ Knowledge management readiness can be seen as a cultural issue; it then implies that administrative staff in the universities have to see themselves as belonging to the same team and not just an individual member of their organisation before effective knowledge management readiness can take place.



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