Eliciting tacit knowledge. How a multidimensional organisational configuration affects the flow of knowledge: A case study of the United Nations Police

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Abstract

This thesis explores how knowledge flows are affected by a multidimensional organisational configuration, giving a specific focus to relations between tacit knowledge and organisational forms. The rationale for this focus is that what is left implicit or taken for granted is likely to vary both across parts of the organisation and the hierarchy. The aim is to offer insight into what creates the conditions that either prevent knowledge from being made explicit or that limit its transfer.

The literature review covers a number of lines of argument about types of knowledge and strategies for their collection, including an emphasis on organisational learning. While the works that specifically address tacit knowledge disagree as to both its nature and the potential to make it explicit, a central tenet that has emerged from the more business-oriented literature is how tacit knowledge is a pivotal driver in influencing what kind of information fails to get reported and distributed.

The research method adopted to examine these matters is a case study approach, with the research setting being the UN Police deployed in multidimensional peacekeeping missions. In addition to being informed by interpretive approaches, the methodology involved ideas of action research. Both quantitative and qualitative empirical methods were deployed to examine: how organisational design and knowledge management strategies influence the elicitation or retention of tacit knowledge; and how tacit knowledge interacts with major subsystems, thereby shaping knowledge flow.

The findings suggest some limited processes and mechanisms that might assist in eliciting tacit knowledge. In rendering more visible the community of practices and related social networks through which tacit knowledge might be made explicit enough to enhance its flow across organisational dimensions, this study fosters a better understanding of the part practitioners play in harmonising the concept of knowledge with what is taken for granted as 'know-how'.

Acknowledgements

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

List of Abbreviations

CIVPOL	Civilian Police Officer
DPKO	Department of Peacekeeping Operations
MINUSCA	United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilisation Mission in the Central African Republic
MINUSMA	United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilisation Mission in Mali
MINUSTAH	United Nations Stabilisation Mission in Haiti
MONUSCO	United Nations Organisation Stabilisation Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo
PD	Police Division
UN	United Nations
UNAMID	United Nations Mission in Darfur
UNFICYP	United Nations Peacekeeping Force in Cyprus
UNISFA	United Nations Interim Security Force for Abyei
UNMISS	United Nations Mission in the Republic of South Sudan
UNPOL	UN Police Officer
UNMIK	United Nations Mission in Kosovo
UNMIL	United Nations Mission in Liberia

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.0 Overview

This thesis explores how knowledge flows are affected by a multidimensional organisational configuration, giving a specific focus to relations between tacit knowledge and organisational forms. One recently developed organisational form, which is of growing importance in the twenty-first century, is the multidimensional organisation (Galbraith, 2010, p.1). While the multidimensional organisational configuration has brought with it standardised systems that play an important role in maintaining the management of multidimensional operations, this is not enough to ensure its vitality. In order to prevail, the individual groupings within these organisations must be accountable for both knowledge transfer and the development of personnel.

Organisations, groups and individuals are dependent on the robust collection and sharing of knowledge for their sustainability, and the knowledge possessed by a group or organisation is affected by the knowledge of the individuals within that entity (Avasthi et al., 2015, p.96). This research explores the various alternatives for the elicitation of tacit knowledge from subject matter experts and aims to determine the ways in which these might benefit an organisation that operates in a multidimensional configuration. As peacekeeping has developed, especially during the last 30 years, a burgeoning proportion of United Nations (UN) peacekeeping operations have developed into multidimensional operations comprising a variety of components, including those for the civilian, police and military. (UN DPKO, 2003). A civilian police division within the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO) deploys experts to manage the UN Police mandates, which, over time, have become more multidimensional (UN, 2016). The UN Police is particularly suitable and appropriate for research of this nature because the kind of knowledge acquired by the participants in its distinct operations around the world is expected to be a hybrid of parts that can be made explicit, while other kinds of knowledge are presumably left tacit. Furthermore, the working environment relates to the central research question of the elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with a multidimensional organisational configuration (i.e. civilian, police and military dimensions). The primary objective of this research is to extend beyond its current state the understanding of the relationship between a multidimensional working environment

and tacit knowledge. With regard to the UN Police, which is the empirical context for this research, the aim is to improve the collective intellectual capability of the organisation under examination.

1.1   Background on tacit knowledge

Knowledge management systems have, to date, focused on capturing explicit knowledge by active use of information technology. The question this thesis examines is whether all of this knowledge that is left tacit eludes easy elicitation in existing arrangements for knowledge management systems. While there has been a growing interest in the topic of tacit knowledge since Polanyi (1962, 1967b) published his ground-breaking work, Whyte and Classen (2012) emphasise that research gaps remain. The research in this thesis highlights the extent to which an individual acquires and develops tacit knowledge, and the rationale for this focus is that what is left implicit or taken for granted is likely to vary both across parts of the organisation and across the organisational hierarchy. The aim is to offer insight into what creates the conditions that either prevent knowledge from being made explicit or limit its transfer.

1.2   The social construct of tacit knowledge as a strategic resource

Scholars have recognised the importance of knowledge as a strategic resource in terms of assessing a firm's competitiveness (e.g. Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Nonaka, Toyama, and Nagata, 2000). During the process of daily management and production activities, tacit knowledge is continuously constructed and generated from the experience and perception of individuals, and is thus self-internalised (Wang et al., 2017, p.291). For almost all scholars, the management of tacit knowledge calls for greater comprehension of the social processes (e.g. formation of groups and clusters sharing the same views and leadership) that circumscribe its development. These include the interactions among social actors in the knowledge transfer process—these cannot be underestimated, as they can function as both enablers and barriers.

Knowledge as a resource requires that one individual's ability to gain new knowledge is ultimately tied to another individual's inclination and potential to share that knowledge. These social perspectives are 'pathways' for knowledge to go through different working environments and, as Becker-Ritterspach (2006, p.360) has emphasised, more focus needs to be directed to the receiving contexts when knowledge is conveyed and integrated

into another social environment. Social interactions are ways of sharing knowledge and, more importantly, are the context for the social production of new knowledge. Plaskoff (2003, p.1) emphasised that knowledge is socially constructed by means of collaborative endeavours with a shared intention, involving the logical discussion of ideas and opinions through dialogue. In other words, the social aspects serve as important social cues that guide individual or group members to understand the working environment and provide support and encouragement for knowledge creation and sharing. Furthermore, Von Krogh and colleagues (2013) itemised knowledge management theory based on Nonaka's work, concluding that after decades of conceptual and experimental work, many scholars and managers have come to recognise genuine leadership as essential for unleashing both individual and organisational potential for generating knowledge. Moreover, Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) have stated that leadership behaviour is a factor that affects the direction and effectiveness of knowledge management within organisations.

To emphasise further the social process in the context of this research, 'ethos' indicates the character or underlying values that can incite or hinder knowledge creation and transfer. To clarify ethos further in terms of its ascendancy over how people are 'brought up' in institutions, Munro (2016, p.433) suggested that "in terms of joining up with other persons, ethos is imagined as being forged through building up from what is called 'relationships'." As a key way of imagining a group, ethos is an affective state that can describe how a set of persons interact together—perhaps figuring themselves solely as individuals even over a prolonged period of time—but more traditionally implies the sedimented arrangements and routines for going on in the world (Giddens, 1984) and which are knowingly, if tacitly, understood by 'members' of the group (Garfinkel, 1967). As detailed in Chapter 2 other literatures link such social processes to organisational learning and knowledge management practices. For the purposes of this research on multi-dimensional organisation, I take social processes to include the social interactions between members of different organisational units that facilitate the interaction of one cultural group with another's ethos or organisational structure.

Transferring, sharing and obtaining knowledge across organisational boundaries is a practice that takes place through a heterogeneity of communication modes (Argote and Ingram, 2000; Argote, McEvily, and Reagans, 2003). This research focuses on the social processes involved in a commitment to co-constructing knowledge in the context of

knowledge management. This praxis demands, as discussed later, a focus on the interplay between tacit and explicit knowledge, this interplay being of fundamental significance to knowledge management.

1.3   The scope of the dissertation

While the works that specifically address tacit knowledge disagree as to both its nature and the potential to make it explicit, a central tenet that has emerged from the more business-oriented literature is how tacit knowledge is a pivotal driver in influencing what kind of information fails to get reported and distributed. The academic dilemma addressed in this study stems primarily from a need to examine distinct ways of collecting and transferring knowledge. The aim of this thesis is thus to scope the extent to which eliciting tacit knowledge benefits an organisation that operates in a multidimensional configuration, and to determine the impact of such an organisational configuration on the flow of knowledge. Using the UN Police as the empirical context, the objectives of this study are to:

- Examine and, where appropriate, refine existing conceptions and methodologies that elicit tacit knowledge.
- Convey the prevailing thinking on the relationship between the mobilisation of knowledge and the role of tacit knowledge in solving problems.
- Explore the common connections and associations between tacit knowledge and decision-making in a multidimensional organisational configuration.
- Consider the attitude of top management towards mobilising tacit knowledge correlated with a multidimensional organisational configuration.

In addition to being informed by interpretive approaches, the methodology involved ideas of action research. The research adopted to examine these matters is a case study approach, with the research setting being the UN Police deployed in multidimensional peacekeeping missions. This method has been considered most suitable as the focus is on a single organisation (single division/multi-operational sites), in what Stake (2000, p.436) termed "a specific, unique bounded system". Both quantitative and qualitative empirical methods were deployed to examine: 1) how organisational design and knowledge management strategies influence the elicitation or retention of tacit knowledge; and 2) how tacit knowledge interacts with major subsystems, thereby shaping knowledge flow.

The methodology incorporates questionnaires and interviews to evaluate individuals' and organisations' perceptions of the UN Police operations within multidimensional working contexts through exchanges of knowledge. Selected senior managers and experts are considered subject matter experts because of their experience and knowledge, in addition to their strategic, operational and tactical responsibilities. The cross-questioning of these research participants sought to reveal their personal experiences, observations and stories, as well as seeking to foster the construction of a valid comprehension of the situation being observed.

1.4   The structure of the dissertation

Chapter Two reviews the literature that has a direct application to the research problem: organisations must be able to locate, store, share and benefit not only from data and information, but also from knowledge more generally. This chapter incorporates themes that are consistent with many if not most definitions of knowledge management, involving the depiction of a framework that originates from experience and generates new processes and mechanisms for exchanging and developing knowledge. It encompasses expertise and related tacit elements of the organisation that are often noticed but not taken into account.

This chapter also discusses the tacit knowledge originating from subject matter experts and describes the effect of the organisational environment upon tacit knowledge elicitation. These elements are relevant to the determination of the approach, including personalisation or a codification-type design, which is considered in the literature review. Furthermore, the influence of cultural diversity and the notion of ethos are referenced in terms of denoting their significant influences on the promotion of an effective knowledge management strategy and in considering the difference in what is tacit for an individual and what is tacit in terms of group understanding.

Chapter Three introduces the empirical context at the centre of this study by taking into consideration the work-related knowledge of the UN Police. The chapter presents the main features of the empirical context for this research. By using the UN Police as a case study—indeed, the knowledge gained by the participants in this particular organisation is expected to be an amalgamation of elements that can be made explicit, along with others that are presumably tacit—the research addresses the central research question of the

elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with a multidimensional organisational configuration.

Chapter Four outlines the research design by considering specifically the tacit knowledge (e.g. mental actions, the process of acquiring knowledge and its socio-technical elements) that springs from a multidimensional organisational configuration. The design and methods used, as well as the research methodology, were a preliminary self-administered questionnaire followed by a semi-structured interview that focused on the storytelling of the participants. Storytelling is a recognised and valuable method of capturing multiple elements of knowledge (Ruggles, 2002, p.2). Stories often bring in detail or aspects of conduct that would be eliminated in report form and, for this reason, can 1) be indicative of elements of context and 2) can also suggest ideas or understanding, which are relevant to work but that normally remain implicit or taken for granted. As such, careful interpretation and analysis of stories can help generate insight into some forms of embedded tacit knowledge (Bhardwaj and Monin, 2006; Snowden, 2002; Whyte and Classen, 2012).

While Chapter Five presents the analysis of the questionnaires, Chapter Six covers the analysis of the interviews conducted with the subject matter experts invited from the empirical context used for this research. Furthermore, it presents the adjustments made for each step of the data collection to inform the next step and to allow for constant adjustment of the research plan.

Chapter Seven offers a discussion of the results presented in the preceding chapter, followed by the contribution of the findings to the understanding of the connection between a multidimensional organisational configuration and the elicitation of tacit knowledge within the empirical context of the UN Police.

Chapter Eight provides concluding remarks on the need to advance and refine research on the elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with an organisational environment. It also acknowledges the limitations of the study and proposes directions for potential future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.0 Overview

The literature review covers a number of lines of argument about types of knowledge and strategies for their collection, including an emphasis on organisational learning. It examines a broad spectrum of contemporary debates and themes in the research on tacit knowledge. In accordance with the aim and objectives of the research, I thought it necessary not only to attend to the literature more directly concerned with tacit knowledge, but also to delve into overlapping concerns, including considerations of culture and assumptions about organisational knowledge. The influence of organisational design and policies for eliciting knowledge as a strategic resource are also discussed. In raising these themes, this literature review links the research questions back to the theoretical frameworks in which they were formed.

The central research question in this literature review concerns the elicitation of tacit knowledge. To avoid appearing not to acknowledge the irony of such a quest, let me state at the outset that I am interested in the extent to which: 1) matters that are taken for granted by different operatives on the ground could or should be made more explicit in the context of the cultural diversities that inhabit the multidimensional organisation; and 2) reflective practices as enumerated in the literature on knowledge and its management can aid better decision-making, improve focus and perhaps unleash greater coordination and productivity of effort. These objectives incorporate very different goals, the former being partly descriptive and partly normative, while the latter raises issues of management that also attract critical as well as analytical attention.

In this way, I present an overview that integrates two contrasting views on knowledge and how to manage it. Within this literature review, I outline how knowledge may be viewed in terms of an elementary distinction between tacit and explicit. With each view comes its own set of implications about the nature, scope, and source of knowledge. Subsequently, I focus on each view and its distinct implications for those who wish to manage knowledge, tacit or otherwise, in organisations. I argue that to understand how organisations manage knowledge in general, it is important to understand that these disparate views on knowledge are interrelated. Thus, the key areas that I review in this chapter are: 1) knowledge in its tacit and explicit forms; and 2) knowledge management.

It is important to acknowledge how these areas interact and overlap in terms of organisational context and structure. There is much overlap between the capturing of knowledge as a strategic resource, with all its processes and mechanisms, and the institutions and traits associated with organisational culture.

In defining tacit knowledge, Eraut wrote, "The knowledge gained is constructed in a social context where [its] influence on what is learned, as well as how it is learned, cannot be denied" (2000, p.131). That is, tacit knowledge and sharing behaviour intricately correlate with the characteristics of members of the organisation, including employees, executives, and managers (Suppiah and Sandhu, 2011). Accordingly, tacit knowledge necessitates an understanding of the social processes that are involved in its development. In the last part, I examine the unspoken understandings or interpretations made through different cultural lenses.

The literature is examined with a view to explaining the actions, structures, and patterns that will manifest in the analysis section. Through such an examination, this literature review therefore sets out specific attributes of tacit knowledge to explore more complex ways in which tacit knowledge could be elicited within a multidimensional organisational configuration.

2.1   Seeing knowledge from different points of view

Despite their best efforts, scholars and practitioners have failed to agree on a definition of knowledge. Therefore, before exploring the evolution of tacit and explicit knowledge and what it means to manage knowledge, it might be worthwhile to reflect on the notion of knowledge itself. There are different positions on knowledge. The empiricist view inherently reflects 'objective truths', while at other times, a far more relativist position prevails, in which knowledge is understood to be socially contingent, context-dependent, and value-laden. One of the most influential scholars on knowledge theory, Karl Popper, has inspired a generation of philosophers. Among his many contributions to philosophy, Popper (1979) asserts that thinking of knowledge as justified true belief is erroneous, as nothing can be justified or known fully. Nevertheless, much of the academic discourse on knowledge is monopolised by positivist epistemology with the natural science definition of knowledge as 'true, justified belief', where justification is reached through scientific procedures. Popper maintained that scientific principles and human knowledge

as a whole are theory-based, and are thus driven by the ingenuity to adjudicate quandaries that have arisen in relation to attested social contexts. Hence, Popper's principal argument in *Objective Knowledge* (1979) focuses on discerning science as attempting to move closer to the truth, not to realise it. As stated by Popper (1989), knowledge, particularly scientific knowledge, progresses through unjustified extrapolations and provisional answers to a specific dilemma, which is restricted by refutation or attempts to disprove. Although it is possible that these inferences hold out against the critical approach and become received wisdom, they have no possibility of being positively justified and thus remain subject to confirmation.

In many philosophical discourses, different points of view on knowledge have emerged. Nonaka (1994), for example, holds onto the pragmatic idea that knowledge as "justified true belief" (p.15) improves an entity's capacity for beneficial actions. Davenport and Prusak (1998) specified that knowledge is neither data nor information, although it is related to both, and the difference between the two is frequently a matter of degree. Fahey and Prusak (1998) also state that knowledge is about imbuing data and information with decision- and action-relevant meaning. Cook and Brown (1999) insist on theoretically and practically considering variations among the distinct forms of knowledge. Furthermore, knowledge can be obtained from information, just as information is extracted from data (Roberts, 2000).

Whereas knowledge emerges more generally as neither completely subjective nor fully objective, tacit and explicit knowledge can still correlate where they do not clash; both are seen as indispensable to the performance of individuals and organisations. Significantly, Eraut (2004, p.235) noted that tacit knowledge does not occur only in the implicit acquisition of knowledge, but also in the implicit processing of knowledge.

Knowledge—and how to manage knowledge—is a field of study that has been extensively explored. Most definitions and explanations of knowledge incorporate similar terms or concepts, with many definitions or explanations of knowledge assuming that the words or concepts are alike. In writing about tacit knowledge, I am addressing a difficult question with the quandary of attributing an appropriate meaning to knowledge for this research. Literary works on the philosophy of knowledge remain at the centre of several debates among philosophers, social theorists, and others. As there are many

contrasting perspectives on knowledge, it is now critical to examine these perspectives with a concentration on knowledge and its management.

2.1.1 An examination of the tacit perspectives on knowledge

To paint the clearest picture of the key debates in the knowledge management literature, I examine two disparate frames of reference (i.e. tacit and explicit) on knowledge and how to manage it. The distinction between tacit and explicit knowledge is one of the most studied in the discipline of knowledge management. Polanyi introduced the term 'tacit knowing' or 'tacit knowledge' to philosophy in his *Personal Knowledge* (1958). Polanyi advanced the idea of tacit knowledge as a contribution to an inquiry into the disposition and exposition of scientific knowledge and, above all, to the disposition of human knowledge. His work directed attention to the distinctions between 'tacit' and 'explicit' knowledge; in this sense, Polanyi initiated the discussion of knowledge classification. Nevertheless, he did not say that knowledge was either tacit or explicit. Instead, he asserted that "while tacit knowledge can be possessed by itself, explicit knowledge relies on being tacitly understood and applied. From this perspective, all knowledge is either tacit or rooted in tacit knowledge. A wholly explicit knowledge is unthinkable" (1969, p.144). The key point here, for me, is the danger of treating tacit knowledge as equivalent to objective information whenever it is made explicit.

Crucially, this would be to overlook Polanyi's point that much tacit knowledge can be *organising* in its nature—and hence exists at a different order than merely factual information. It is in this way that Polanyi's analysis shook the science world—his magnum opus arguing for the tacit, subjective nature of thought. While Polanyi is frequently quoted in the literature on organisational knowledge, due to his seminal work on personal knowledge, formal research on tacit knowledge and its impact has a shorter history than is often assumed. That said, tacit knowledge is a significant phenomenon, and many authors have used the concepts of tacit and explicit knowledge (e.g. Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000).

According to Polanyi (1967), the feature of knowledge as a non-objective abstraction springs from its tacit nature. He contrasted tacit (i.e. practical) knowledge with explicit (i.e. encoded) knowledge. At the same time, he conceded that the division between both types of knowledge is not straightforward, maintaining that all knowledge is an

integration of the explicit and the tacit, and that the two operate in conjunction, giving individuals the means to take action. Polanyi's thesis considers extensively the quality of tacit knowledge as know-how that is possessed by individuals or groups, and whose owners have the faculty to reveal and convey, thus detailing the extent to which such knowledge endures as an abstraction or as tacit knowledge. Polanyi argued that important portions of human knowledge cannot be clearly expressed. In this way, the most recurrent and prominent classifications of knowledge bring into focus the dividing lines between tacit and explicit knowledge, on the one hand, and individual and collective knowledge, on the other. Debates about what these kinds of knowledge are and how they should be managed compete in every part of the knowledge management literature. The centre of the argument devotes itself to whether knowledge should be considered as a distinct entity or as an intrinsic element of a knowing process. That is to say, should tacit and explicit knowledge be regarded as two distinct entities, or as points along the same continuum?

Tsoukas (1996) presented a classification of knowledge to cover how researchers and practitioners had elaborated several categories of knowledge. He then used his taxonomy to examine the procedures and techniques through which specific features of knowledge are unfolded and shared. He is also pre-eminently known for recognising organisations as knowledge and learning systems, for reconsidering organisational phenomena in and out of the perspective of process philosophy, and for considering grounded rationality in organisational settings and as the epistemology of reflective application in management. In Tsoukas's words, "Tacit and explicit knowledge are mutually constituted—they should not be viewed as separate types of knowledge [...] explicit knowledge is always grounded on a tacit component [...] tacit knowledge is the necessary component of all knowledge" (p.14). He is therefore emphasising how explicit knowledge cannot be managed as an entity distinct from tacit knowledge. Tsoukas (2002) added that the interest of some researchers stems mainly from the fixation on knowledge management practitioners' insistence on constructing the tacit component of knowledge as explicit. From his perspective, it is more important to manage tacit knowledge rather than to make it explicit. Furthermore, Tsoukas (2003) posited that "tacit and explicit knowledge are not the two ends of a continuum but the two sides of the same coin" (p.425).

Inasmuch as Tsoukas (2003) claims that 'tacitness' is a quality of all knowledge, and that this can never be made completely explicit, he expands on Polanyi, stating that tacit and

explicit knowledge are both contrived—two elements of knowledge that should not be regarded as two exclusive kinds of knowledge. He considers that both types of knowledge are so closely connected that to even attempt to divide the two is impracticable. Indeed, Tsoukas and Vladimirou (2001, p.991) emphasised that for managing organisational knowledge, it is not sufficient to manage straightforward information. Instead, they stressed considering and strengthening underlying social practices.

To summarise, Polanyi (1967b), Grant (1996), and Tsoukas and Mylonopoulous (2004) all consider explicit knowledge attribution by means of communication support—seeing tacit knowledge as becoming accessible through its utilisation and allowing knowledge to be developed over time amongst individuals with disparate levels of knowledge. Given this perspective, the first frame of reference of knowledge for this research is tacit knowledge, which is difficult to convey in formal language and is rooted in individuals' experiences, perceptions, and values; furthermore, it is context-related (Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Leonard and Sensiper, 1998). This specific knowledge dimension emerges from an individual's interactions and mandates skill and practice. As tacit knowledge is partially if not substantially personal and confined within the bearer, it is applied mostly by an individual in the performance of an activity. As it is difficult to express in words and mainly channelled through action-based skills, tacit knowledge has to be understood as elusive in ways that cannot be reduced to a clear course of action.

2.1.2   An examination of the explicit perspectives on knowledge

Despite the foregoing reservations, knowledge still tends to be defined as either tacit or explicit, partly due to Nonaka's influential work on the dynamic theory of knowledge creation emerging in the early 1990s (Nonaka, 1991, 1994; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). As claimed by Nonaka, tacit and explicit forms of knowledge dwell in any organisation. Tacit knowledge is acknowledged to be elusive, but is seen in this perspective as made up of deeply rooted cognitive models, opinions, and convictions within each individual. Every individual within an organisation is taken to be an important source of tacit knowledge, which is strongly ingrained in the conduct of activities and continuous engagement in "a particular craft or profession, a particular technology, a product market, or the activities of a work group or team" (Nonaka, 1991). For Nonaka (1994), the tacit dimension of knowledge therefore possesses both mental and technical features. Explicit knowledge, by contrast, is whatever can be articulated, codified, and communicated in

symbolic form and/or natural language. As stated by Nonaka (1994), knowledge conversion in large organisations can be understood as mechanisms to generate knowledge inside and outside of sustained exchanges on tacit and explicit knowledge. In his influential papers on the dynamic theory of organisational knowledge creation, Nonaka explained that the theory of organisation had been monopolised by a framework that envisions a versatile organisation as a system conceived for processing information and finding solutions. The purpose of this framework is to process information in stable and deterministic conditions. He contends that, "Any organisation that deals with a changing environment ought not only to process information efficiently, but also create information and knowledge" (Nonaka, 1994, p.14).

The tacit and explicit frames of reference of knowledge attracted renewed attention in Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) *Knowledge-Creating Company*. In this work, they define explicit knowledge as objective and formal. It can be articulated in words and numbers, is unambiguous, and can be shared with clear data or procedures (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). Nonaka and Takeuchi held that explicit or codified knowledge can be shared and transferred without requiring an in-depth understanding; tacit knowledge, by contrast, is subjective, context-specific, individualised, and arduous to pass on. Nonaka and Takeuchi's contributions consider the ways in which tacit knowledge becomes explicit knowledge, supporting its codification and conscious exploitation. In this way, their work correlates to the methods in which learning transfer and related processes can advance by acknowledging the significance of informal learning and knowledge that is not encoded.

Nonaka makes a clear distinction between 'information' and 'knowledge', although other researchers have used the terms interchangeably (1994, p.15). For this reason, the terms 'tacit' and 'explicit' can be equivocal, because they indicate that they are mutually exclusive. However, Polanyi (1967a), along with Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), reflected the contrast between tacit and explicit knowledge by distinguishing implicit knowledge (i.e. practical skills or expertise) from explicit knowledge (i.e. theoretical understanding of a branch of studies). Given this context, this literature review looks into both the implicit and explicit aspects of knowledge. Explicit knowledge arises at the epistemological dimension in which the process of explicating is anticipated by written or coded arrangements (Nonaka, 1994). This kind of knowledge can be codified into formal information that comes in tangible forms (e.g. books, documents, manuals,

guidelines, and policy manuals) to be processed, transmitted, and stored in repository systems. In contrast to the first frame of reference (i.e. tacit knowledge), emphasising knowledge being context-related and highly linked to individuals' experiences and interactions, perceptions, and values, the second frame of reference (i.e. explicit knowledge) for this research is characterised as unambiguous and constitutes knowledge that an individual possesses consciously in a manner that can be transferred.

2.1.3 Integration of different perspectives on knowledge

Throughout this research, I integrate tacit and explicit perspectives as contrasting views on knowledge related to organisations and make reference to them as 'paradigms' which divide discussions, arguments, and ideas into two distinct points of view. However, as already indicated, the literature on knowledge does not always allow for such a clear differentiation. My endeavour is to address the contrasting views in the literature on knowledge and how to manage knowledge by using these two paradigms later in this chapter, attributing an appropriate meaning to knowledge for this research:

➢ Paradigm 1: This refers largely to the first frame of reference (i.e. tacit knowledge), where knowledge creation is seen, in essence, as a human process and where technology can assist in generating knowledge, but cannot supersede the knowledge owner. An impression of consistency emerges here from a vantage point that puts forward knowledge as a disposition that is subjective and stemming from an individual's sensory experience. This view focuses on a manifestation of knowledge that is internalised and acquired through recurring experiential accumulations and experimental trials. This paradigm outlines one of the prevailing understandings of knowledge and sets a foundation for developing a notion of knowledge as a tacit entity that emerges from individual and group interactions.

➢ Paradigm 2: This refers to the second frame of reference (i.e. explicit knowledge), where knowledge is commonly acquired with knowledge management tools or by implementing either an operational or a strategic management approach. An impression of consistency emerges here by defining knowledge as a disposition that is acquired by individual reasoning and that can be expressed in an unambiguous way. This paradigm outlines one of the prevailing understandings of knowledge and sets a

foundation for developing a notion of knowledge as an explicit and individual entity that is consciously possessed.

By emphasising two frames of reference and juxtaposing them as potentially distinct paradigms, I hope to shed light on the main differences in the views on knowledge.

While the debates about what these kinds of knowledge are (and how they should be managed) run throughout the knowledge management literature, there is, as with knowledge, no clear-cut definition of 'knowledge management'. Alvesson and Kärreman's (2001, p.996) central point is that knowledge management is inherently problematic. However, there is one prevalent structural framework: tacit-explicit duality (Crane, 2015, p.33). According to this view, each knowledge paradigm draws attention to a distinct set of knowledge management processes. With each framework comes its own set of processes and perspectives on how to manage knowledge. This is examined in the following section.

2.1.4   Different knowledge management strategies

Some knowledge management complications should be examined due to the conceptual relationships between paradigms 1 and 2. Individually owned tacit knowledge is complex. As individuals can make performance gains through experience with tasks, they may not be capable of communicating the strategies that they use to achieve this improvement. The point of convergence is the attempt to codify and abstract highly contextualised tacit knowledge and make it explicit. As previously discussed, the most prevalent and influential categorisation of knowledge emphasises the dichotomy between tacit and explicit knowledge. Following Paradigm 1 on knowledge, knowledge management strategies are viewed as tacit and explicit knowledge in practice. Accordingly, dividing tacit or explicit knowledge from each other or standing outside practice results in the absence of anything to refer as knowledge. From this perspective, knowledge management is considered from an epistemology of practice where the tacit dimension can be seen in what Polanyi (1967b, p.4) asserted: "We can know more than we can tell". From the perspective of Paradigm 2, knowledge management is often understood to mean activities purposefully coordinated for socio-technical processes and is mainly the creation of an environment with an infrastructure and ad hoc processes. These approaches do not depend merely on the utilisation of information technologies in

managing knowledge. However, knowledge is straightforwardly viewed as a step away from information in the knowledge management literature. Knowledge management strategies following these approaches are considered as one step away from pure information management.

In Paradigm 1, the leading knowledge management strategy is advanced in the literature to learn from the experience of the individuals working in the organisation, for rapidly and effectively responding to specific situations, supporting knowledge transfer, expanding individuals' professional skills, and advancing the dissemination of potent practices. This promotion of potential tacit knowledge is created through networking among those who own this knowledge. In the literature, it is related to communities of practice that have emerged to enhance prevailing and authoritative managerial practice that impel knowledge-sharing and learning in organisations.

Communities of practice are not a recent phenomenon. They have existed for as long as human beings have been learning and sharing their experiences through storytelling. However, communities of practice, as discussed, for example, in the knowledge management literature, were proposed by Lave and Wenger in *Situated Learning* (1991). Wenger then broadened the concept in *Communities of Practice* (1998). In re-examining his earlier writings, Wenger reflected that the application of a community of practice is considerably more than the day-to-day practice of a community. He claims that learning is a social involvement in which individuals are not only the active part of a process in the practice of a community, but also one through which they reinforce their individual identities in connection to that community. Furthermore, a community of practice does not exist in isolation. On numerous occasions, work has to be carried out in coordination with other communities and groups. It is given in this knowledge management modus operandi that some knowledge cannot be codified or stored. It appreciates that knowledge resides in individuals, and that even if some knowledge can be externalised, some can certainly not be articulated.

Following Paradigm 2 on knowledge, the literature proposes two prominent knowledge management strategies to lead practical knowledge management practices in organisations. The first strategy is codification modelled on information technology systems. Here, the procedures are based on a 'people-to-documents' technique by codifying data to be stored in databases within the organisation for later retrieval without

the direct involvement of the person who developed it. This is analogous to Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge pertaining to 'externalisation', which combines the formal establishment of functional undertakings with a recording of knowledge and assessment of the associated documentation. In the second strategy, aside from information technologies, the management of human aspects and tacit knowledge also should be considered in knowledge management strategy. This corresponds to renowned approaches similar to Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) knowledge creation spiral and Hansen and colleagues' (1999) codification and personalisation. Both frameworks emphasise the management of tacit knowledge with special attention to enhancing socialisation activities in knowledge-sharing and creation. Both require the support of information technologies in codifying, storing, and transferring knowledge within organisations.

Following an analogous strategy, Zack (1999b) advanced a classification of knowledge management architecture as interactive or integrative, accommodating a wide set of knowledge-processing management aptitudes in tacit and explicit knowledge domains. Interactive methods concentrate on the interplay among workers who possess tacit knowledge. At the same time, an integrative method provides a stream of explicit knowledge flowing into and out of the repository. Here, knowledge is obtained, and this procedure for the repository is a culmination of genuine interaction and collaboration. In its purpose, an interactive knowledge management system involves personalisation; in its design, an integrative knowledge management system mandates the codification strategy. In a nutshell, explicit knowledge following this approach is more efficiently handled inside the repository through integrative implementations, and, by contrast, when applying interactive methods, tacit knowledge can be incorporated. This is often influenced by well-kept and all-inclusive shared directories of experts providing information about their work and experiences, general opinions on past ventures, and common views (Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Hansen, Nohria, and Tierney, 1999; Matusik and Hill, 1998; Quinn, 1992; Sherif, 2006).

In examining the main knowledge management strategies in this literature review, in Paradigm 1, knowledge is considered as a disposition embedded in human minds, constructed and negotiated through social interaction and not readily codified through tangible media. Nevertheless, from this perspective, knowledge can be conceptualised

through mainline modus operandi. By contrast, Paradigm 2 considers knowledge as an entity that can be straightforwardly codified and transmitted. Following these two sets of concepts and thought patterns on knowledge with differing implications for knowledge management, this literature review looks into the main debate and themes relevant to knowledge and knowledge management strategies. My aim is to raise questions of relevance to researchers and practitioners working on these interrelated perspectives on tacit knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration. It is this organisational form and its impact on tacit knowledge transfer that is now examined in relation to organisational design and the flow of knowledge as a strategic resource.

2.2   Organisational forms and shifting context

Academic scholarship on the features of work, especially on the labour process following Braverman's (1974) influential *Labour and Monopoly Capital*, has focused on both the deskilling of labour and on management dominance being more intense under a 'Taylorised' regime of capitalist labour arrangements. Taken to refute much of the prevailing ideologies of academic sociology, Braveman's text came to be the established document for many fundamental areas of sociological review, incorporating the science of managerial control, the correlation of technological transformation to social class, and the termination of the quality and range of skills from work under capitalism. Braverman's (1974) description of the division of labour drew a line between mental employees (i.e. managers) and manual employees (i.e. workers). Braverman asserts that the difficulty of transferring specialised knowledge and skills from workers to managers highlighted the extent of the power that managers have over workers. Essentially, Braverman sees power in all social associations. That is, if management gains knowledge of some kind of undertaking, the workers lose out and are unable to recover the previous gains from that knowledge. Following this line of thought, Braverman (1974) presented a division of labour in which mental workers regulate the manual workers under their supervision. He emphasised the struggle to transmit worker-specialised knowledge and skills, highlighting that there is power in all social interconnections. As in societies, interrelationships between the distribution of knowledge and power exist in organisations. In short, many categories of people have limited or no access to knowledge and power. Scholars who start from a labour process perspective claim that knowledge management is supported by the managers' desire to exert ever more control over the

work process and over workers. This underscores the point that management, taking some knowledge from workers, presumably also withholds other knowledge from them. The normal exercise of capitalism gives managers the technology to control workers and their productivity. This means that the use of organisational knowledge repositories can point to a power shift away from workers and towards management.

The power dynamics and communication arrangement associated with Taylorism have been supplanted by decentralised structures with empowered individuals (Barry, 1989). In this context, the multidivisional form (M-form) was the preeminent organisational form of the twentieth century (Williamson, 1985, p.279). Roberts (2004, p.2) wrote that in terms of impact, not just on the business enterprise but on people's lives, the multidivisional organisational configuration was one of the most prominent shifts of the twentieth century. Sanchez-Bueno and Suarez-Gonzalez (2010) pointed out that in the work of earlier researchers (Hill, Hitt, and Hoskisson, 1992; Hoskisson, Hill, and Kim, 1993; Pettigrew and Fenton, 2000; Pettigrew et al., 2003), there are distinct categories of the multidivisional form (i.e. cooperative and competitive), highlighting the emergence of an internal network form in which the organisational units are both differentiated and interdependent and in which lateral communication is emphasised.

In this changing organisational structure, and as foregrounded in the introduction to this thesis, the multidimensional organisational form has made progress in the twentieth and twenty-first centuries. In this research, a multidimensional organisation is one that works towards its mandated tasks across dimensions, whether that be manufactured products, business, goods and services, or operational divisions. This is examined in the following chapter, in which this kind of organisational configuration is exemplified by the UN Police working in multidimensional peacekeeping operations involving various components. This organisational configuration has given rise to standardised systems that play an important role in maintaining the management of multidimensional operations. Furthermore, the individual groups within these multidimensional organisations must be accountable for knowledge transfer and the development of people for the organisations to succeed. In the next sections, I set out specific attributes of tacit knowledge to explore more complex ways in which tacit knowledge could be elicited within a multidimensional organisation configuration.

2.2.1 The correlation connecting organisational design, knowledge management arrangements, and the working environment

Regardless of the paradigm of reference, good communication and collaboration are crucial for any knowledge management system. Grant (1996) argued that the difficulty of the knowledge-based view of the organisation lies in efficient coordination among individuals within the organisation, as their knowledge is specialised and needs to be integrated. He added that the allocation of duties among members and departments and the boundaries between them remain a feature of organisational design. Grant is well known for his work on the resource- and knowledge-based views of the organisation. He claims knowledge as a preponderant and strategic resource of the organisation, and treats the organisation as an institution for the consolidation of knowledge. The knowledge-based approaches to the organisation offer valuable insights into some of the main points regarding how an organisation is controlled and organisational design. As discussed in this literature review, organisational design is a pivotal driver of knowledge management. In this research, organisational design concerns the integration of individuals with the core organisational processes, technology, and systems within an organisation. Organisational design purposely shapes the organisation to match its strategy, face the challenges posed by the working context, and significantly maximise the prospects that the collective efforts of individuals working in the organisation will be successful.

This brings this literature review to the subject of knowledge-based strategy for maximising an organisation's value creation through enhanced knowledge transfer, with elusive assets linked to external and internal structures and individual skills (Sveiby, 2001). Reflected in both paradigms is the premise that knowledge is found in particular areas in an organisation (e.g. repositories, processes, and systems) and in experts in different fields (e.g. co-workers, groups, and communities). In this context, according to their article on human resource management for enhancing knowledge-sharing, Currie and Kerrin (2003, p.104) emphasise that permanent or temporary adjustments in organisational structures do not encourage knowledge-sharing. Furthermore, Ashton (2004), in his article on the impact of organisational structure and practices on learning in the workplace, called attention to the consequences for the organisational environment of harvesting tacit knowledge. Stated differently, what is noticed as tacit knowledge depends directly on how the working context is set. In

accordance with both paradigms, which offer two very different but equally compelling perspectives about eliciting tacit knowledge, this literature review shows that to obtain this type of knowledge, a particular setting is required with sufficient organisational structures and credence in organisational values like fairness and equity. This pivotal area of interest is examined in the next subsection.

2.2.2   Unfolding and capturing organisational knowledge

By referring to each view and set of implications on the nature, scope, and source of knowledge represented by two different paradigms in this research, I consider knowledge as an organisation's intellectual asset that has an influential role in its strategy. However, this emphasis on knowledge as a resource, although attractive at the level of practice, is much more complex and neglects to acknowledge the changing social aspects of knowledge. Collins (2001), along with many others, regarded tacit knowledge as fundamental to all human knowing. The key point attracting so much attention here is the question of when and how tacit knowledge can be refined into explicit knowledge.

Some organisations combine Paradigm 1 with Paradigm 2. Therefore, it is essential to examine the marked contrasts between individual and collective and tacit and explicit knowledge, which correlate with the distinct knowledge management approaches that can be embraced by organisations. Relevant in this literature review is the point made by Grant (1996) that knowledge, particularly tacit knowledge, is an organisation's dominant strategic resource. Tacit knowledge can be found in both individuals and groups. In sum, the contrast between tacit and explicit knowledge can be correlated to the epistemological aspect of the creation of organisational knowledge. Because knowledge management is dynamic and fluid, it requires a blend of tacit and explicit knowledge. It requires an enabling organisational environment with infrastructure and processes.

Knowledge has been commended as a central organisational resource (Barney, 1991; Helfat et al., 2007; Teece, Pisano, and Shuen, 1997). As a resource and asset, knowledge has been an important area of debate in social science (Athanassiou, 2000; Buckley, 2003). Nonetheless, the human factor is fundamental in turning information into knowledge. This process needs understanding acquired through experience, awareness, and personal learning (Grover and Davenport, 2001; Leonard and Sensiper, 1998; Roberts, 2000). Furthermore, Tsoukas (2003) suggested that much of the knowledge that

individuals gain through experience is not documented and shared efficiently (see also Kreiner, 2002; Zack, 1999b). Knowledge management relates to the specific categorisation of random data or information into relevant and associated knowledge, and it connects those who have this knowledge with those who need it. Both paradigms see knowledge management principally as the expansion of an environment with an infrastructure and ad hoc processes. This may entail managerial action to induce and combine these processes, mechanisms, and communities. These communities may form a social network and contribute to the coveted informal knowledge exchange mechanisms that are necessary for explicit and tacit knowledge flow to take place. Although virtual networking may encourage such an initiative, real, face-to-face interaction and extended social contact are of the utmost importance (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). Practices and communities evolve through the same processes (Lawy and Bloomer, 2003, p.28), and according to learning organisation theory by Senge (2006) and organisational learning and knowledge management, many methods concentrate on the importance of knowledge in the resource-based organisation. Furthermore, Busch (2008, p.42) argued that the goal for any workplace is to capitalise on its collective tacit knowledge and to store it in a database. The following section examines issues related to managing knowledge as an asset and the implications of considering tacit knowledge.

2.2.3   Types of knowledge as an elemental asset

Knowledge is more than a resource—it is an elemental asset (Drucker, 1993). A codification strategy for individual and organisational knowledge assumes a close focus on undertakings correlated with the use of knowledge as a strategic resource within an organisation. It usually corresponds with a standardised and controlled working environment without attempting to generate more opportunities for growth. This circumscribed approach is a core concern in the knowledge management discipline. It is therefore imperative to incorporate knowledge acquisition into knowledge handling and to emphasise a more holistic comprehension of knowing, ranging from knowledge objects to knowledge processes (McInerney and Day, 2007). From the point of view of Paradigm 1, discerning knowledge as either an objective or a subjective disposition, it should be approached as a process of 'sensemaking' that encompasses recurrent and reciprocal interactions between known and knower in practice. As Lave (1998, p.1975) writes, "Knowledge is not primarily a factual commodity or compendium of facts, nor is

an expert knower or an encyclopaedia. Instead knowledge takes on the character of a process of knowing". This point of view emphasises the tacit and collective nature of the knowing process. Hence, the collective aspect is given consideration in the literature on communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Brown and Duguid, 1998). Unlike Paradigm 2, which distinguishes explicit from tacit knowledge and recognises the externalised value of the latter, the first paradigm focuses on considering knowledge as a knowing process that centres on tacit knowing in practice. For that reason, quite a few underlying concepts have been advanced for handling distinct kinds of knowledge as an element asset. Knowledge as a strategic resource, unlike other assets, evolves when used, directed, and managed (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1995; Erden, Von Krogh, and Nonaka, 2008). Knowledge management in this research delineates a framework that originates from people's experiences and generates new processes and mechanisms for exchanging and developing knowledge. This brings us to some stumbling blocks in eliciting tacit knowledge.

2.2.4   Hurdles to knowledge as a strategic resource

Knowledge as a resource is a hallmark of paradigms 1 and 2; however, researchers such as Tsoukas (2003) and D'Eredita and Barreto (2006) have argued that tacit knowledge cannot be made explicit, but that the transfer of knowledge is attainable via socialisation. As previously seen, some authors (e.g. Nonaka, 1991; Tsoukas and Vladimirou, 2001) have examined the transformation of individual knowledge into organisational knowledge. Nevertheless, others are more deterministic about the extent to which knowledge can be disassociated from the individual (Flood et al., 2001; Grant, 1996). For both paradigms, the concept of knowledge as a resource necessitates viewing it as an entity that can be obtained from those who have it. This is evident in knowledge management following Paradigm 2, wherein there are processes in which knowledge is stored and formalised. It encompasses storage, databases, or libraries that ensure that the knowledge is available when and as required. It is essential to be familiar with the variants of knowledge management and keep in mind that valuable knowledge management is not solely about having sufficient mechanisms to support knowledge sharing, but also about aligning the individual and the corporate mindsets (Marr et al., 2003). Strategic knowledge orientation in an organisation is the modus operandi for reliable and consistent performance (Gatigon and Xuereb, 1997). Strategic knowledge orientation pertains to the

association between the strategy co-alignment of information technology, organisation, and management methods; skill sets to implement the strategy; and the system's architecture (MacDonald, 1991; Venkatraman, 1991).

This literature review has already outlined the intrinsic features of knowledge and its management. In terms of Paradigm 2, knowledge as a resource is customarily viewed as more explicit and accessible with the help of computer applications. Therefore, information technology is often regarded as the basic tool in managing knowledge within and among organisations. Nevertheless, following Paradigm 1, tacit knowledge is much more personal, implicit, and context-specific, and therefore more difficult to access or transfer via computer systems. Accordingly, even if information technology assists communication by overcoming time and distance, it does not enable knowledge workers to share their knowledge (Desouza, 2003). That means that knowledge workers are defined by their work, which is often independent of orthodox limits and parameters and, as Davenport, Thomas, and Cantrell (2002) have stressed, knowledge workers ordinarily do not appreciate a top-down approach. Gregerman (1981) argued that these attributes of knowledge workers are related to flexibility, adaptability, challenging and motivating work, and related characteristics. In this research, I take the position that tacit knowledge, being intangible and partly subconscious, makes management of knowledge workers difficult (Mládkováa, Zouharováb, and Novýc, 2015, p.769). The next section highlights the social and contextual nature of knowledge.

2.2.5 Key themes related to eliciting tacit knowledge

Tacit knowledge is a subject that, whilst found within the knowledge management field (Dierkes, Marz, and Teele, 2003; Easterby-Smith and Lyles, 2003), is also related to diverse disciplines, such as human resource management (Nonaka, 1994) and organisational learning (Applegate et al., 1987; Hedberg and Wolff, 2003; Mertins, Heisig, and Vorbeck, 2001; Takeuchi and Nonaka, 2004). Some key themes related to eliciting tacit knowledge in relation to the conceptual relationships between paradigms 1 and 2 merit discussion. That is, avenues have opened up which facilitate the comprehension of the role of tacit know-how in knowledge management. For instance, Michalisin, Smith, and Kline (1997, p.369) pointed out that individual know-how is found in the literature to have the attributes of strategic assets; it is viewed as valuable, rare, imperfectly imitable, and not substitutable. In attempting to enhance understanding

of the intangible dynamics related to the creation, adoption, and diffusion of tacit knowledge within an organisation, it is necessary to emphasise that organisational knowledge is both tacit and explicit (Guzman and Wilson, 2005). By emphasising different kinds of knowledge, the two paradigms stress that it is essential to have some method of advancing, harvesting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals into the corporate routine.

Eraut (2004, p.253) argued that tacit knowledge does not arise only from the implicit acquisition of knowledge, but also from the implicit processing of knowledge. In this setting, the elicitation of tacit knowledge entails mental action, a process of acquiring knowledge and technical elements. Such knowledge cannot be conveyed to another person without personal contact (Nonaka, 1994; Nonaka, Toyama, and Nagata, 2000). Davenport and Prusak (1998) pointed out that face-to-face interaction and extended social contact are of the utmost importance, although virtual networking may also support the management of tacit knowledge. In addition, Polanyi (1967b), Grant (1996), and Tsoukas and Mylonopoulos (2004) recognised the communication of explicit knowledge via practical support. By contrast, tacit knowledge is obtainable via its use, as knowledge is made by individuals with varying amounts of knowledge. The standard of decisions made in organisations is unrelated to the gathering of knowledge within them (Dewhurst, Barber, and Rogers, 2001; Grant, 1996; Mintzberg, 1979; Mintzberg and McHugh, 1985). Nevertheless, the potential to transfer and aggregate such knowledge is the source of decision-making. For that reason, Bhardwaj and Monin (2006, p.72) emphasised the necessity of examining tacit knowledge as the origin of inspiration for human actions in the workplace.

Knowledge—and, more precisely, its tacit, subjective dimension—permits participation in practical activities and highlights the distinction between doing something well and doing something poorly. In this literature review, the process at the heart of knowledge management transforms tacit into explicit knowledge. I do not mean to imply that this is the only important facet of knowledge management; however, there is a need to focus on how tacit and explicit knowledge interact, as this is indispensable to knowledge management. In eliciting tacit knowledge, both paradigms draw attention to a distinct set of approaches at the expense of others. Nevertheless, Max Müller, as cited by Stephen G. Alter (2005), argued that "If the Science of Language has proven anything, it has proved

that conceptual or discursive thought can be carried on in words only" (p.182). Arguably, with Polanyi also emphasising that language is critical for sharing knowledge, tacit knowledge, like ideas, can—at least in part—be externalised. Munro (2016, p.436) writes that his initial studies indicate that language, in preserving experience and collecting stories, not only comprises what we are to discern, but also adapts itself to the context with the intention to do so. This said, it has to be allowed that the more tacit the knowledge, the harder the likelihood of it being open to transfer; indeed, much knowledge has limited transfer possibilities (Grant, 2007).

Ludwig Wittgenstein (1953) gave reasons against the prospect of a private language: "The words of this language are to refer to what can be known only to the speaker; to his immediate, private, sensation. So another cannot understand the language" (p.243). That is, language can assist in sharing some, but not all, knowledge among individuals. The peculiarities that define tacit knowledge and how to elicit it are numerous; however, as Venkitachalam and Bush's (2012) article on a potential research direction for tacit knowledge emphasised, individual knowledge includes tacit knowledge that is typically not articulated but that may be codified. In these academic debates over eliciting tacit knowledge, Collins (2010) noted that tacit knowledge is not clear or explicit, but is conveyed in a way that contrasts with explicit knowledge; moreover, it cannot be applied to situations that have no possibilities for language. The next section highlights how eliciting tacit knowledge is a dubious endeavour.

2.2.6   A critique on eliciting tacit knowledge

Implementing a strategy to unleash knowledge is not without problems, and knowledge management, following Paradigm 2, is frequently used as a medium for managing information or individuals rather than for eliciting tacit knowledge within the organisation. For the most part, tacit knowledge is obtained through experience and becomes problematic when someone tries to pass it on methodically (Polanyi, 1967b). This point of knowledge conversion has been defined as one of the most complex of the three processes of data, information, and knowledge (Holtham, 1996). Grant (1996) argued that passing on tacit knowledge is time-consuming, exceedingly embedded in action, needs commitment, and is costly; moreover, the outcome is not guaranteed. Accordingly, Hedesstrom and Whitley (2000, p.47) suggested that tacit knowledge is

difficult to articulate and formalise, arguing that this difficulty renders its elicitation not worthwhile.

Kreiner (2002) held that tacit knowledge is the antithesis of explicit knowledge, stressing the difficulties in codifying and transferring tacit knowledge via prevailing mechanisms (e.g. documentation, models, and procedures). Intrinsic to Paradigm 1, tacit knowledge per se is developed by and accumulated in a person, and it cannot be collected and distributed as a loose element. It is also important to acknowledge that tacit knowledge is obtained through an individual's direct experience and incorporates internalised knowledge that the bearer may not be wholly conscious of possessing. So between Paradigms 1 and 2, the arguments over tacit knowledge focus on the cut-off points between codifiable and tacit knowledge (Ancori, Bureth, and Cohendet, 2000). These ambivalences and inconsistencies in the current uses of tacit knowledge are what have put off some individuals and organisations. It is vital that knowledge management initiatives from either paradigm have the support of and be aligned with broader organisational arrangements, methods, systems, and approaches.

In line with Paradigm 2, explicit knowledge can therefore be transferred, codified, and shared by taking advantage of systematic procedures. Nevertheless, individual tacit knowledge encompasses knowledge and skills that can be passed on through specific learning techniques and can be translated into writing only to a point. For almost all scholars and practitioners who often combine paradigms, the management of tacit knowledge calls for an understanding of the social processes that determine its development. This raises a particular set of issues related to the management of tacit knowledge. Such knowledge, when made explicit, dwells in written documentation, information systems, and standard operating procedures, and in these ways can become collective (Brown and Duguid, 1991; Lyles, 1988; Starbuck, 1992). The main argument is that tacit knowledge could be a feature of both individuals and groups. Therefore, an increasing amount of scholarship has been devoted to developing media that enables individuals and teams to share knowledge. The next section will discuss the cultural dynamics and ethos that influence the management of knowledge.

2.3　The influence of cultural diversity and ethos on knowledge

House, Wright, and Adiyta (1996) review the scope and domain of cross-cultural leadership research. Of interest to this research was their argument that social scientists use the word 'culture' to set up a framework for discerning the traits of a nation, organisation, or group. Their suggestion guided the research processes when looking into the cultural forces influencing the individual and organisational knowledge of the empirical context used in this research. Barnett (2000, p.16) stated that what we take as valid knowledge is shaped by our culture and society, and the rules of knowledge are not solely matters of philosophical concern, but are also subjects of general interest and social determination. In this context, contending that knowledge and skills are more broadly circulated, Schein (2010) emphasised that organisational culture and leadership influence the dynamics of an organisation in the attainment of its goals. The rapid increase of research on organisational culture has generated many disparate points of view (Martin, 1992, p.1). In this research, organisational culture is associated with the values and behaviours that build the distinctive social setting of an organisation. It is founded on shared attitudes, beliefs, and customs that affect the performance of an organisation and influence its interaction with the outside world. Therefore, the cultural context of an organisation has a significant impact on the promotion of an effective knowledge management strategy. The inclination and readiness of the organisational members to engage constructively in knowledge creation and to share their knowledge with other organisational actors is a foundational element in terms of the effectiveness of knowledge management, which is strongly shaped by cultural origins (Chouikha, 2016, p.38).

A key viewpoint on organisational knowledge is that it is a socially constructed occurrence. Hence, understanding the cultural influences on knowledge requires acknowledging the institutions that shape its production and reproduction (Berger and Luckmann, 1967). Eraut (2000, p.131), less radically, has argued that the construction of knowledge in a social context affects what is learned and how it is learned. This emphasis highlights the fact that globalisation has placed pressure on people's lives, businesses, and societies while expanding economic and social boundaries. Transferring knowledge between recipients who do not hold the same beliefs, assumptions, or cultural norms is difficult, as national culture influences individuals' knowledge-sharing by forming their attitudes towards it and influencing their cognitive styles (Bhagat et al., 2002; Ford and

Chan, 2003). Furthermore, debates on hurdles to knowledge-sharing tend to focus on organisational culture (e.g. Chase, 1998; De Long and Fahey, 2000) and indicate that culture is a predominant factor in creating a knowledge-based organisation.

Davenport and Prusak (1998), drawing from knowledge-rich organisations (e.g. the US Army, British Petroleum, IBM), presented culture as the key reason for an individual's disinclination to share knowledge. Importantly, some individuals in some organisational cultures follow the 'knowledge is power' dictum by hoarding knowledge and sharing it only when externally motivated to do so; by striving to make knowledge explicit, the bearer loses some or all control over it. Even willing contributors may every so often be hesitant to share when they are not aware of who may take advantage of the shared knowledge (King and Marks, 2008, p.131). Schein (2010) argued that culture is multidimensional and that what is held as sound knowledge is thus circumscribed by culture and society. This point is particularly salient to this research in terms of the efficient and effective elicitation of tacit knowledge.

In this context of differing ways consider the influence of culture on knowledge, Munro (2016) writes, "there seems more merit in continuing to cross back and forth between the anthropological visions of culture as working around artefacts and sociological arguments about ethos in terms of a domination over how people are 'brought up' in institutions, be they family or a form of employment" (p.432). Within this view, Munro is pointing to the importance of ethos in the everyday formulation of knowledge and follows Garfinkel's (1967) insight that members are usually more inclined to state matters in ways that reveal 'competence' to each other rather than try to depict facts straightforwardly. Where this is so, knowledge in the form of relaying the facts may not only become distorted in a member's efforts to re-present them; the priority on presenting evidence of their own competence may lead to any 'representation' of the facts being entirely elided. In considering this priority of 'competence' over 'representation', Munro (1999) argues that membership, rather than being fixed or delineated, "is only ever provisional" (p.436). He suggests that the connection between action and understanding is not an abstract undertaking, but a practical accomplishment in the face of possible membership sanctions being applied to the individual's accounts of their actions. As Bencherki and Snack (2016) propose, "membership is not only people being (formally) part of an organisation; it is also about some of people's actions being attributed to the organisation as the result of

interactional performance" (p.285). Members constitute themselves as such by contributing and participating within the ethos of organisations. Furthermore, while McLaughlin (2005) writes that ethos refers to the "prevalent or characteristic tone" (p.311) of a practice, it is likely that ethos governs feelings and affect among members and thus may not easily change in response to new ideas or influences.

The socially embedded nature of organisational knowledge is largely linked to stakeholders and management elements that create an environment in which cultural diversity is or is not taken into account. One of the pivotal themes of knowledge management theories is that organisations need to manage their intellectual assets and proficiencies within a knowledge-oriented culture. These organisations require technical and organisational infrastructures with different avenues for efficient knowledge transfer (Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Dewhurst, Barber, and Rogers, 2001; Zack, 1999a). That is, all these elements highlight the fact that organisational designs are not protected from the influence of regional variances in culture, political systems, and economic development, which encompass pervasive influences on the organisation (Rhody and Tang, 1995). In the next subsection, these points are explored in relation to prevailing cultural contrasts.

2.3.1   Cultural contrasts in unleashing individual and organisational knowledge

Researchers have made a distinction among cultures as to how knowledge management is apprehended. While some themes in the literature correlate specifically or solely with national culture, nations are not the only entities that have a culture; so do organisations, groups, and teams. These cultural dimensions are of particular importance for organisational practices, leadership, and group- or teamwork. For instance, Schein (1990) theorises that organisational culture develops distinct shared values and beliefs that accumulate over time.

In this context, Bishop and colleagues (2006) argued that knowledge-sharing in organisations relates to the organisation's culture and an affinity for collaboration. However, claims that knowledge-based organisations are closely tied to their decision-making processes tend to overgeneralise, since knowledge management applications also reflect individual, cultural, and management initiatives. Furthermore, it is important to

bear in mind that resource-based organisations usually treat knowledge as generic rather than specialised (Conner, 1991).

According to Lee and Yang (2000), an organisation's ability to take advantage of knowledge is contingent on several factors, such as the organisational environment and its workers. This makes organisational knowledge difficult to manage, as it is conditional on individual experience, perception, apprehension capabilities, social framework, and inspiration. In this setting, the term 'knowledge' is ambiguous, unspecific, and dynamic, while the meaning of the term 'management' involves rational encapsulation, control, organisation, and the like. These meanings are explored in the following subsection.

2.4 View of the organisation in eliciting, collecting, and transferring tacit knowledge

Anthony Giddens, one of the most eminent of sociologists, is well known for his holistic point of view of modern societies. Following his understanding, organisational structures may be considered dynamic rather than static entities where from time to time occurrences and proceedings in an individual's work setting are known beforehand, even if the individual is not conscious of it. In his widely discussed text *The Constitution of Society* (1984), Giddens holds that all human actions are performed within the context of a pre-existing social structure; therefore, all human actions are at least partly predetermined based on the varying contractual rules under which they occur.

Giddens's (1984) structuration theory goes along with the position of Berger and Luckmann's (1967) sociology of knowledge in upholding the notion that the elementary social realm is neither the experience of the subject, nor the existence of any form of societal aggregation. It is rather seen as 'social practice', where these two domains are integrated and, above all, consolidated.

Giddens's concept of structuration makes reference to the circumstances presiding over the continuity or transformation of structures and social systems and has important implications for personal agency in the social construction of knowledge. This is chiefly because he discerns the public sphere as becoming wider, providing more individuals with the right set of circumstances to engage, adjust actionable knowledge and skills to their own agenda, and make informed decisions relating to society. Secondly, since agents draw on structures in the course of their processes of interaction, or in carrying out

social pursuits, it follows that they replicate the actions that reproduce these practices. In Giddens's (1984) phrase, cultures within the bounds of organisations and other types of social groups are considered *'structured'* systems that give rise to conformist social conventions. He states that, "To be a human being is to be a purposive agent, who both has reason for his or her activities and is able, if asked, to be elaborate discursively upon those reasons (including lying about them)" (p.3).

Accordingly, individuals not only observe without interrupting the flow of their activities—and anticipate others to do the same—they also regularly observe the social and physical features of the settings in which they operate. Here, Giddens indicates that a contrast exists with *'what can be said'*—discursive consciousness—and *'what is characteristically simply done'*—practical consciousness (p.7). The point is that individuals, as social actors, are highly 'learned' with respect to the knowledge that they possess and apply to the production and reproduction of daily social encounters (Giddens, 1984, p.22).

In this context, Giddens (1991) wrote about the reflexive negotiation of the self as an individual coming to terms with the transformation of communities, societies, and practices in the workplace. As well as emphasising how agency draws on structures, he also makes the point that the professional identity of a person comprises matters central to agency, such as self-image, self-belief, and self-efficacy, in relation to working life. In fact, the learning that occurs through workplace activities may be different from what is expected or allowed by the workplace; this clearly reveals the shifting and complex nature of the formation of worker identities.

Giddens (1984) asserted that all knowledge is embedded in tacit knowledge; pure explicit knowledge is preposterous. While such knowledge forms a core asset for an organisation, tacit knowledge has been said to be sticky (Bush and Tiwana, 2005; Polanyi, 1967b; Szulanski, 2003) and by definition not easily transferable. However, according, to Giddens (1976), it is the production of action (i.e. practical life) that makes the social reality *'meaningful'* (p.79). Indeed, drawing on Garfinkel's (1967) thesis about how knowledge circulates among members in the form of 'accounts', mentioned earlier, he argues that it is by means of accounts that individuals try to comprehend the social world and their practical life in it.

Where authors such as Beck (1999) and Giddens (2000) see the social and economic fundamentals of society being remodelled by the emphasis on learning at work in the information society, other scholars, by contrast, appreciate the value of knowledge as a strategic resource and study its use as a competitive asset within organisations (e.g. Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Nonaka, Toyama, and Nagata, 2000). Pillay and colleagues, for example, claim the world's enterprises are undergoing monumental global economic, technological, and social change and so now prioritise the acquisition of knowledge as a resource (2003, p.95). To the extent that new technologies and innovations are being developed, these innovations can improve connectivity and real-time interaction in spite of distance (Alvesson and Kärreman, 2001); the individual and the organisation can progress from harvesting, recording, and disseminating experiences.

These areas of study remain the most complex, yet urgent, areas of argument among scholars and practitioners, and there is both a correlation and a potential clash between explicit and tacit knowledge. Therefore, after examining the view of the organisation in eliciting, collecting, and transferring tacit knowledge, I now attempt to resolve some of the issues that the literature has raised by considering both paradigms with reference to a shift from the 'explicit' towards the 'tacit' in 'practical consciousness'. These points are of special interest for this research on eliciting tacit knowledge in a multidimensional organisational configuration. For that reason, they will be examined further in the next section and in the chapter concerning the methodology and methods used in this research.

2.4.1 Ways in which tacit knowledge could be elicited within a multidimensional organisational configuration as embodied by the UN Police

While the works that specifically address tacit knowledge disagree as to both its nature and the potential to make it explicit, a central tenet that has emerged from the more business-oriented literature is how tacit knowledge is a pivotal driver in influencing the kind of information that fails to get reported and distributed. Building on this literature review, several perspectives on knowledge have been identified in the literature and are noteworthy for identifying the ways in which tacit knowledge could be elicited within a multidimensional organisational configuration. These perspectives shape mainstreaming points of view across most writings, and there is some overlap with one of the two paradigms discussed in this literature review. Nevertheless, both paradigms display genuinely contrasting views of knowledge and how to manage it. Knowledge is bound to

many understandings and frames of reference and cannot be narrowed down to a single perspective. Foremost amongst these perspectives is the idea that tacit knowledge can be 'captured', and that if it were captured, this would solve many of the problems presented in this literature review. In this research into how a multidimensional organisational configuration affects the flow of knowledge, the literature review and my critical insight introduces the building blocks of the foundations on which tacit knowledge could be elicited within such a configuration.

It is crucial to view organisational knowledge from both paradigms to arrive at a clear awareness and understanding of the complexity of eliciting tacit knowledge. Individuals from different backgrounds make knowledge interaction achievable through the development of collective or related knowledge, and these cognitive frameworks maintain the necessary synergies (Grant, 1996; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). The individual part is the final factor in the transfer of tacit knowledge for the understanding that tacit knowledge is obtained via underlying individual processes (Grant, 2007; Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Kim, 1993; Leonard and Sensiper, 1998). Nevertheless, as individual functions interact within the organisational elements, it can catalyse the diffusion of tacit knowledge (Hansen, Nohria, and Tierney, 1999; O'Dell and Grayson, 1998; Sun and Scott, 2005). O'Dell and Grayson (1998) asserted that organisations have an immense source of knowledge to be uncovered, principally, tacit knowledge in the shape of know-how and best practices. Therefore, knowledge and experience in an organisation remain based on individuals (Grant, 1996; Tsoukas and Vladimirou, 2001). Furthermore, personal knowledge is concealed within the bounds of experience such that it cannot be conveyed completely (Sternberg and Horvath, 1999). Knowledge demands experience of the topic in question, of the circumstances, and of the medium; in this, language, with its syntax and semantics, is pivotal. It is this relation between experience and practice that this research examines in eliciting tacit knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration as embodied by the UN Police.

Nicolini (2009, p.1391) observed that organisation studies tend more and more to inquire into how real-time practices are carried out in the workplace and the relation between workplace activities and the organising process. However, he claims that assuming a real-time practice at the onset of social and organisational examination can be arduous, as practice requires the possibility of being drawn into the fore and being made visible. Only

then can it be converted into an epistemic object for discussion. My purpose in specifying the relation of this research to an established view of experience is to delineate my approach in investigating representing practices within a multidimensional organisational configuration. The rationale for this focus is that what is left implicit or taken for granted is likely to vary both across parts of the organisation and across the hierarchy. The aim is to offer insight into what creates the conditions that either prevent knowledge from being made explicit or limit its transfer. In the context of this research study, I chose to delineate tacit knowledge considered to be informal by the organisation and its systems of collection. This distinction between formal and informal picks up on the relationship between explicit and implicit knowledge. For example, I reflect on the contrast between tacit and explicit knowledge by distinguishing practical skills or expertise from theoretical understanding of a particular topic.

Adhering to Nicolini (2009, p.1934), this study considers the power of associations, and my endeavour concerns unearthing the associations linking human and non-human elements—investigating how the resulting arrangements affect the flow of tacit knowledge within the UN Police and between organisational dimensions. Individuals influence knowledge, and knowledge depends on the social setting in which it is found or correlates to particular circumstances (Grover and Davenport, 2001). Because knowledge originates in and pertains to human minds, it is presumably difficult to manage. This understanding and the paradigms examined in this literature review are a touchstone of how this research intends to address knowledge flow and its relationships in a multidimensional organisational configuration. Furthermore, workplace knowledge is ineluctably socially constructed and socially inbuilt. In this context of eliciting tacit knowledge, these key themes stress corporate culture and personnel management by considering the role of knowledge in human relationships and its social character within a multidimensional organisational configuration. Therefore, I use both paradigms of knowledge for examining how knowledge circulates in the workplace through different knowledge orientation components, elaborate social factors, participatory methods, and the possibility of cooperation.

The unfolding of tacit knowledge requires critical consideration of the interrelationships that link the allocation of knowledge and power within an organisational design. In other words, knowledge must be situated and transferred among and through individuals and

social structures within the multidimensional organisational configuration; tacit knowledge, being difficult to recognise and obtain, is disengaged from the control of conventional management. In this research, it is essential to consider the political nature of information and knowledge, as well as the ways in which information and knowledge are shared through power relations (Vince, 2001, p.1329). That is, knowledge is generated and institutionalised in line with a set of cultural values and norms, ingrained in structural relationships and mediated by strategic priorities. These elements are investigated in regards to this research on the flow of tacit knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration as exemplified by the UN Police.

2.5   Summary and research ground

This thesis explores how knowledge flows are affected by a multidimensional organisational configuration, giving a specific focus to relations between tacit knowledge and organisational forms. Several researchers have argued that an examination of the unique sociocultural contexts of an organisation's immediate environment is essential for managing its organisational knowledge (Ravishankar and Pan, 2008, p.223). The organisational setting, then, has a significant effect on tacit knowledge elicitation (Ashton, 2004). Miles and Snow (2003) claimed that organisations consciously choose their strategy for confronting the environment. Effective organisations are those that appropriate their intangible assets adequately and in a timely manner (Bontis et al., 1999; Brown and Duguid, 1991; Drucker, 1994; Lev, 2000; Nonaka, 1994; Zack, 1999b). These authors stated that for organisations to stay competitive, knowledge management must be aligned with the strategy of the organisation so that knowledge is produced, established, obtained, and distributed to resolve issues (Rifkin, 1996). Nevertheless, notwithstanding a considerable recognition of strategic alignment (i.e. alignment between knowledge management and organisational strategy), few sources detail this process (Luftman and Brier, 1999).

Von Krogh (2000, p.18) stated that the elicitation of knowledge is a fragile process, not amenable to traditional management techniques. This author highlighted the fact that there are two types of barriers—individual and organisational—mainly because the process depends so much on variations in human relationships and intellectual capabilities. Strong ties are required to support the sharing of tacit knowledge

(M. Hansen, 1999, 2002). An individual does not become a worker in a particular sector only by accumulating information related to the profession. A worker gains knowledge by interacting with other workers and learning from them how to do the work. Bearing in mind Munro's emphasis (1999) on the prioritisation of displays of competence over the representation of facts in interactions between members, it is important to evaluate the extent to which management within a multidimensional organisational configuration can secure and manage knowledge of organisational control when considering the correlation between how the members of a specific dimension act and how they are supposed to conduct themselves with others. That is, those with control over the work organisation can use their power to create or remove barriers and boundaries that inhibit participation (Fuller et al., 2005).

In relation to this proposed research, I established a view on experience and practice in which the social processes and factors, organisational learning mechanisms, and knowledge management practices are closely linked. The concepts of organisational learning and the learning organisation have been considered and debated extensively in the literature (Argyris and Schön, 1978; Watkins and Marsick, 1993; Pedler et al., 1997; Senge, 2006). The literature on the subject is inclined to put forth principles as incontrovertibly true, but within different frameworks. To date, there is no single definition of organisational learning or of the learning organisation. As is appropriate for the aim of this research within the empirical context of this study, I subscribe to Nyhan and colleagues' (2004) notion that 'organisational learning' and 'learning organisation' are two sides of the same coin, with 'learning organisation' being the objective to reach, and 'organisational learning' being the process.

Before concluding this literature review, I emphasise that Nicolini and Meznar (1995) argued that the area of study of organisational learning is characterised by different viewpoints. They claim that the issue is not the insufficiency of theory, but the imposed construal of organisational learning, which brings some lack of unity in terms of opinions, definitions, and conceptualisations. Nevertheless, organisational learning is mainly treated as a phenomenon "whose significance lies in the fact that, as a whole, it works as a structuring resource that helps organisational activity and identity" (Nicolini and Meznar, p.742). Therefore, I define organisational learning as a process of collaborative learning in an organisation with the aims of solving complex problems and achieving

change and improved performance at the individual, team, and organisational levels. In the next chapter, dedicated to the empirical context of this study, organisational learning is appraised in correlation to competing epistemological stances and associated concepts and practices in a multidimensional organisation configuration: the UN Police.

2.6   Concluding remarks

Each knowledge paradigm brings to the fore a contrasting set of thoughts. With each set comes a distinct view of how to manage knowledge. Each perspective on knowledge has ramifications for the interrelated features of knowledge management; this literature review is limited to them. For example, a Paradigm 1 perspective unveils knowledge creation as a human process. Such knowledge is often viewed as subjective and stems from an individual's sensory experience. A Paradigm 2 perspective points to knowledge as an explicit and individual entity that can be expressed in an unambiguous way. Both perspectives have significant implications for those who wish to manage knowledge. From both paradigmatic viewpoints, this literature review must acknowledge how a better grasp of organisational design might link organisational structure, strategy, and process variables. Too strong an emphasis on knowledge as a resource, although attractive at the level of practice, is limiting. This two-paradigm perspective draws attention to knowledge as complex, and its analysis needs to acknowledge the changing social aspects that contribute both to its construction and to its potential transferability.

A concurrent awareness of both paradigms would avoid the blind spots associated with any single perspective. The review also recognises that different definitions may obscure a common line of thought from academics to practitioners. Tacit knowledge is not exactly determined and so has the potential to become a valuable strategic resource. Along with insights into the propensity for members to prioritise competencies appropriate to inclusion in membership over representation, bending the latter to the former, I considered the conceptual approaches based on the premise that the properties of tacit knowledge prevent its dissemination (Joia and Lemos, 2009). Additionally, any newly gained knowledge that includes tacit knowledge enhances workplace effectiveness (Arora, 1996; Nonaka, 1991). This chapter contextualised the literature in relation to tacit knowledge and the methodologies for extracting the effect primarily within an organisational environment upon tacit knowledge elicitation. It offered a critique of the work of theorists who have contributed significantly to the elicitation and conveyance of

knowledge, focusing on the processes and mechanisms used in codifying and abstracting highly contextualised tacit knowledge and making it explicit.

The theoretical perspectives and approaches presented here were identified and evaluated in relation to the debates on harvesting tacit knowledge, and this chapter focused on how it is suggested that knowledge can be made explicit or not. Again, the objective of this study is to refine current models to appreciate the relationship between a multidimensional organisational configuration and its impact on the flow of knowledge. This review explored tacit knowledge as a source of human actions in the workplace (Bhardwaj and Monin, 2006, p.72) and concluded that knowledge management is the creation of knowledge and should emphasise the associated aspects of organisations, as argued by modern management theorists (e.g. Davenport and Prusak, 1998).

The literature explored the political contexts and practices within organisations by considering issues of diversity and power. By presenting several perspectives on knowledge so as to discern ways in which tacit knowledge could be elicited within a multidimensional organisation configuration, these contexts and issues set the stage for substantiating how the UN Police could make the best use of tacit knowledge related to its operational activities. Cultural diversity has been shown to have an important impact on the interpretation and absorption of the context and conceptual understanding of knowledge. These theoretical pillars are exploited in support of the analysis of the data in what follows. Therefore, illustrated with critical arguments from this literature review, the following chapters explore the empirical context for this research and the participants' perspectives, the knowledge management inclination, and the tools deployed by the UN Police to present the kind of knowledge acquired by the participants. Chapter Four introduces the research methodology for this dissertation.

Chapter 3: The United Nations Police as an Empirical Context

3.0   Overview

Drucker (1988) envisioned that a multidimensional organisation would be information-based and, consequently, such organisations would need to acquire an extended range of competencies for themselves. That is, an organisation has an extensive source of knowledge to be uncovered—principally tacit knowledge in the form of know-how and best practices.

The empirical context at the centre of this study is the UN Police. The kind of knowledge acquired by the participants in this distinct organisation was anticipated to be a hybrid of parts that could be made explicit and other knowledge that was presumably tacit. Using this working environment as a case study, the research relates to the central research question of the elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with a multidimensional organisational configuration. On this basis, it is relevant to explore the main features of this empirical context in the following sections.

3.1   The United Nations and multifunctional peacekeeping operations

As described in an institutional overview, "The United Nations formally came into existence on 24 October 1945, when the Charter had been ratified by China, France, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, the United States and a majority of other signatories" (UN, 2004, p.3). The UN has as its primary raison d'être the preservation of international peace and security. Over the decades, the UN has managed to end numerous conflicts through the influence and will of the Security Council, which is the primary body that handles issues of international peace and security. Efforts authorised by the Security Council, according to the UN, have involved "complex and innovative peacekeeping operations" (UN, 2004, p.67).

The Charter of the UN (UN, 2003), signed on 26 June 1945, does not actually incorporate the word 'peacekeeping'. Nonetheless, the legal basis for peacekeeping operations is located in Chapters VI, VII, and VIII of the Charter. Peacekeeping operations conducted under Chapter VI involve pacific activity, and authority granted under Chapter VII can initiate the use of force. Chapter VIII concerns the relationship of regional arrangements and agencies: "With the Cold War dividing the wartime allies, and the two superpowers

frequently supporting opposing sides in conflicts around the globe, the Council could not effectively implement its mandate to maintain peace, especially when enforcement action was a possibility" (UN DPKO, 1995, p.3). After the Cold War, cooperation by member countries strengthened considerably, and the UN peacekeeping operations became a meaningful tool to terminate or control conflicts: "There is a range of peace-making strategies that may be employed, including conciliation, mediation, negotiation, arbitration, problem-solving and peacekeeping" (UNITAR, 2000, p.118).

During the Cold War, many peacekeeping operations were devoted exclusively to monitoring borders and buffer zones after a ceasefire was established. Nevertheless, with the end of the Cold War era, the UN's traditional peacekeeping operation became multifunctional, and the UN Missions are mandated to play a wider role; this changes the function, application, and composition of the operations. The multiplicity of tasks compelled the UN Missions to respond to new kinds of conflict in new areas that demanded an adapted composition of peacekeepers reflecting civilian, police, and military dimensions. This multidimensional organisational configuration is explained further in the following subsections.

3.1.1   The multidimensional United Nations peacekeeping operations

The organisational structure most often used is one in which units of the organisation are involved in a specific combination of domains. The multidivisional organisation design, or M-form, concedes greater acclimatisation to a shifting context because it is centred on multiple poles. Nevertheless, as highlighted in the previous chapters, one of the developed organisational forms that has made progress in the twenty-first century is the multidimensional organisation. As UN peacekeeping has advanced over the last 30 years, a burgeoning proportion of its operations has moved towards multidimensional operations involving various components that incorporate civilians, the police, the and military (UN DPKO, 2003). That is, especially after the late 1980s, an expanding number of UN peacekeeping operations became multidimensional in nature (UN DPKO, 2008a). Managing these multidimensional operations entails planning, measuring performance, and reporting on each dimension separately, as well as coordinating and interacting with other dimensions.

Table 1 shows the total numbers of authorised UN peacekeeping personnel, as of late April 2017, devoted to 16 current international peacekeeping operations. Personnel are grouped under civilian (political affairs, rule of law, human rights), police (individual police officers and formed police units), and military (troops, military observers) categories.[1]

Table 1. Total of personnel in UN peacekeeping operations

Military	Police	Civilian
81,656	13,494	16,918

(Source: UN, 2017)

As an example, the United Nations Multidimensional Integrated Stabilisation Mission in Mali (UN, 2017) has an approximate total strength of 14,445, including:

- Uniformed personnel: 12,946
  - Military troops: 10,891
  - Military observers: 35
  - Military staff officers: 341
  - Individual police officers and formed police units: 1,679
- Civilian personnel: 1,350
  - International civilians: 648
  - Local civilians: 702
  - UN volunteers: 149

The UN has a remarkable capacity to mount reliably comprehensive responses to complex crises, and it has advanced the idea of integrated missions[2] to maximise the overall effect of its assistance to countries rising from struggle (UN DPKO, 2008b). Complex processes that compel efficient coordination and timely responses to increased challenges—both across various organisational levels and among the multidimensional operations throughout the world—are connected to the diffusion of information and knowledge in these integrated peacekeeping operations.

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[1] These figures represent the total strength authorised by the UN Security Council and not the actual deployed number of personnel in UN peacekeeping operations.
[2] An integrated mission is one in which there is a shared vision among all UN actors as to the strategic objectives of the UN presence at the country level.

The complexity of this multidimensional organisational configuration has been documented within this empirical context, and it has been argued that reliable knowledge-sharing measures need to be promoted, with particular reference to the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operation Policy on Knowledge Sharing (UN DPKO, 2006). This framework has been reviewed, and a Policy on Knowledge Sharing and Organisational Learning has been advanced (UN DPKO, 2015). This current foundation is intended to advance and further extend the effectiveness and response of UN peacekeeping operations by recognising, capturing, sharing, and implementing best practices and lessons learned, and it sets guiding principles of knowledge sharing and organisational learning.[3] These matters have become extremely relevant for the UN Police, as its experts come from numerous countries. Employees coming from different regions are expected to respond uniquely to the integrative constituents of an organisational design based on their opinions of work and community (Koufteros *et al.*, 2014, p.33). Having established the total personnel for each dimension in UN peacekeeping operations and the approximate size of a particular UN multidimensional peacekeeping mission,[4] we now set the scene of the empirical context for this study.

3.2   Setting the scene: The United Nations Police context

Hansen (2002, p.9) wrote that civilian police officers (CIVPOL), now called UN Police officers (UNPOL), were deployed for the first time in UN peace operations in the Congo in the early 1960s; they were a haphazard extension of military observers. From this initial deployment to the late 1980s, CIVPOL were sporadically used, and their mandate was confined to monitoring, advising, and tagging along with the local police. As part of the mission in Namibia in 1989, the UNPOL were mandated to monitor the restructuring of the Namibian police. It was only with the different UN Missions and related mandates from 1991 to 1998 that the role of the UNPOL became broader, including training and reform tasks. From then on, these officers began to assume the temporary role of local security forces and executive tasks in law and order.

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[3] Tools have been developed and Policy and Best Practices Officers have been deployed across peacekeeping missions with a designated focal point of supporting knowledge sharing and organisational learning.

[4] The term 'UN multidimensional peacekeeping mission' is homologous with 'UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations' in this study and will be employed on several occasions.

The UN Police is increasingly becoming a central component of the UN's efforts to bring peace and security to conflict environments by building institutional police capacity: "The authority and function of the UN Police component are derived from mission-specific UN resolution(s)" (UN DPKO/PD, 2007, p.4). The organisation of the UN is charged with the responsibility to prepare its employees, but it faces an even greater need to succeed in its peace operations. Therefore, the UN has thoughtfully invested in numerous sophisticated techniques and measures for sharing knowledge related to its activities.

3.2.1 United Nations Police in a multidimensional organisational configuration

Since 1993, there has been a Civilian Police Division within the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO), deploying experts to manage UN Police mandates, which have become more multidimensional (UN, 2016). Drawing on the points made earlier, the multidimensional nature indicates that a UN-led peacekeeping mission with the full spectrum of responsibilities over the three principal components (i.e. civilian, police, and military) takes on multiple responsibilities. The concept of integration, to maximise the overall operational effect in supporting countries that emerge from conflict, underlies the structure of a current UN-led multidimensional peacekeeping mission (UN DPKO, 2008b), where all actors and mission components operate under a unified command and control, as seen in Figure 1.
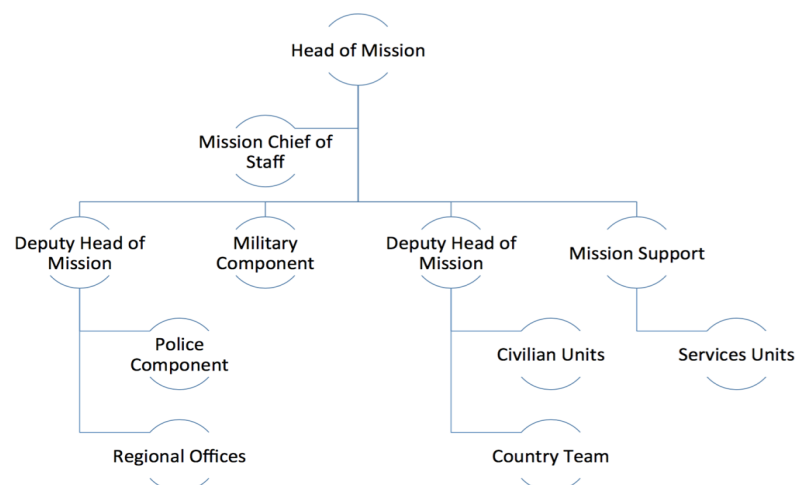
Figure 1. Illustration of a UN multidimensional peacekeeping operation

Authority, command, and control in a multidimensional UN peacekeeping operation are distinct between headquarters and the field of operations. As shown in Figure 2, authority, command, and control in a multidimensional UN peacekeeping operation are organised with the strategic constituent at the top of the political decision-making structure and management at UN headquarters. The operational level represents the field-based management at mission headquarters. Lastly, the tactical level is the management of military, police, and civilian operations below the level of the mission headquarters (i.e. supervision of individual personnel, exercised at various levels by subordinate commanders of specific components and civilian heads below the mission headquarters).
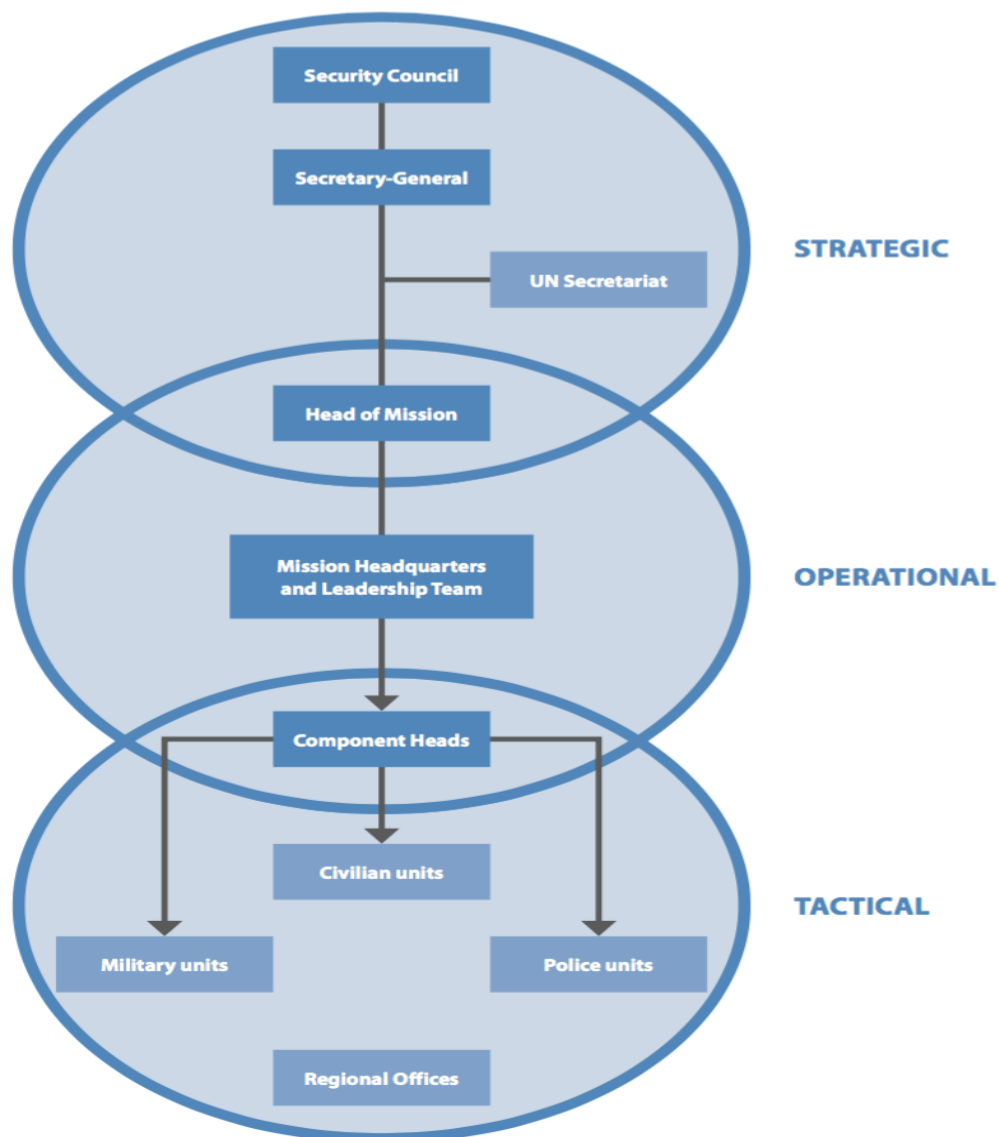
Figure 2. Authority, command, and control in a multidimensional UN peacekeeping operation

UN peacekeeping has evolved into a complex multidimensional enterprise, involving personnel from a broad array of nationalities, disciplines, and professional cultures pursuing multiple lines of activity (UN DPKO, 2008b). In such a dynamic and multidimensional organisational configuration, knowledge is essential for leading the operations strategically. Furthermore, many of these components comprise individuals who do not regularly meet face to face due to the geographic location of the UN headquarters and the division of the various peacekeeping missions. These particularities call for increased knowledge management amongst UN Police missions, distinct processes, and customised solutions. These elements are examined in the following section.

3.3 The extent to which knowledge can be 'managed' in relation to the United Nations Police organisational structure and operational alignment

Organisational structure is the fixed allocation of work duties and the administrative mechanism that controls and integrates work-associated activities (Ghani, Jayabalan, and Sugumar, 2002; Robbins, 1990). A decentralised structure has good correlation with knowledge management (Damanpour, 1991; Gold, Malhotra, and Segars, 2001). Thus, structural characteristics seem to work as an information filter, containing what an organisation can discern (Miles and Snow, 2003). Organisational structures indicate not only how information is disseminated, but also how knowledge is shared. These structural elements affect the efficiency of the use of information and the generation of knowledge.

UN Police elements working as peacekeepers are problem-solvers and innovators; like a private organisation, the UN Police strives to improve performance (UN DPKO, 2015). In terms of enhancing the elicitation, acquisition, and utilisation of tacit knowledge in the workplace—and taking into account work-related knowledge associated with the influence of a multidimensional organisational configuration on tacit knowledge—this empirical context is adopted to formalise the foundation of the academic literature by attempting to make connections between the multidimensional organisational configuration and tacit knowledge.

3.3.1 Knowledge processes in the United Nations Police, organisational knowledge dimensions, and organisation design and context

Flourishing organisations promote and sustain a knowledge management strategy that matches their organisational strategy (Hansen, Nohria, and Tierney, 1999). This point has been explored by numerous scholars, starting with the biologist Von Bertalanffy (1968), who developed the concept of systems. Based on Von Bertalanffy's ideas, the work of Snell and Chak (1998) provides a framework for assessing organisational learning within the empirical context of the UN Police, as it is possible to draw upon the competing hypotheses presented in their work (i.e. changes in the processes, structures, and assumptions/concerns connecting individuals). The work of Senge (2006) is used in this research to address the theory and practice of learning organisations within an international work setting.

Knowledge is an active combination of established experience, values, contextual information, and expert understanding (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). Kim (1993) asserted that even in bureaucratic organisations with a preponderance of operational standards, the majority of tacit knowledge in the form of know-how is to be discerned in individuals and the synergies between them. Miller (1999) emphasised that knowledge management involves the elicitation of the organisation's know-how and know-what via generation, accumulation, storage, transfer, and application. Central to this research is what Brown and Duguid (1998) posited as an organisation's core competency. They suggest that more so than the explicit knowledge of the know-what, an organisation's core competency requires tacit know-how to put know-what into use. Therefore, the characteristics of the UN Police are examined through a framework composed of coordination and performance measurements. Different aspects of the technological support system and related organisational processes for this study are examined in the next section.

3.3.2 The support of information technology and organisational processes in the United Nations Police

Giddens (1984), through his concept of structuration, put forward a crucial role for personal agency in the social structuring of knowledge. Individuals' engagement and their agency appear to be imperative not only for their own continuity, but also for that

of social systems. Accordingly, the interrelationship of individual and organisational knowledge is crucial to knowledge management. Knowledge is also the individual ability to make distinctions within a course of action, based on an acknowledgement of context, theory, or both (Tsoukas and Vladimirou, 2001, p.983).

In the context of the UN Police and according to Hansen, Nohria, and Tierney (1999), information technology is evaluated against organisational processes, as the level and range of information technology support depend on the type of strategy selected by an organisation. It is also proposed that information technology investment might not be meaningful for the personalisation-type approach, as the centre of attention is the recruitment of workers who can transfer tacit knowledge via the promotion of exchange within the organisational environment. Nonetheless, this argument does not concern organisations that assume a codification-type approach. Such an approach needs meaningful investment to set up an infrastructure for preserving knowledge (e.g. search engines, filing and storage of electronic documents) that can be easily retrieved for knowledge reuse and to connect workers (Hansen, Nohria and Tierney, 1999). Lee and Choi (2003) view organisational culture, structure, individuals, and information technology as the enablers providing the media for useful knowledge management within an organisation. Hence, the sharing of knowledge should not correlate solely with mere communication of knowledge, but should also be an effective information system consolidated with a system of objective and intermittent contacts among individuals in the organisation (Davenport and Prusak, 1998). The next section builds on these points to discuss human resource management in an organisation that facilitates the learning of its members.

3.4   Human resource perspectives and competing epistemological positions

Organisations have various compendia of human resource practices, procedures, and policies that display their distinctive organisational culture (Jain, 1990; Pascale and Athos, 1981). Managers from different national cultures have varying assumptions regarding organisational management. Therefore, human resource practices must be tailored to different cultures. The UN Police, comprising human resources from different police-contributing countries, has stated that its police officers benefit from exposure to international standards while operating under the UN flag. In other words, the

contributing countries see clear advantages for their communities when police officers return from UN missions (UN, 2010).

To explore the extent to which knowledge is managed in the UN Police, it is necessary to examine the competing epistemological positions and related ideas and practices among organisational learning, learning organisation, and knowledge management perspectives. In this empirical context, knowledge from an organisational learning perspective is considered as tacit, and relational knowledge cannot be divorced from its context. Argyris and Schön (1978) were the first to introduce models that enable organisational learning: "The literature on organisational learning concentrates on competition, and learning is assessed according to whether it provides one organisation an advantage over others" (Easterby-Smith, 1997, p.1096). Knowledge management overlaps with organisational learning, with a focus on the management of knowledge as a strategic asset. Organisational learning is attentive to the formulation of new knowledge, whereas with knowledge management, the centre of attention is on the integration, accommodation, distribution, and coordination of available knowledge assets for the organisation (Pemberton and Stonehouse, 2000, p.186). The organisational learning setting is composed of organisational culture, structure, and infrastructure to support the organisation to continually improve ad hoc learning and knowledge management processes and systems (Stonehouse and Pemberton, 1999).

Knowledge is the principal asset of a learning organisation where the learning cycle takes time to increase performance. This leads to the conclusion that a learning organisation is defined through the existence of organisational conditions that favour learning. However, when a learning organisation commands solid management commitment, knowledge management appears to fulfil the request for tools, which would support practitioners to single out, support, and promote the human assets of an organisation. One of the defining characteristics of the ideas and practices related to knowledge management, in contrast to those related to the learning organisation, is its 'harder' orientation: its focus on the acquisition, codification, and dissemination of knowledge as a resource in the place of collective learning as a process. The knowledge management literature concentrates on capturing, codifying, and storing knowledge. From this perspective, knowledge management has not moved away from information management. Therefore, new

systems are developed for locating, capturing, storing, sharing, and taking advantage of not only data and information, but also knowledge.

Many of the ideas associated with knowledge management, like those of organisational learning and the learning organisation, anticipate progressive workplaces that are supposedly free of common struggle. However, organisations do not always rise to such an ideal. For this research, the features of knowledge orientation within the UN Police are examined through a framework that represents a knowledge value chain composed of scanning, capturing, storage, retrieval, application, transfer, and sharing components.

3.5   Concluding remarks

This chapter introduced the empirical context of this research by providing background information on the UN and its focus on peace building by supporting structures to strengthen peace. Furthermore, the multiplicity of tasks that compelled the UN Missions to have civilian, police, and military components was explained, along with the multidimensional organisational configuration. The chapter outlined the current foundations of UN peacekeeping operations for capturing, sharing, and implementing best practices and lessons learned, guiding principles of knowledge sharing, and organisational learning.

The complex UN peacekeeping environment requires well-prepared officers and optimal organisational structures and systems. Knowledge in these dynamic and multidimensional organisational configurations is defined as being essential for leading the operations strategically. Each UN peacekeeping operation around the world may be different, but there is a considerable degree of consistency in the types of mandated task.

Chapter 4: Methodology and Methods

4.0   Overview

The goal of this study is to explore aspects of knowledge that organisational participants tend to leave tacit (i.e. un-reflected understandings as distinct from what they make explicit) and to examine the inter-relations between these un-reflected forms of knowledge and the organisational arrangements over what the information systems prioritise and what forms of knowledge are elided. The research adopted to examine these matters is a case study approach, with the research setting being the UN Police deployed in multidimensional peacekeeping missions. In addition to being informed by interpretive approaches, the methodology involved ideas of action research.

Organisations have an immense amount of knowledge to be uncovered, principally tacit knowledge in the shape of know-how and, as discussed in the literature review, many have argued that excellent use could be made of this knowledge if it were elicited and transferred between structures. To explore aspects of knowledge and the interaction of tacit knowledge with major subsystems, the central research question is:

> ➢ How does a multidimensional organisational configuration affect the flow of knowledge?

The secondary research question, based on the assumption that the UN Police would have clearly established structures and procedures for harvesting and managing knowledge, is:

> ➢ Can the elicitation of tacit knowledge from subject matter experts benefit an organisation using a multidimensional organisational configuration?

Insofar as I began this study committed to addressing, at a practical level, the features of the knowledge process in a multidimensional organisational configuration (along with hopes of developing and refining existing conceptions), the framing for this study falls partly within the tradition of action research. Bryman and Bell (2015, p.419) maintained that many writers stress that for action research to be worthwhile to the practitioner, it should include a means of empowering participants. According to Leininger (1992), qualitative methods therefore fit well with action research methodology because of their local focus and their closeness with the research participants.

In the early stages of the research design, I committed to the qualitative paradigm. Qualitative researchers can perceive the richness of social settings: the details, variations, ambiguities, and inconsistencies, as well as the decisions that people or groups make (Horowitz and Goodwin, 2002). Furthermore, Mason (2002) has presented qualitative research as a philosophical position that is widely interpretivist in the sense that it involves interpretation of the specifics of the social world under study. In this respect, interpretivism entails doing more than simply offering new interpretations of stand-alone statements, or finding underlying meanings to specific responses, but asks the researcher to 'contextualise' what is being said in the informant's perspective or worldview—always allowing for the latter to be elusive and easily misunderstood.

To the extent that the perspective or worldview of informants is recessive, it can be further said that the major challenge in interpretive work is for the researcher to get a grasp on what is—or rather might be—organising the informant's responses to questions. This is particularly pertinent to the current thesis for the reasons given in literature review— specifically, for instance, Giddens's insistence that there is no such thing as pure explicit knowledge and, further, that all knowledge is governed by tacit knowledge.

With interpretivism being often associated with qualitative inquiries, it is also imperative to recognise that interpretive work is not synonymous with qualitative work (Klein and Myers, 1999; Walsham, 2006). This is because qualitative research may or may not be interpretive, depending on the philosophical assumptions of the researcher (Myers, 1997). For example, not every qualitative researcher would subscribe to Berger and Luckmann's (1967) view that reality is socially constructed, or appreciate the extent to which social actors are guided by the very institutions that they produce and reproduce in their everyday endeavors.

Further, while the approach taken is assumed to evolve from the research questions (Rudestam and Newton, 2007), different fields of study in social science tend to favour their own methods for developing knowledge. For this reason it is helpful to draw, a distinction between methodology and method. Methodology is characterised as a way of reflecting on social reality; method, on the other hand, is defined as a set of procedures or techniques for collecting and analysing data (Strauss and Corbin, 1998).

This research aimed to advance understanding of how tacit knowledge might be harnessed at the individual level (i.e. by single actors) and at the organisational level (i.e. the multidimensional organisational configuration). Walsham (2006) noted that it is possible to draw out useful generalisations from a particular organisation, as "generalisations can take the form of concepts, theories, specific implications or rich insights" (p.322). In the present action research, the case study method presented itself as most suitable, as the focus is on a single organisation albeit the configuration under investigation is a multidimensional organisational. Simons (2009) described a case study as an in-depth exploration from multiple perspectives of the complexity and uniqueness of a specific project, policy, institution, programme, or system in a 'real-life' setting. While case studies can be conducted from either quantitative or qualitative perspectives, my intention evolved from adopting a qualitative perspective during the research design and then moving to a mixed-design approach later on. This decision was initiated by a professional move back to my home country challenging my explorative focus and so I had to reframe my philosophical assumptions about research methodology and methods.

The quantitative and qualitative research perspectives are frequently viewed as presenting, respectively, macro- and micro-level views of the social world (Gilbert, 2002, p.34). Quantitative methods are valuable in establishing the veracity of empirical social facts, but are less useful for explaining the motivations or reasoning employed by social actors (Acton et al., 2009, p.2). A prominent consideration for my shift in orientation was the rather closed nature of the organisation. As noted by Della Porta and Reiter (1998), various studies have found that police officers, due to the unique features of their occupation, develop a propensity for secretive behaviour and a tendency to distrust the civilian world. After I left the UN to move back to Switzerland, I had therefore to make a pragmatic decision about my research. The upshot was to adopt both quantitative and qualitative empirical methods to examine: 1) how organisational design and knowledge management strategies influence the elicitation or retention of tacit knowledge; and 2) how tacit knowledge interacts with major subsystems, thereby shaping knowledge flow. I selected two data-gathering techniques: self-administered questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, the latter being employed to gain rich, detailed, and contextualised inferences about the interests of this study. I should clarify that the methodology and methods selected for this study were not directed themselves at capturing tacit knowledge within this empirical context. Rather my concern lay with

helping the research participants elucidate ways in which the cultural or institutional set-up leaves certain kinds of knowledge either as implicit within the participants or informal to the organisation systems. The techniques for this elucidation are explained in detail later in this chapter but I should say at this point that I opted for these techniques on the basis of my knowledge of the organisation, with the design of the research instruments also being informed by the empirical context as described in the previous chapter.

This chapter is structured as follows. The first section offers a review of social science methodologies, which leads to a justification for the methodology that was adopted. The second section provides the grounds for the selection of the UN Police as the organisational and empirical context for this study. The third section provides an overview of the case study method for this particular organisation. The fourth section describes the methods of data collection and establishes the basis for using the questionnaire and interview techniques, along with the strengths and limitations of these techniques in data gathering. The section further addresses ethical considerations related to the use of questionnaires and interviews and the efforts made to secure an adequate ethical protocol. The fifth section includes the research plan, along with the pilot testing of the research instruments. The power dimensions and the sampling process are also described. The closing section discusses the coding, analysing, and transcribing processes along with the process of triangulation and framework for analysis.

4.1 Social science research perspectives

This perspective on social science research methodologies is included to provide a framework for the rationale of the adopted methodology. As mentioned earlier, social science research methodology is frequently classified as being either quantitative or qualitative, and this is useful as a means of highlighting both the intrinsic worth and the vulnerability of either approach (Bryman, 2001). In essence, positivist researchers support the suitability of the natural sciences as a model for the social sciences and strive to obtain objective data that they can take to be virtually free from bias or distortion. They do so usually at the cost of excluding individually nuanced understandings of the world that could more thoroughly inform our conclusions about social phenomena. Newman and Benz (1998) argued, somewhat simplistically, that the two paradigms should be considered as being at opposite ends of an epistemological continuum, rather than be seen as mutually independent. Within each of these paradigms exist different epistemological

positions; each position depicts a perspective that accommodates separate research positions and offers a perspective that includes different research implications for academic studies. Between these two extremes is an assemblage of ontological and epistemological assumptions governing the research methods. The selection of research methods would thus depend on the epistemological position of the researcher, which in turn is determined by the specific ontology to which the researcher subscribes, thereby shaping the ways in which the research is carried out. Hence, the philosophical position behind these paradigms is worth discussing in order to explain the potential benefits or pitfalls of each as they pertain to this research.

The quantitative approach often relies on a deductive or theory-testing approach and is designed to look at general propositions underlying theories and to apply them to distinct situations. These theories may not always be explicitly asserted, in which case the related background literature may be considered a substitute for theory (Bryman, 2001). However, much qualitative research, though not all, as mentioned above, tends to rely on an interpretivist philosophy for understanding the social world, based on an assessment of individual's interpretations of that world through the collection of qualitative data (Bryman, 2001). Qualitative researchers focus on the need to observe events and the social world through the eyes of the people they examine. They view context and environment as being major influences on social behaviour (Bryman, 2001). Accordingly, qualitative research is typically exploratory, fluid, flexible, data-driven, and context-sensitive (Mason, 2002).

While some qualitative research aims to gives rounded and contextual knowledge from sound, complex, and comprehensive data and thus may employ some form of quantification, the application of statistics is not indispensable. Inasmuch as other forms of qualitative research attempt to examine society through the eyes of the research participants, the onus on the researcher is no longer one of developing propositions whose validity relies on the accuracy of rationalisations of those propositions. Hence, qualitative research in an interpretive mode is more concerned with description rather than measurement. The main characteristic of qualitative research methods is that the process of data generation is both flexible and responsive to the social setting. This leads to the understanding that qualitative studies pose different research implications for academic studies. This is examined further in the next section.

4.1.1 Research perspective and justification for framing the study within the tradition of action research

Carr and Kemmis (1986) discussed how, as professionals in the discipline of social sciences and the humanities started to make inquiries into their own practices, research methodologies conceived for the pure sciences became less appropriate, and an alternative research paradigm was sought. In taking an interpretive research perspective, this research paradigm I adopted is founded on the assumption that social reality is not singular or objective, but is rather shaped by human experience and social contexts. In line with some of the precepts of Berger and Luckmann (1967), I had to carefully consider the socio-historical setting in my study by reconciling the subjective interpretations of its different contributors. I had to consider social reality as being embedded within—as well as impossible to abstract from—the social environment. It was necessary to interpret reality by means of a sense-making process.

By adopting an interpretivist research perspective, I also had to consider myself part of the social phenomenon under study and ascertain my distinct role and involvement in the research process (e.g. ethnography, action research, and participant observation) in the course of data collection and analysis. On the one hand, my experience put me in the position to be familiar with the language, signs, and meanings from the perspective of the participants involved. On the other hand, the danger of such familiarity is that of leading me to impose my own views to the detriment of missing what a more careful analysis might gain. I cover more aspects of this dilemma when discussing action research below.

Interpretive research has several unique strong points. It is well-suited for investigating covert causes or motivations behind complex, interrelated, or multifaceted social processes. It assists in better understanding inter-organisational relationships or inter-structure politics, where quantitative indications may be limited, inexact, or otherwise difficult to obtain. At the same time, interpretive research also has its drawbacks. This kind of research is often time- and resource-intensive in data collection and analytic undertakings. Insufficient data may lead to incorrect or ill-considered assumptions, while too large an amount of data may not achieve the desired results and may be difficult for the researcher to process. I therefore had to strike a balance amidst the findings and circumstances in the empirical context. Although interpretative approaches are usually associated with qualitative social science, they are equally applicable to the analysis of

quantitative data where statistics are utilised for uncovering unobservable data-inducing processes. This leads me to the justification for framing the study within the tradition of action research.

Organisation studies has provided an influx of diverse theorisations and research applications. According to Johnson and Duberley (2000, p.177), there are several and contrasting epistemological positions that validate their own unique ways of engaging with management and performing management research. For the most part, action research is favoured when occurrences demand flexibility, the participation of the people in the study, or rapid or holistic change. Action research has been presented as having two principal objectives. Firstly, it aims to lead to a change in practice. The second intent is to broaden or further refine theory—more specifically, in its local environment (Holter and Schwartz-Barcott, 1993). I present here a brief overview of action research and how this research design has evolved into a commonly used model for management research. As my research is concerned with the flow of knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration, I explain how this study has been framed and evolved. I also describe why other research models did not provide me with the right framework to carry out an analysis of the daily activities in this specific context, while I sought explanations for the effects such organisational configurations have, especially with respect to the flow of tacit knowledge.

To provide some context, Kurt Lewin is commonly accepted as the originator of action research and related approaches. He searched for an innovative methodology for his investigation (Lewin, 1946, 1947). Lewin's (1951) proposition is founded on the theory that individual behaviour is determined and affected by bounded physical constructs, as well as the psychological constructs in the minds of an individual when making sense of encountered situations. Considering the aim of this research, I considered both of these constructs as I was attempting to make sense of knowledge management practices and the flow of knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration. That is, I needed a research approach for gathering data with a focus on the relationship linking perception and action within this specific organisational design.

It is problematic to come up with a philosophical framework encompassing all types of action research studies. Therefore, to conduct this study as a quality piece of research, I meticulously considered the different contentions presented by Eden and Huxham (1996)

in their article on action research for management research. It was these characteristics and the pragmatism of their approach that guided me in designing an action research model, in which my professional experience, readings, considerations, and critical conversations with peers became crucial as I designed my own conceptual framework for this study. The principles that they put forward are represented by twelve contentions (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.84) and are distinctly hard to attain. This sense of standards assisted me in framing this research in connection to these principles and for legitimising this project as quality research.

4.1.2   Evolution of the research methodology and methods for this study

Action research is now a widespread research methodology. Claiming that action research has progressively come to be recognised by management researchers, Eden and Huxham (1996) state that "the common theme to which most users of it would subscribe is that the researcher output results from an involvement with members of an organisation over a matter which is of genuine concern to them" (p.75). They argue that the participation of practitioners in matters that truly concern them produce important insights that could not be obtained in other ways. Given this construct of action research, I adopted this research model as "The ability that action research has for linking theory with practice makes the outcome of action research potentially relevant, readable and persuasive to a practitioner as well as an academic audience" (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.83).

During the development of the framework for this action research, I was working in South Sudan for the UN, as I am a member of a pool of experts in civilian peacebuilding. In the UN Police system, while holding different positions during several tours of duty from 2002 to 2016, I advised and assisted law enforcement in international and post-conflict settings at the strategic, operational, and tactical levels of the organisation. During this time, I absorbed aspects of all the different cultures to which I have been exposed, and this varied cultural background helped me in my positions in this organisation as a manager dealing with dynamic and volatile situations. In these positions, it was common practice for me to exchange information, gather reports and statistics, and participate in meetings and forums on situations regarding the peacekeeping environment. During such exchanges of information, I became familiar and assessed situations in consultation with

representatives of various international institutions, which also helped me to determine a suitable methodology and methods of data-gathering for the study.

This action research aimed not only to generate knowledge in the domain of the project, but also to inform and suggest areas for consideration in similar organisational contexts (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.78). In April 2016, I had to return to Switzerland for professional reasons, and this unplanned transfer led me to transition from a more 'practical' approach, which reflected the UN organisation's values, to a more 'interpretivist' approach for this research. This shift from the practical focus influenced by the UN merits discussion, as my plans for this research unfolded in unexpected and unplanned ways; it challenged and reframed my philosophical assumptions about the research methodology, especially regarding data collection methods. After moving back to my home country, my perspective for this research therefore tended to be more interpretative in nature, although I did not prioritise any one methodology or method over the others. I had to consider that the principal sources of data were individual subject matter experts from the UN Police from different operational sites. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the robustness of data collected by a qualitative approach lies in the capacity to gain insight into the meanings individuals place on their lives through examining their lived experiences and applying such meanings to the social world. I initially decided to build a qualitative research study as a systematised investigation to discern answers to my research questions. Many methods for collecting data, ranging from in-depth ethnography to semi-structured or structured interviews, involve inquiries or discussions; the method selected depends on what the researcher wants to know. I accordingly looked into possible approaches such as ethnography, auto-ethnography, art-based methods, participatory creative method, and interview. My philosophical assumptions about the research methodology and methods were mainly informed by my academic, professional, and personal experiences and skill-set. I considered different forms of qualitative research to assess the strength and weakness of the possible methodological alternatives for this action research study.

In some methods, such as ethnography, the researcher is considered part of the social phenomenon. The ethnographic research method stems from the field of anthropology, which necessitates examining a phenomenon within its cultural setting. The main data collection in ethnography is participant observation with a 'sense-making' approach

based on the data collected and analysed. The strength of ethnography and observation combined was an attractive option, as this approach would have given me the ability to study events in real time directly within a multidimensional organisational setting. However, as Yin (2003) has pointed out, the weakness of this approach is its time-consuming nature and the obvious biases that may originate from my direct involvement as an employee as well as a researcher. So I looked at autoethnography as being an increasingly common professional practice. Autoethnography is a vast and ambivalent approach that embraces a range of practices (Ellingson and Ellis, 2008, p.449-450). It is a form of qualitative research in which I could reflect and write on anecdotal and personal experience from the empirical context of this research; this approach could have displayed highly personal accounts. This approach would have provided an interesting sociological understanding of the empirical context of this study (Sparkes, 2000, p.21). The strength of this approach was the prospect of viewing my professional experience differently in relation to various cultural settings, as well as the chance to reflect on the ethical aspects of the professional practices taking place (Denshire et al., 2012). However, the weakness of this approach when grounded in an interpretive paradigm is the risk of sounding self-indulgent and narcissistic (Coffey, 1999), and it is not well framed within the conventional criteria applied to consider qualitative inquiries (Holt, 2003, p.19). In the same pursuit of an adequate method, I looked at arts-based research, which has recently gained increasing popularity within qualitative inquiry. I contemplated arts-based methodology as a possible way to study the complex, dynamic, and interactional working environment of a multidimensional organisational configuration. The main strength of this approach is its awareness that there are several ways to understand the world, and it is possible to consider alternatives to the traditional tools of logic and rationality (Adler, 2006; Weick, 2007). Nevertheless, as with participatory creative methods, which could have been a powerful instrument for promoting active involvement in the research process with the study participants, and despite both approaches having interesting potentialities, it can be challenging for academic researchers to take advantage of these methods if concerned about fulfilling academic conventions. Indeed, Foster (2012) claimed that arts-based research provides less substantial knowledge than the more established methods of social inquiry. Thus, many scholars have remarked that arts-based and creative research methods take issue with well-established assumptions and conventions about what make up research in terms of both knowledge and impact, and it is burdensome for scholars using these approaches to obtain funding and support, or even

to publish their findings (Van Der Vaart, 2018, p.5). Nevertheless, both methods could have enabled me to build on my professional skills and experience within the empirical context and ethos.

These considerations brought me to the interview method, which, as a qualitative research approach, relies mostly on non-numerical data. The strength of an interview approach is that data collection and analysis can take place at the same time, especially in interpretive research. This was a compelling argument for an investigative study. An interview is an opportunity for the interviewer to actively engage with the research participants and the collected data, since interviews may be utilised both to follow up an informant's response or to substantiate the researcher's observations. According to Mason (2002, p.62), interactive dialogue in interviews supports the exploration of participants' views of a concept by following an approach that gives the respondent a voice. It is imperative to specify the particular characteristics of this method, as different kinds of interview technique generate different kinds of knowledge. For example, an interview can be performed either as an open-ended, unstructured conversation, or it can be conducted with a qualitative strategy or model that has a distinct central goal.

The purpose of this discussion of possible methodological alternatives for this action research was to identify possible methods that could be embraced not only by scholars and professional peers, but also by the UN organisation itself. Eraut (2000) asserted that researchers need to be both innovative and humble when investigating tacit knowledge, which can be methodologically challenging. Furthermore, Fuller and colleagues (2007) demonstrated that some areas of knowledge are difficult to access. Since the focus of this research was on individual predispositions in practice and by taking into consideration other possible methods, the options for a suitable principal method of data collection were therefore initially narrowed down to ethnography and interview. My ability to characterise and conceptualise particular experiences from this action research—making use of a case study in its empirical multidimensional organisational context in ways that make the study meaningful to others—was crucial in selecting a possible method of data collection. I had originally planned that this action research would adopt a practical focus by taking advantage of an ethnographic approach with prolonged periods of on-site observation and face-to-face interviews to collect qualitative data from the empirical context of this research. By taking advantage of action research in the UN Police's

everyday work activities, I aimed to form a particular proposition from the characterisation or conceptualisation of individual UN Police officers' experiences in ways that are meaningful to others (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.79). However, after moving back to Switzerland, it was not feasible or efficient to take this position any longer, as the methods of data collection were not practical due to the geographical distribution of the participants. To fulfil the requirements of this research, I had to bear in mind UN organisational values and requirements while considering the more general implications of the study. Taking these nuances into consideration, the next section explains the main features and expectations of this research.

4.1.3   The characteristics of the research design and outcomes

The appeal of action research is outlined by Bradbury (2013): "Action research is not a method, but an orientation to inquiry" (p.3). After a lengthy review of the literature on methodologies and methods, this action research is aimed, overall, at an interpretivist position focusing on a qualitative-dominated, mixed-methods approach to address the research questions. The orientation chosen therefore is a two-phase, embedded, single-case study, starting with a quantitative-predominated phase using a survey questionnaire to establish baseline information about the case study organisation and its approach to knowledge management within a multidimensional organisational configuration This is followed by a qualitative phase using semi-structured interviews. These characteristics of the research design and outcomes are now explained in more detail in this section.

Any investigation into knowledge must inevitably confront the lack of consensus as to what knowledge is (Calhoun and Starbuck, 2003). There is also the problem of determining the best methodological procedures for facilitating a better understanding of knowledge (Scarbrough and Swan, 2001). However, by virtue of my experience and different positions, I felt I already had a strong grasp of the situation, sufficient at least to carefully examined different methods of data collection and analysis. While I rooted this research in an interpretive strategy to understand how a multidimensional organisational configuration influences knowledge, the action research aimed at gathering rich data about what people do and say to generate propositions related to theories and concepts discussed in the literature review chapter. These guided the design of tools, techniques, and methods used for this research (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.79).

While case studies can be examined from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives, my initial intention as aforementioned was to adopt a solely qualitative design. At that stage the proposed work was exploratory in its analysis of the data, using established principles and methodology in emerging theory. As Denscombe (2005) contended, quantitative data can serve as a sound basis for debate and critique and I had aimed to develop a proposition from a synthesis of the data and the use in practice of the body of theory that informed the intervention and my intent (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.80). The grounds for using a quantitative method were found in the literature reviewed for this research problem, which demonstrated that a substantial amount of concepts could be examined in connection with the UN Police. For building and elaborating a proposal from practice as a result of this action research, I contemplated an incremental approach for moving from the particular to the general (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.80).

A deductive or quantitative approach to some aspects of the research design appeared therefore necessary and appropriate. This approach is broadly a non-experimental study that includes observations of social phenomena; it also considers similarities between different phenomena. A survey providing mainly quantitative data was adopted to guide the investigative efforts in the empirical context. This approach did not require the manipulation of variables. However, it falls within the quantitative paradigm, since I converted the data into numerical values solely to apply statistical analysis techniques and I subsequently generalised the findings to the group involved. This approach is presented in detail in the section describing the research methods.

Eden and Huxham (1996) wrote that "Presenters of action research should be clear about what they expect the consumer to take from it and present with a form and style appropriate to this aim" (p.80). The present study offers a thorough exposition of the potential associations among knowledge and its management, organisational design, evolving context, and the related dynamics. By making a pragmatic decision about my methods, I aimed with this action research to be clear about the goals of the study: to investigate the types of knowledge possessed by UN Police officers; the ways in which they approach the process of managing knowledge; their inclinations in harvesting knowledge; the possibilities their functions offer them for knowledge creation; how they grasp their present work; their expertise in the use of current knowledge management

tools;[5] the support they receive for managing knowledge; the feedback they receive; the rewards they receive from sharing their knowledge; and conversations and storytelling associated with these topics. In view of all this, I felt it was necessary to employ a methodological approach that would highlight these themes. As Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002) stated, "It is probably safe to say that certain phenomena lend themselves to quantitative as opposed to qualitative inquiry and vice versa in other instances" (p.48). According to Mason (2002), most qualitative researchers view knowledge as situational; the interview is as much a social situation as any other kind of interaction. Therefore, the qualitative and primary method applied in this study, whilst led by the quantitative findings of the self-administered questionnaires, is semi-structured interviews that assess individuals' views during exchanges of knowledge. The methodology takes advantage of a multi-methods approach for collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. This chapter is now moving towards the characteristics of the processes required to achieve the aim of the study by presenting explicitly the process, my role, and the participants' part in the emerging research content of each episode of involvement with the empirical context of this research (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.81).

4.2   Gaining research access

In line with action research, I had to include active participation from those who carry out the work within the given empirical context. Securing access to a group of participants whom the researcher wishes to interview or observe, or to whom he wishes to administer a questionnaire, can thus be a significant practical difficulty (McNeil and Chapman, 2005). Another important aspect of selecting these research methods was access to a sample of the UN Police population. Given the widely acknowledged difficulty of securing research access, especially with police organisations, the search for relevant UN Police missions for the purpose of this exploration started six months into the thesis research.

This process began with drawing up a research proposal that was tailored to the expected interests of the UN Police and which outlined the methods applied to carry out the study. That is, the proposal was an abridged variant of that presented for the thesis, with less academic material and more information on the practical implications of the findings for

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[5] For the purposes of knowledge sharing and organisational learning, resources and tools have been developed and deployed across peacekeeping missions.

the UN Police. An introductory letter with a specific access request was sent with the support of gatekeepers of the UN Police Division Headquarters in New York City (see Appendix 1).

The Head of the UN Police Division granted access and enabled the field research. As the first course of action in nearly all research is to determine the population to be considered (Gilbert, 2002, p.59), the research focused on identifying individuals with high levels of expertise who regularly had to interact and exchange knowledge with their colleagues. With the support of gatekeepers, I ascertained which UN Police officers and practitioners should be approached.

Due to the centrality to this research of knowledge and social interaction, the initial focus was on the UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations which had a significant UN Police component. Such missions are knowledge-intensive organisations having many civilian, police, and military experts. I identified and approached various subject matter experts from the pool of expert practitioners within the UN Police, who were considered subject matter experts because of their experience and knowledge, as well as their strategic, operational, and tactical responsibilities. The gatekeepers generated a list of subject matter experts and helped me invite the most suitable participants. Careful selection would ensure that what is characteristic of the sample is also representative of the entire population (McNeil and Chapman, 2005). The next section presents the process of exploration through an overview of the research case study.

4.3   The case study method

The experience of the research participants and the context of actions were critical for understanding the complex processes and interactions taking place within a multidimensional organisational configuration. Each procedural domain in every science is different, depending on its subject's form and texture (Thomas and Myers, 2015). Fuller and colleagues (2007) demonstrated that some areas of knowledge are difficult to access. Nevertheless, Thomas and Myers (2015) have observed that the case study involves viewing and studying something in its completeness, looking at it from many angles, and attempting to understand the interconnectedness of the elements comprising it. Regarding case studies from both a quantitative and a qualitative perspective, the former is related to exploring causation for the purpose of identifying underlying principles (Rudestam and

Newton, 2007). However, the case study method is a predominantly qualitative research method, involving the data collection of complex social objects from various sources and arranging them in a specific manner to evaluate a narrative that can be utilised as an instrument for unravelling circumstances, settings, and relationships. Like other qualitative methods, case studies endeavour to achieve knowledge creation without generalisation and with emphasis on the participants' viewpoints. This approach acknowledges that there are various truths and regards total objectivity as unattainable.

In contrast to a qualitative approach, Joia and Lemos (2009) adopted explanatory studies to identify the associated factors in tacit knowledge transfer within a state-owned Brazilian oil firm. Their research analysed the literature on tacit knowledge transfer within organisations and selected a quantitative approach founded on exploratory factor analysis. They collected data to determine the relevant factors for tacit knowledge transfer within the organisation. They then used a case study approach with a literature review, and a questionnaire was subsequently developed for the field study. In this context, it is vital to consider the deep rift often attributed to quantitative and qualitative research. I approached gathering data that are appropriate for the conditions of this study by carefully selecting the best methods from a variety of quantitative and qualitative options. The conceptual and procedural variations among these research techniques suggest that some approaches are better suited to studying specific phenomena than others: "The simplest way to distinguish qualitative and quantitative may be to say that qualitative methods involve research describing characteristics of people and events without comparing events in terms of measurements or amounts" (Thomas, 2003, p.1). For this study, I did not intend to explain causal relationships through experimentation, which would then be applied to produce numerical data or information and the analysis of which would lead to an inference being drawn. I did not opt for an experimental procedure starting with a proposal or, more specifically, a hypothesis. When considering previous research, I recognised that a variety of data collection methods had been used in studying tacit knowledge. Several studies employed one technique to gather preliminary data and another for the actual research. These researchers aimed to build a fuller and more comprehensive picture of social life by employing more than one method (McNeil and Chapman, 2005). In developing this case study method, I considered the fact that methodological pluralism could also assist with this study, framed by the ideas of action research. Following Eden and Huxham (1996), I aimed to explore data rather than just

collect data (1996, p.81). Therefore, the data are drawn from the subject matter experts based on their personal experience in the empirical context of this research. I adopted a qualitative case study method with a self-administered questionnaire to collect preliminary data, followed by a semi-structured interview that offered opportunities for conversation and storytelling as an effective means of gathering suitable data (see Table 2). These opportunities were crucial to this action research because storytelling is recognised as a valuable method of gaining insight not only to the event but to the context in which they take place. The deconstruction of stories can generate insights into embedded tacit knowledge (Bhardwaj and Monin, 2006; Snowden, 2002; Whyte and Classen, 2012). By looking at individual stories, I aimed to reveal multiple elements of knowledge (Ruggles, 2002).

Table 2. Action research framework

Case Study	Phase 1	▪ Survey
		▪ Preliminary data
	Phase 2	▪ Interview
		▪ Conversation and storytelling

Underlying these research instruments are more comprehensive philosophical views about how I understand social reality and the most suitable ways of studying it. However, it also explicitly demonstrates that the outcome of the data is informed by this action research framework as a method of exploration (Eden and Huxham, 1996, p.81). Taking into account the time and resource limitations of this research, I followed this path for this study.

4.4   Methods of data collection

Interpretive research uses a range of techniques for collecting data. The most frequently used techniques are interviews (e.g. focus groups, face-to-face, and telephone), direct and participant observation, and documentation. In order to demonstrate the validity and use of action research rather than other approaches, in this section I reflect on the methods of data collection and the processes I employed throughout this research. Action research can produce worthwhile insights with the appropriate research methods. To facilitate the design of the research instruments, it was essential to refer frequently to the relevant

concepts embedded in the literature, the specific setting of the study, and the aim of this research.

The first concepts to be examined were knowledge and knowledge management. These are very broad concepts, so I needed to consider their different dimensions to facilitate the formation of indicators (Bryman and Cramer, 1990). There are some dimensions associated with the concept of knowledge that are pertinent to this research. Knowledge as a strategic resource is one such dimension, as it includes all types of knowledge that are generated through different processes and mechanisms within an organisation. Furthermore, the concept of a cohesive organisational culture as it pertains to this research concerns organisational culture and leadership in relation to the dynamics of the organisation in the accomplishment of organisational goals, ensuring that knowledge and skills are broadly distributed (Schein, 2010).

Interviews vary in terms of the degree to which they are structured and are common occurrences in social life, in one form or another (Bryman, 2008). The structured end of the interview continuum reflects a more positivist position, often producing quantitative data regarding the probability of specific sets of conditions and for generating generalisations and laws. At the other end of the continuum, unstructured interviews can display divergent opinions about the social world and how it can be understood (CLMS, M1 U4). A structured interview is designed to show social phenomena and to explore the relationships among them. However, the purpose of the in-depth interview is exploratory, designed to make sense of how individuals construct the world, interpret their actions, and explicate their experience. Based on the definition of tacit knowledge used for this research, which posits that tacit knowledge requires an understanding of the social processes that determine its development (e.g. mental actions, the process of acquiring knowledge, and its socio-technical elements), I adopted the following instruments of data collection.

4.4.1 Online self-administered questionnaire

The questionnaire was adopted as a method to support the interviews for several reasons. Self-administered questionnaires are more convenient for participants because they can complete them whenever they want and at the speed they want. Instruments such as these are also less expensive and quicker to administer (Bryman, 2001). The questionnaire also

made it possible to obtain data from a larger sample than would have been possible with only the interview method in the timeframe available.

One of the main disadvantages of this approach is the potentially low response rate. I maximised the prospect of getting as many participants as possible to take part in the questionnaire activity. I gave most of my consideration to the survey introduction, as I thought this was important for ease of accessibility. The main point of the foreword was to engage the participants, and it therefore had to be to the point, with short and punchy sentences. I designed the questionnaire so that respondents felt they could afford to spend the time required to complete it. The questionnaire was long enough to gather the necessary data without being so long as to discourage some respondents from completing it. Furthermore, as Likert scales can be straightforward for some respondents and more arduous for others, I overcame this by developing dual routes, including answer options with comment fields. It was worthwhile to add this free-text section, where participants were encouraged to comment on anything related to their responses to the preceding questions. By ensuring that the questionnaire gathered information that I did not necessarily expect by adding final free-text sections, the denser questions with the most value presented themselves.

Diverse sorts of bias or distortion may exist in the application of self-completion questionnaires. For example, I could not be sure that the questionnaire was completed by the expected participants, nor that it was not completed in a group setting (Wilson, 1996). Furthermore, participants can omit or pass over some of the questions, the questionnaire alone would not allow the full range of human experience to emerge, and some significant data would be neglected. While the questionnaire could include information on how individuals perceive potential associations among knowledge management, organisational design, evolving context, and related dynamics, such a measure is limited in explaining their opinions of these matters. Based on the preliminary data, I developed a semi-structured interview.

4.4.2   Semi-structured interview

An unstructured interview is carried out with an open foundation, allowing for two-way communication, whereas structured interviews involve the interviewer having a fixed set of questions with which to gain answers from the respondents. Unstructured interviews

can be seen as prioritising the informant's concerns, while structured interviews impose the researcher's perspective. As this latter approach had already been adopted in part by the survey, I chose to adopt the method of semi-structured interviews.

A semi-structured interview approach attempts to get something of the best from both approaches, while avoiding the worst outcomes that could happen with either. For instance, by restricting themselves to broad topics, instead of setting precise questions, the interviewer can conduct the semi-structured interview more by way of a conversation. A conversational mode seeks to elicit the help of the informant in guiding the interview towards matters that might be important for analysis, rather than determining these beforehand. It therefore has the advantage of avoiding the interview degenerating into a monologue by the respondent, whereby they unleash a torrent of pent-up feelings about what might be an incidental matter that upset them personally, while also avoiding the interview degenerating into an interrogation, whereby the informant withholds what they think because they feel their own views are being treated as unimportant.

While the researcher sets themselves up to cover certain topics beforehand, the precise order of covering these need not be fixed in a semi-structured interview. This flexibility can further add to the conversational mode and to the appearance of the interview being largely unstructured. Here, the potential advantage is to see when and how the informant may raise an issue. The conversational mode can be sustained by having a set of prompts to facilitate further questioning of the response to a particular topic. While some key prompts are prepared in advance, others are formulated in the course of the interview.

A further aim of the questioning taking place in this conversational mode is to allow the interviewer to draw on their professional knowledge without permitting this to direct or dominate what the respondent has to say. The challenge was to discover opinions, interpretations, and individual appreciations of how and why things happen, and what these represent to those associated with the UN Police working in multidimensional peacekeeping missions around the world.

From the literature review (Chapter Two) and the discussion of this study's empirical context (Chapter Three), and given the primary research interest in understanding the changes in the processes, structures, and assumptions/concerns connecting the 'how' and 'why' of individual action with respect to work-related knowledge of the organisation,

the methodology had to point out elements of both conscious and less conscious activities. Because the outlined objectives required collecting detailed information about participants' past and ongoing experiences, the semi-structured interview method was a credible choice.

The semi-structured interview was expected to generate the desired data by allowing me to set prompts depending on the interviewees. During the interviews, I was prepared to be flexible regarding the order in which the topics were considered and, more significantly, to let the interviewees develop ideas and speak more widely about the issues raised by the prompts. This provided the opportunity to interact with both the participants and the collected data, to examine the experiences of participants based on their specific accounts, to address areas of concern, and to solicit clarifications.

By employing the semi-structured interviewing technique in a conversational mode, it was possible to get participants to talk about their specific experiences involving acts of knowledge creation and exchange (or the lack thereof) and to reflect on what factors affected their actions or inactions in specific situations. These data would enable analysis of the thoughts and considerations of the participants in relation to knowledge creation and management. This opportunity to probe responses further made this balance towards semi-structured interviewing particularly attractive.

To ensure the high quality of the collected data, and given the exploratory characteristics of the study, a conversational style was also employed to elicit additional information from the participants where appropriate. The questioning probed the personal experiences, observations, and storytelling of the participants and furthered strong comprehension of the situation. Storytelling proved to be an efficient tool in these interviews. On the whole, by making the interview more conversational, it was possible to ask participants to relate specific experiences that helped clarify or sustain their statements and to guarantee an understanding of connected meanings through the given illustrations. This could also be a pitfall, given the potential for this approach to deviate from the primary aim of the research. For example, Lofland and Lofland (1995), cited in Robson (2002), make the point that an interview guide "is not a tightly structured set of questions to be asked verbatim as written . . . Rather it is a list of things to be sure to ask" (p.281). Following this thinking, it was possible to mitigate potential pitfalls with the predetermined interview schedule (see Appendix 12). The questions and prompts helped

keep all interviews focused on the themes that were crucial to the research. This brings us to the design and the technique adopted for the research instrument.

4.4.3   Research instrument design and technique

The design of the research instrument began with the self-completed questionnaire for the subject matter experts. Due to the geographical distribution of UN peacekeeping operations around the world, this tool used a web-based platform. To prevent duplication of responses, participants interviewed in person did not receive a self-administered questionnaire. I used the data to ascertain how individuals perceive potential associations among knowledge management, organisational design, evolving context, and related dynamics. The analysis of the preliminary data assisted in developing prompts and in adjusting my approach to the interviews. The following describes in detail how the questionnaire was designed, along with the technique used.

An array of indicators was used to measure the concepts previously recognised in the literature. I took into account several issues when creating the self-administered questionnaire, including the questions to be asked, the wording, the order, and the design. The questions needed to be clear and straightforward using familiar vocabulary, including specific police jargon. These considerations were especially important because not all participants were native English speakers.

Quantitative data can yield a clear-cut starting point for discussion and critique—a solid foundation from which to develop an argument (Denscombe, 2005). The use of open-ended questions contributed to the collection of qualitative data and enabled an understanding of the issues surrounding the primary and secondary questions and the objectives of the proposed exploratory research.

The questionnaire consisted of 32 questions in English, divided into five sections: (1) a statement that proceeding to the questions was taken as consent, but that participants could withdraw at any time, followed by three questions on the experience and background of the participant; (2) eight questions on the organisational environment within the UN Police; (3) seven questions on the modus operandi of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate routine; (4) 14 questions on the type of actions and resources that would allow the UN Police to use knowledge in a practical way; and (5) a free-text section encouraging participants to comment on

anything that they might find important and that had not been addressed in the preceding questions. The first set of questions defined the position, experience, and responsibilities of the participants in the UN Police. This information supported identification of the participants' level of expertise. The second set of questions aimed to collect data for the primary research objective by targeting the organisational environment within the UN Police. The third set of questions was intended to shed light on the modus operandi of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate structure, with a focus on the organisational environment of the UN Police. It assisted me in identifying the extent to which the UN Police consider knowledge creation, harvesting, and managing as important considerations. The fourth set of questions examined the type of tactics, actions, and resources that would allow the UN Police to use knowledge in the form of know-how. Lastly, the free-text section was designed so that text analysis could search for and categorise open-ended responses.

To allow valid comprehension of the situation being observed by the UN Police, phone interviews were conducted along the lines of the qualitative end of the positivist/interpretivist continuum. These semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to see the work environment through the eyes of the research subjects. Some prompts were required to indicate what was relevant to this study and to avoid leading questions. In the interviews, I was free to alter probing sequences and look for more information. This manoeuvring afforded flexibility in the research instrument, which took into account different comprehension levels of the participants. It also enabled me to manage the fact that participants frequently raised issues intended for discussion later in the interview (Fielding, 1993).

As discussed above, the phone interviews were designed to avoid being overly structured. The conversational style helped in putting the participants at ease. Topics were divided among the following ten sections: (1) experience in UN peacekeeping multidimensional operations; (2) types of knowledge acquired by UN Police officers; (3) ways in which participants approach the process of managing knowledge; (4) inclinations in harvesting knowledge; (5) possibilities provided for knowledge creation; (6) how participants grasp their present work; (7) expertise in the use of knowledge management tools; (8) support received in managing knowledge; (9) feedback received; and (10) rewards that participants reap from sharing knowledge. These themes were mainly determined through

data obtained from the survey questionnaire. By being less formal and technical, the interviews invited participants to be expansive in their responses.

The interview technique was designed to keep the factual details that I needed outside the conversations. Topics occurred either naturally in the conversation or were elicited by a prompt from me. The first set of topics concerned the types of knowledge possessed by UN Police officers and their experience in the theatre of UN multidimensional peacekeeping missions. This approach allowed me to ensure that the participants' empirical experience and understanding were adequate for the purposes of the research. The next set of topics looked at the ways in which they approached the process of managing knowledge through cooperation, knowledge-sharing, lessons learned, and organisational learning. Subsequently, the topics focused on ways of harvesting knowledge and the possibilities for knowledge creation. The final topics concerned their perception as knowledge workers and their understanding of different types of knowledge (i.e. know-what and know-how), their expertise in the use of current knowledge management tools, and the feedback and rewards they received for sharing their knowledge. For example, interviewees were asked what knowledge they would like to pass on when they leave a UN post. These kinds of questions allowed for comparisons across subject matter experts and for determination of the extent to which they shared knowledge, good practices, or lessons learned. Participants were also asked how they would get up to speed with a new posting and were prompted further as to who would supply the necessary information. The interviews also explored subject matter experts' views on the perceived benefits of harvesting and managing knowledge, whether by capturing explicit knowledge (i.e. if it can somehow be codified) or retaining it in the form of skilled or permanent employees (i.e. if it is actually tacit). The objective was to obtain descriptive details on participants' perception of the concepts discussed in the literature. The interviews helped in exploring how far knowledge is identified, collected, and appropriated across the entirety of the UN Police and relevant key actors. Furthermore, the interviews functioned as a control for the cogency of the findings from the web-based questionnaires. It was also important to explore subject matter experts' perspective on having some modus operandi in developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate structure, as well as their views about a comprehensive framework for knowledge creation and conversion.

4.4.4 Ethical issues and how they were addressed

Because this action research was conducted in real-world conditions and necessitated straightforward conversation among the individuals associated with the study, I had to carefully consider ethical matters in the conduct of this research. The research was designed to avoid inducing unnecessary stress or risk to participants and to ascertain that the work had credibility and integrity. As participating in a research study can have a strong bearing on people's lives, I thought carefully about the consequences of the research so that no harm was done to the subjects or to society in general (McNeil and Chapman, 2005). The two most significant ethical concerns arising from the use of human subjects in social science research are obtaining fully informed consent and the need for subjects to emerge from the experience unharmed (Rudestam and Newton, 2007). This study was designed to answer the research question without asking subjects to reveal any confidential data. Before collecting the data, I informed the participants that the results of the research would be shared. Nevertheless, while I extended confidentiality to the participants, this could not preclude senior management or others inside or outside the UN Police identifying the source of that information. This possibility could have prevented participants from exposing facts or opinions relevant to the research, so it was an issue that had to be addressed. The determination not to use any other data collection methods was also informed by these ethical issues, most of which were addressed at the stage of gaining access and consent.

It was understood that the use to which the research data would be put would be of concern to participants and would affect their decision on whether to take part. This issue advanced the problem of gaining informed consent, an ethical issue in itself that relates to what is being asked of participants and what rights the researcher has in handling the information provided (Mason, 2002). I collected participant consent using a document developed and adapted from the UK Data Archive (2011) (see Appendices 3 and 6). Furthermore, I assured the participants that they were under no obligation to engage in the study and could withdraw at any time. It was made explicit that the results could be shared with other academics and professionals. To diminish any such impediment and to avoid harm to the participants, pseudonyms were used to preserve the anonymity of institutions and subject matter experts. Furthermore, I was conscious of concerns within the UN Police regarding the public disclosure of confidential information. Consequently,

the research focused on how the participants perceived their organisational environment, as well as the manner of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate structure.

In this action research project, directly affected parties were identifiable individuals from the UN Police whose rights or welfare could be adversely affected by my research procedures. Other third parties were individuals or organisations that could be adversely affected, but I could identify them beforehand. Properly coded referencing was used whenever an interviewee or questionnaire respondent was quoted. Furthermore, as explicit guarantees of confidentiality, no individual identifiers or IP addresses were captured when respondents completed the questionnaire. While conducting and writing up the research, no names of participants, individuals, or organisations were disclosed. I asked interviewees to review the transcripts of their interviews (see Appendix 13) and the related parts of the thesis before its submission, as they had the right to request modifications that could protect their anonymity and ensure accuracy. Therefore, individual participants received direct feedback from me only on their own participation; this allowed corroboration of the findings, but no original data were altered, and none of the participants had access to the data of other participants. Because the management, storage, organisation, analysis, and disposal of data were my responsibility, I minimised any risk of loss, unauthorised access, or transference of data to third parties; all information was kept on a password-protected and encrypted laptop.

All ethical concerns and research objectives were made transparent to all gatekeepers and participants, such as revealing that the main purpose of the research was to earn a qualification. This was explained initially through an e-mail and cover letter (see Appendices 4 and 7). Furthermore, I supplemented the selected participants' introductory e-mail with an information sheet (see Appendices 2 and 5) that provided a description of the aim of the study, discussion of informed consent, and an explanation of how withdrawal from the study would be handled. Sufficient information to make an informed decision about their participation was provided to the subjects in written form and then orally at the interview stage. To proceed to the survey, respondents had to confirm that they had read the information sheet explaining the purpose of the research and the implications of their involvement, and that proceeding to the questions would be taken as consent, but that they still could withdraw at any time. Furthermore, in

considering good research principles and practices, I endeavoured to avoid questions, stories, or discussions that might involve past traumatic experiences. If a question could potentially trigger an involuntary or suspected traumatic event, I would have reiterated that the participant's involvement was strictly voluntary. I considered multiple factors, including highlighting the importance of the research, the rapport that I could establish with the interviewee, and the extent to which the participant felt adequately appreciated. Such considerations reinforced the need to convey to participants clearly the aims of the research and its potential risks and benefits.

4.5   Research plan

The following research plan was developed, and matters that merited consideration as they emerged were also taken into account.

- Provide clear and concise information regarding the aim of the study to all participants (e.g. objectives, gatekeepers, and other key players, time involved, necessary commitment, voluntary participation, and informed consent).
- Provide specifics about how consent is obtained and stored. Explain clearly how withdrawal from the study is handled.
- Compare the risks and benefits of participating to the participants.
- Display how the data are recorded, stored, and analysed.
- Describe how participant privacy is ensured.
- Explain how data and associated findings obtained from the analysis are utilised in terms of research reports, potential publications, and availability to participants.

Gorman and Clayton (1997) have pointed out that qualitative research proceeds forwards and backwards throughout the course of the project. Consequently, adjustments were made at each step of the data collection to inform the subsequent phase and to allow for constant adjustment of the research plan. The following summarises the execution of this plan.

The fieldwork was carried out between April and September 2017. The initial contact was made by telephone with the UN Police Division based in New York, followed by detailed e-mails. The process of securing access began with a research proposal that was tailored to the expected interests of the UN Police and that explained the methods of the

study. This proposal was an abridged version of that presented for this thesis, with less academic material and more information on the practical implications of the findings for the UN Police. An introductory letter addressed to the main gatekeeper with a request to access the UN Police organisation for this research was sent to UN Police Division Headquarters. After authorisation was granted, and after a phone call to introduce myself and give a clear picture of what would be required for this research, copies of the research proposal and questionnaire were sent by e-mail to the principal gatekeepers. With the support and advice of all gatekeepers, I ascertained which operational sites and subjects should be approached.

The main gatekeeper was a strategic adviser to the Head of the UN Police at the UN Headquarters based in New York. The principal gatekeepers were working at the Police Division, and the gatekeepers were UN Police advisers posted at the strategic, operational, and tactical levels. Together, we ascertained which UN Police components, officers, and practitioners should be approached. With their help, I considered the representativeness of the group of participants. This sample was carefully invited, allowing me to conclude that what was true of the sample was also true of the entire population. I informed the gatekeepers that they could not have access to any data collected at any time, and that their role consisted only of assisting me in generating the necessary number of subject matter experts and advising me on selecting the most suitable operational sites and participants. The gatekeepers would not know which subjects accepted or declined to participate. In the case of Operational Sites A and B and with the help of the gatekeepers from these sites, the information sheet and consent document were sent by e-mail to the participants in advance. The participants who received the questionnaires were asked to complete them as soon as possible with a deadline of three weeks; a reminder was sent three days before the deadline, and as the questionnaires were returned, I analysed the participants' answers. After the analysis of these data, the semi-structured interview process began. With the support of the same gatekeepers, I ascertained which UN Police subject matter experts from these operational sites should be approached for the interview.

4.5.1 Pilot study

Questionnaires and interview schedules should be drafted, tested, edited, and tested again before being employed for any study (Gilbert, 2002), and pilot testing of the research

instruments was therefore a critical aspect of this research process. This pilot phase was necessary to ensure that the research instrument(s) worked as intended (Bryman, 2001). To assess the techniques for the actual data gathering, a pilot study with comparable volunteer participants was conducted to determine whether the line of questioning and the documents were clear and easy to understand. With particular regard to the questionnaire, it was necessary to ensure that the questions were clear and intelligible to the participants, given that they were required to complete them without my presence. The questionnaire and interview schedule were therefore tested on two occasions with two different groups of volunteers. The samples for both tests comprised subject matter experts from each of the categories that the research was intended to cover (i.e. individuals with working experience in UN Police missions at strategic, operational, and tactical levels). This pilot exercise resulted in some minor alterations to the layout and format. The process used to test the research instruments is discussed below.

An introductory e-mail was sent, along with the web link to access the questionnaire. The e-mail explained the purpose of the research and provided some background information. I also attached to the e-mail an information sheet describing the aim of the study, explaining informed consent and how withdrawal from the study would be handled. Participants were asked to read the e-mail and attachments to indicate their understanding of the study's goals and to provide feedback by e-mail. The level of understanding among the groups was deemed to be adequate, and no significant alterations were necessary. When the web-based questionnaires were completed, the participants were asked for feedback by e-mail with respect to the clarity and precision of the questions. They were also asked for any recommendations for improving the questions. After the pilot testing and subsequent data analysis, minor improvements were made to the questionnaire based on participant feedback. Then, volunteers from the groups were solicited to pilot test the interview schedule. Here, the interviews fulfilled the intended purpose of obtaining more qualitative information, and the conversational approach definitely provided rich material. Minor improvements were made based on this step.

4.5.2 Power dimensions and the sampling process

The power aspect in regard to the sampling, with my extensive experience with the UN Police, might have been perceived by the sample population as being somehow connected to the authority of the organisation. Accordingly, I established sound and transparent

relationships with the target population by way of personal involvement and different interaction via an intermediary (i.e. a gatekeeper) close to the group. The research purposes were thoroughly explained to reduce any anxiety about participation. By minimising any possible change in behaviour from the group selected, the quality of the data was ensured.

Other crucial points for the research included the need to consider carefully the limitations of access, time, and funds, as well as the vast size of the UN Police, which required the use of an adequate sample population in an attempt to keep the research manageable. Apart from the comparison between the samples selected from different UN peacekeeping missions, the data were expected to examine the concepts reviewed in the literature in the context of the UN Police when deployed as a component of a UN peacekeeping multidimensional mission. With the help of the gatekeepers, I carefully considered the representativeness of the participants.

While none of the UN Police raised fundamental objections in principle to taking part in the research, the process of gaining agreement of all these elements took some time due to normal operational pressures and the associated difficulty of contacting individuals at a convenient time for them to consider the request. The purpose of inviting these research participants was to sound out those with strategic, operational, or tactical responsibilities with regard to operational management and policy development within the organisation. Their views and interpretations of field operations ultimately shaped the adopted policy or its implementation within the UN Police; consequently, they were key individuals for the survey and interviews.

4.5.3   Participant profile and access

Following an interpretive research approach, I aimed to select for this action research participants and operational sites from the empirical context of this study, based on theoretical considerations (i.e. fit the aim and objectives of the study) and possessing the characteristics that make them uniquely suited for this research. The UN Peacekeeping Operations Fact Sheet (UN, 2017) shows that on 30 April 2017, there were 16 peacekeeping operations in the world, with 10 missions involving UN Police, comprising 12,340 uniformed personnel. During the fieldwork for this thesis, these statistics were examined to ensure that the figures were as detailed and accurate as possible. During the

fieldwork period, the UN peacekeeping operation comprised approximately 8,287 trained UN Police operating as cohesive specialised units that were deployed and lightly armed to protect UN personnel and facilities and to take preventative and reactive measures to control threatening crowds and civil disturbances. However, in UN peacekeeping operations, the role of the individual UN Police officers is broader than that of the formed police units. Approximately 4,053 UN Police officers work in training, capacity-building projects, and security sector reform tasks. With related mandates, the tendency is to use these UN Police officers to assume the temporary role of local security forces to maintain law and order. These officers were the most suitable for this study because of their work, experience, and knowledge, as well as strategic, operational, and tactical responsibilities. Table 3 shows the breakdown of these UN Police components in UN peacekeeping missions in April 2017 (UN, 2017).

Table 3. Breakdown of UN Police components

#	Missions	Formed Police Units	Individual Police Officers	Total
1.	MINUSCA	1,427	304	1,731
2.	MINUSMA	984	323	1,307
3.	MINUSTAH	1,652	739	2,391
4.	MONUSCO	1,050	310	1,360
5.	UNAMID	1,806	1,449	3,255
6.	UNFICYP	0	69	69
7.	UNISFA	0	23	23
8.	UNMISS	989	636	1,625
9.	UNMIK	0	9	9
10.	UNMIL	379	191	570
	TOTAL	8,287	4,053	12,340

Based on the field dynamics of UN Police operations around the world, the centrality of knowledge and social interaction required for this research, and the advice of the gatekeepers, operational sites A and B were invited to participate. The same data

collection strategy for the single division (i.e. UN Police component) deployed in two different operational sites was employed.

The focus was on UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations with a significant UN Police component. Fifty UN Police officers from each of the selected operational sites were chosen to complete questionnaires according to the following criteria:

- ➢ A minimum of six respondents at the strategic level.
- ➢ A minimum of 14 respondents at the operational level.
- ➢ A minimum of 30 respondents at the tactical level.

It was expected that some participants from the first wave of invitations would not complete the survey. By working closely with the gatekeepers, I designed as many waves as were needed to obtain the minimum required sample size.

For the second phase of this research (which started one month after the first phase), the total sample size for the interviews was 24 participants. These subject matter experts from the UN Police came from the same two multidimensional UN peacekeeping missions that were selected for the self-administered questionnaires. Importantly, to prevent duplication, the participants selected for the interview did not receive the self-administered questionnaire. UN Police officers from each of the selected operational sites were invited:

- ➢ Two participants from the strategic level.
- ➢ Four participants from the operational level.
- ➢ Six participants from the tactical level.

The invitations for the questionnaire and interview were important, as they reflected the pyramid structure of the police components within the multidimensional UN peacekeeping missions. That is, fewer positions are available at the top of the pyramid than at the bottom. Sufficient written and oral information was given to the participants to make an informed decision about their participation. This approach ensured that the minimum number of participants with the required profile from the invited missions was achieved.

4.5.4 Data collection process

During extended engagement in fieldwork, I worked closely with the gatekeepers to invite respondents from both sites and to organise the data using a web-based, self-administered questionnaire (see Appendix 8). The data generated ideas and points that required additional consideration and inquiry through semi-structured interviews. The experiences and backgrounds of the participants, which were essential for this research, were carefully analysed to ensure that the sample was representative of the UN Police. Owing to the closed nature of the organisation, I deliberately used the gatekeepers to select subject matter experts to receive the survey's web link. Because the surveys were easily accessible and distributed with the endorsement of the organisation, the response rate was high, and answers were expected to be unbiased. All collected data went through a thorough process of sorting and analysis before conducting the interviews.

The semi-structured interview, lasting approximately 30–45 minutes, was adopted for the proposed research. Twenty-four interviews were conducted, averaging 35 minutes each; the longest lasted 50 minutes, and the shortest almost 25 minutes. The principal prompts remained the same during each interview. While taking care not to affect the validity of the answers, I delved for more material when the opportunity presented itself. All interviews were conducted and recorded by myself via telephone. The inability to interview these participants in person was essentially due to the geographical distribution of UN peacekeeping operations. The reduced interviewer influence counterbalanced the loss of natural context and balanced the distribution of interactive power (Shuy, 2002).

While 24 interviews might be viewed as a modest sample size, this number was considered adequate to meet the research requirements, as a great deal of valuable data was gathered. Each interview had the potential to generate content (Paget, 1999). For this study, the research question was exploratory in nature, and the interviews were intended to elicit the experiences of the participants. Although the sessions were guided by a predesigned interview schedule, each interview developed according to the answers given by participants. Additionally, where a participant tended to place weight on or intentionally sweep aside particular concerns seen as applicable to the research, the possibility existed to drive the interview in that direction, thus making each interview unique. Considering that they were asked to address their personal experiences, the bulk

of the participants were keen to provide examples and stories to establish their views, thus adding to the abundance of data.

During the interviews, extensive written notes were taken, and the interviews were recorded only with the interviewees' approval. The interview notes were examined after each interview, allowing me to check the recorded answers with the respondents. I also reassured the interviewees that all data would be kept confidential, and that notes and transcripts would be made accessible for further study only with their consent. Both the quality and the quantity of data exceeded expectations—the interviewees spoke candidly, and the collaboration was fruitful. Crucial to the quality of the data was the fact that I was well acquainted with the subject and the organisation. I was able to make use of my knowledge and skills to gain access to the group and genuinely interact with the interviewees. Therefore, participants appeared to understand the research purpose, and the truthfulness of their views can be assumed.

4.6   Coding, analysing, and transcribing data

In maintaining meticulous data management analytic procedures, I used manual coding and analysis as an alternative to standard analysis software packages such as NVivo or Qualtrics. This approach was chosen for two reasons: firstly, the number of questionnaire respondents (100) and the number of interview participants (24) was small enough to permit manageable manual processes. Secondly, manual coding, analysing, and transcribing gave me a better grasp of the data, and this approach preserved the intrinsic meaning of the context of the data collection. Furthermore, by personally conducting the manual coding, analysis, and transcription of the quantitative and qualitative data, I maintained a continuous flow in the process of analysis. McNeil and Chapman (2005) have stated that qualitative data is in the form of words rather than numbers, and I indexed, coded, and conceptualised all qualitative data and used multiple textual tools for analysis. The transcripts were prepared so that the meanings and extracts of the experience of the whole group of interviewees were promptly identifiable. All the qualitative data from the questionnaires and interviews were reviewed immediately, following the suggestion of Miles and Huberman (1994).

Previously, in the literature review chapter, I drew on the work of Giddens and other social theorists to argue that it is practical life that brings meaning to social reality.

Therefore, the coding, analysing, and transcribing of data from the interviews has been intended to unwrap, as Giddens (1984) might put it, communicative events. These accounts and communicative events circulate meanings and help imply what has meaning in this empirical context of this study. As a result of a mode of gradual probing in conversation, I helped the research participants to reflect better on what circulates unreflectively in the conversations. I drew on the distinction between 'practical' (i.e. what is characteristically simply done) and 'discursive' (i.e. what can be said) consciousness by pointing to areas where the participants were able to verbalise what they previously may have taken for granted and thought little about—in other words, I helped them in making the transition from 'practical' to 'discursive' consciousness. Therefore, I tied 'explicit' and 'tacit' knowledge to the distinction between 'practical' and 'discursive' consciousness as a proxy in setting up my interviews. For example, when a researcher asks interviewees to narrate 'a typical day', this is not just to put them at ease with an easy question. To the contrary, many interviewees are surprised by the notion that they even have a typical day. This is what Berger and Luckman (1967) call 'routines and repetition', which help in shifting the interviewees from the 'tacit' in practical consciousness towards the 'explicit' in discursive consciousness.

It is important to highlight that the qualitative data from the interviews are rooted in the accounts (Munro, 1997, 2001) that the subject matter experts offered as they drew on their genuine field experiences. This is not to deny the validity of the views, but rather, to recognise that accounts draw on the language in use that is circulating among 'members' (see also Garfinkel, 1967). Garfinkel not only denied that the world of action can be made fully transparent through the medium of words, but also stressed the importance of projections of 'competency' in the giving of accounts. People's actions are "visibly rational and reportable for all practical purposes, i.e. 'accountable'" Garfinkel (1967, p.vii). Munro (2016) put forward that his preliminary studies suggested that language used in keeping experience and storing stories not only apprises what we are aiming to discern, but also shapes itself accordingly to do so. Munro further argued that "Inasmuch as language is always and already busy 'folding' up the affect of our experiences into stories and other mnemonic devices, the landscape we look out from is intricate, convoluted, motile and recessive" (2016, p.436).

My aim here is to recognise that the words recorded by me in interviews or used by participants in the surveys do not directly represent exactly what happens in practice. I am not attempting to argue an ethnomethodological position, so much as identifying a need for vigilance in my drawing on what the interviewees expressed. That being said, my focus has not been on the verisimilitude of each individual's account, but rather, on picking up on how the language in use is formed within the empirical context of the research process. Listening, writing, reading, and re-reading the research material formed by the collected narratives of the interviewees made the discernment of patterns possible. For example, while straightforward replies to the prompts in the interviews and alongside the survey material were important to document when building a picture of what is deemed formal or explicit, it is from what these elements left aside—or from pieces of reflection that include moments of awkwardness, hesitation, or even denial—that I developed what seems to be considered either 'tacit' by the organisation or is 'unnoticed' by the research participants. Following this approach, and by assembling the data from the outset of collection, I was able to generate labels or codes and make revisions. Memos were written and, as the analysis process allowed, they suggested ideas and points that required later consideration and inquiry. This approach was framed in a process of triangulation and analysis that is now detailed in the following section.

4.6.1   Process of triangulation and framework for analysis

Framing the study with ideas of action research, I recognised and was involved with the social systems of which I was unavoidably a part. I actively engaged with others in the critical exploration of complex and dynamic points at issue, which connected to the relationships linking individuals and their physical and socio-cultural settings (Bawden, 1991, p.40). Distinct research aims demand distinct research designs and analysis techniques (Knafl and Howard, 1984). This action research aimed to solve a practical problem within a multidimensional organisation configuration, and to generate new knowledge and understanding of the effects of this organisational configuration on the flow of knowledge. This study had to make a distinctive, original contribution to knowledge; therefore, this action research project progressed through two different phases to make a distinct contribution. These two phases involved participants from two separate sites. The understanding gained in the first phase helped in reflecting on the

participants' inputs to inform the second phase for each site involved in the study; this approach supported the data collection and the analysis work for both sites.

Eden and Huxham (1996) claimed that "triangulation of research data is invariably critical in understanding uncertainty in interpretation or measurement […] and triangulation should be taken advantage of as a dialectical device which strongly assist in the gradual development of theory" (p.83). Therefore, the multi-method approach for this research allows findings to be corroborated or questioned by correlating the data produced by various methods (Denscombe, 2005). Nevertheless, Denzin and Lincoln (2008, p.300) also suggested that a triangulated account depends not only on the combination of methods and sources, but also on an array of methodological strategies reflecting principles of order and action. Therefore, triangulation is able to deepen our current understanding; it may also accommodate, to some extent, the 'distortions' caused by data collection methods. This was an important aspect of this action research. The key reason for adopting a mixed-methods study to gather data was the prospect of taking advantage of a number of types of triangulation, as conventionally conceived in the social sciences. As the data collected in all the interviews were from various sources and at varying periods of time, it was feasible to have data triangulation to some extent (Easterby-Smith et al., 1991). Furthermore, the methodological strategies of the data collection techniques, selected in combination through triangulation with two operational sites and the different organisational level of this empirical context used for this study, I limited bias that could distort the findings.

As stated by Eden and Huxham (1996), "The history and context for the intervention must be taken as critical to the interpretation of the likely range of validity and applicability of the results (p.84). Here, it is relevant to highlight that the complexity of social systems implies that the task of carrying out social investigations is neither easy nor straightforward regarding establishing sound knowledge and how to obtain it. For this research, I could not heuristically or logically determine the best approach unless I reflectively considered the role of the participants, the situation to be examined, and the wider context of the research. According to Alvesson and Karreman (2005), discourse analysis as a qualitative method is involved in identifying and analysing interpretive frames. To interrogate and interpret the data, I relied on a version of discourse analysis (i.e. content analysis) as a qualitative method to help me with knowledge management-

related matters with respect to the empirical context of this research. The phrases and words utilised during the conversation with the research participants provided insights into the sense they made of the described events. Aiming at a practical, hands-on qualitative analysis for this study, I developed a qualitative content analysis that goes further than merely counting words to examining language intensively with the intention of classifying a large amount of text into an organised number of categories that illustrate comparable meanings (Weber, 1990). Discourse analysis in this framework was a way of learning about the research participants through conversations about their everyday work and organisational environments. It helped me to identify the practices participants used to transmit their experience between peers and the different dimensions of the empirical context of this research.

Applying discourse analysis to the audio recordings of the interviews and following a systematic methodological process of content analysis, it was important for this research that I specifically delineate the framework of analysis used in this study. This qualitative analysis depended heavily on my analytical and integrative skills and knowledge of the empirical context for this study. The complexity of the data necessitated that I reflect creatively on the methodology that I anchored in a content analysis approach for a versatile analysis of textual data (Cavanagh, 1997). I needed to transcribe the interview texts and transform a large amount of text into a highly organised and concise summary of key findings to "provide knowledge and understanding of the phenomenon under study" (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992, p.314). I focused mainly on the question with practical relevance for knowledge management for emerging point of interests for this research (e.g. transfer of knowledge between subject matter experts and the different dimensions). My initial step was to become well acquainted with the interview texts (e.g. who says what, to whom, why, to what extent, and with what effect) by reading them carefully to get a general understanding of the main points expressed by the research participants. Then, for adequately approaching each step of the qualitative assessment process, I followed Schilling's (2006) guidelines for decision and action. From the interview audio recordings, I determined the formal aspect of the transcript (i.e. programme, font, size, margins, and model). After transcribing the interviews accordingly, I condensed my records from the raw data and started the division of the text into smaller units. From the condensed records, I carefully situated each statement in a category system for retaining and displaying the core meaning related to the purpose of the study. This content analysis

offered a flexible, pragmatic approach for developing and extending the knowledge flow within a multidimensional organisational configuration.

4.7   Concluding remarks

This chapter has given a concise reflection of social science research methodologies to support the decisions that were taken regarding the research design and methods. The rationale for the approach taken in this study was explained by focusing on the ontological and epistemological assumptions that determined the choice of a self-administered questionnaire and semi-structured interviews as data collection instruments.

The design of the research instruments was explained in detail for both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The chapter demonstrated the attentiveness that went into data collection by addressing the ethical issues that were considered during the design stage and how these issues were handled during the research process.

The chapter detailed how the research instruments were pilot tested and described how access to the UN Police was arranged. It also explained the selection process for the research sample and concluded with profile details of the sample, fieldwork, and how the data were subsequently displayed and analysed. By discussing the actual process of securing research access, the ethical considerations taken in data collection, and the framework for analysis, it has been possible to maximise the due diligence applied in ensuring a productive research study.

Chapter 5: Preliminary Results of Phase 1—Survey

5.0   Overview

This chapter provides a detailed presentation of the preliminary analysis of the data from the questionnaires. Phase 1 is a predominately quantitative analysis of results supported by tables and numbers from the survey, where I identified and allowed comparative remarks between and across sites and organisational positions to emerge. The questionnaire (see Appendix 8) was framed around the aims, objectives, and themes on which the research is based. Only a limited number of participants skipped some of the questions. I give full percentage numbers without any values after the decimal point by rounding up or down. By shedding light on the research objectives and themes (see Chapters 1, 2, and 3), the questionnaire provided useful data with reference to the empirical context. In the following sections, the responses from both operational sites are aggregated for each theme that emerged in the design of the research instruments; the tables for the quantitative data are presented in Appendices 9 and 10.

5.1   Multidimensional organisational environment and practices taking place

The first objective of the questionnaire was to target the organisational environment and identify the characteristics of its practices. Analysis of the first question demonstrated that 78 per cent of the respondents from Operational Site A consider the UN Police elements to be well acquainted with the multidimensional organisational configuration of UN peacekeeping missions. The following comment from one respondent illustrates this point: "To a great extent, the UN Police are conversant with the multidimensional approach of peace missions" (Strategic level #A6). As with Operational Site A, analysis of the first question for Site B demonstrated that 91 per cent of the respondents (47 per cent strongly agreed, 44 per cent agreed) considered the UN Police elements to be consistent with the multidimensional organisational configuration of the UN peacekeeping missions. In response to the question about the organisational fit of the UN Police with other UN components (i.e. military and civilian) within a UN multidimensional peacekeeping mission, 87 per cent of the respondents from site A (45 per cent strongly agreed, 42 per cent agreed) seemed to confirm what one respondent wrote: "All three components are equal and complement each other" (Operational level #A8). The following comment from a respondent from site B also illustrates this

point to some extent: "Each component has specific tasks to accomplish. However, a component alone cannot achieve the mandate given to the Mission" (Operational level #B72). In response to the question concerning the organisational balance between the UN Police and other UN components (i.e. military and civilian), the responses from Operational Site B (58 per cent strongly agreed, 36 per cent agreed) confirmed that the components in the two operational sites are equal and complement one another. These results therefore indicate that the empirical multidimensional organisational configuration has some global, standardised management systems (Galbraith, 2010, p.6). In addition, command and control in such missions are deemed clear by 78 per cent of the respondents from the Operational Site A. However, 95 per cent (22 per cent strongly agreed, 73 per cent agreed) agreed that a lack of information flow occurred among the civilian, military, and police dimensions. Similarly, 89 per cent of the respondents from Operational Site B perceived the command and control in this mission to be clear (39 per cent very clear, 50 per cent clear) and as having the same obstruction of information flow (9 per cent strongly agreed, 69 per cent agreed) among the civilian, military, and police dimensions.

As transferring, sharing, and gaining knowledge through different organisational dimensions can be carried out through a variety of communication modes (Argote and Ingram, 2000; Argote, McEvily, and Reagans, 2003), these results presented a possible area for continued development and inquiry through semi-structured interviews. Additionally, based on these findings, the majority of respondents from the first site (58 per cent) indicated some difficulties in handling interactions among these components. However, the majority of respondents from the second site (53 per cent) had no difficulties handling these interactions. This warranted additional inquiry through interviews. Concerning the UN Police's use of knowledge gained from action reports, inquiries and reviews, or investigations obtained from any other part of the organisation, 62 per cent of the respondents from Operational Site A indicated that such knowledge is put to use in other parts of the organisation, with 18 per cent saying no, and 20 per cent not being sure. Site B has a similar result (69 per cent), which clearly supported the use of such knowledge in other parts of the organisation (14 per cent no, 17 per cent not sure).

In Operational Site A, 44 per cent agreed (4 per cent strongly agreed, 40 per cent agreed) that the actual management system discourages genuine reporting. Almost half of the

respondents (49 per cent) indicated that the management system does not blame individuals, with 31 per cent saying yes, and 20 per cent not being sure. By contrast, most respondents from Site B disagreed (61 per cent) that the actual management system discourages genuine reporting, with 64 per cent reporting that the management system does not blame individuals (25 per cent yes, 11 per cent not sure). Linking these significant scores under these knowledge-sharing behaviours and practices underlines to some extent the characteristics of the members of the organisation (Suppiah and Sandhu, 2011). Therefore, these results were potentially interesting in terms of employees, leaders, and managers, including the processes of sharing knowledge and meriting further investigation of both operational sites.

5.2   Developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge

The second objective of the questionnaire was to target the modus operandi of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from the individual to the corporate routine. The analysis of the first question at Operational Sites A (75 per cent) and B (79 per cent) highlighted that for most respondents, the structures and procedures of analysing and sharing knowledge and good practices are straightforward. However, the following comment from a respondent highlighted an interesting point: 'It is dependent on the leadership and the restrictive rules. It is often up to individuals to show interest in harvesting their expertise and knowledge' (Tactical level #A31). A majority of respondents (69 per cent for Site A and 73 per cent for Site B) reported that military, police, and civilian components share knowledge with each other. The majority of the respondents (75 per cent for Site A and 84 per cent for Site B) perceived that in a UN peacekeeping mission, the UN Police manages knowledge; within the UN Police, the directives, guidelines, and standard procedures all seem to be clearly based on substantiated good practices and lessons learned (14 per cent strongly agreed, 62 per cent agreed from Site A; 32 per cent strongly agreed, 55 per cent agreed from Site B). Analysis of the question on factors at work that might hinder harvesting knowledge in the UN Police found that 42 per cent of the respondents from Site A agreed that factors might hinder the acquisition of knowledge, with 33 per cent saying no, and 25 per cent not being sure. Similar results were found with Site B (30 per cent yes, 21 per cent not sure). This finding presented a possible area for continued development and required subsequent inquiry through semi-structured interviews to arrive at a better understanding of what is

shared and what is not to identify factors that might interfere with knowledge acquisition. The respondents from Site A (63 per cent) were aware of lessons learned about UN Police activities, rehearsals, and exercises being shared with the military and civilian components of the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations for advice and evaluation. Figure 3 shows how the respondents perceived and weighted the factors introduced to support efficient UN Police operations in Site A from least to most critical.

Figure 3. Site A: Factors supporting efficiency of UN Police operations from least to most critical

Comparably, most respondents from Site B agreed (18 per cent strongly agreed, 52 per cent agreed) that lessons learned about UN Police activities, rehearsals, and exercises were shared with the military and civilian components of the UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations for advice and evaluation. The overall data in this section gives a basis for the concept of a cohesive organisational culture as it pertains to this empirical context for examining whether knowledge and skills are broadly distributed (see Schein, 2010). The results concerning the factors that support the efficiency of UN Police operations required further inquiry through semi-structured interviews. Figure 4

shows how the respondents perceived and weighted the factors that support efficient UN Police operations in Site B from least to most critical.
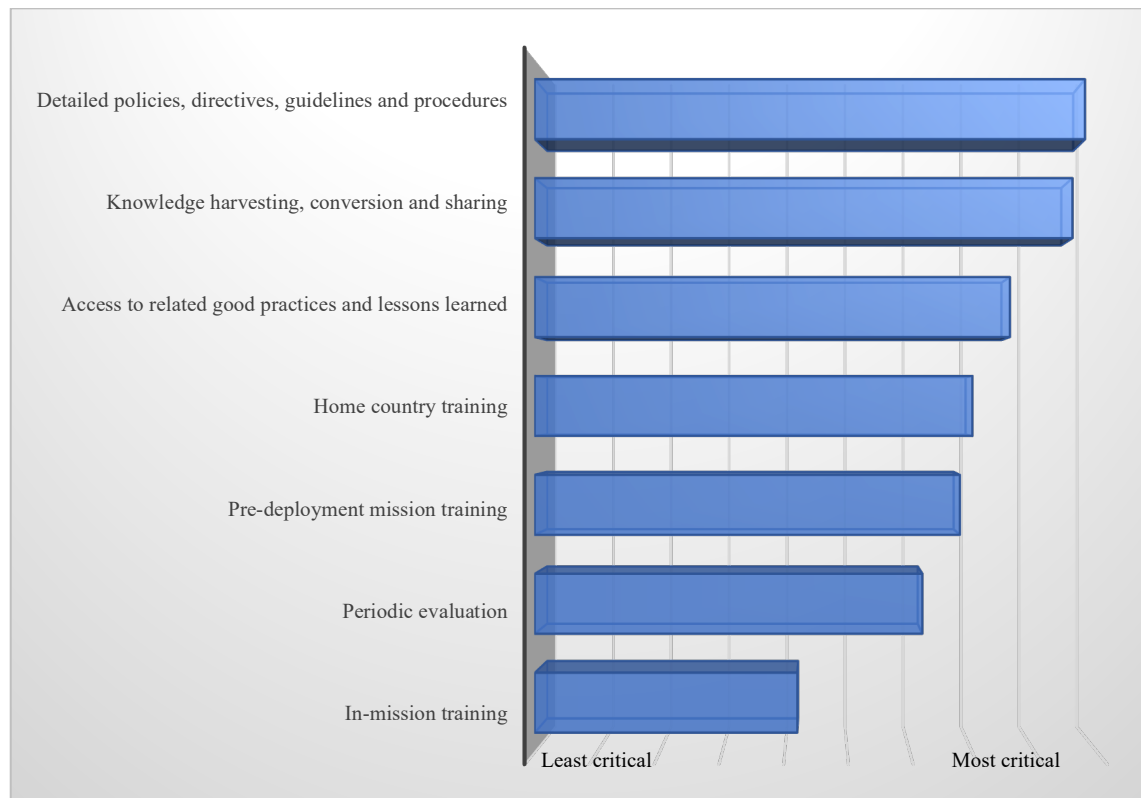

Figure 4. Site B: Factors supporting efficiency of UN Police operations from least to most critical

5.3   Actions and resources to use knowledge in the form of know-how

The third objective was to examine the types of action and resources that would allow the UN Police to use knowledge in the shape of know-how. The findings expressed below build on the survey and outline the most prominent challenges related to the propagation of tacit knowledge (Joia and Lemos, 2009) and enhancing workplace effectiveness (Arora, 1996; Nonaka, 1991). Analysis of the first question resulted in a high percentage (88 per cent for Site A and 91 per cent for Site B) of respondents supporting the fact that the UN Police has a potential strategic resource in the form of specialised knowledge. Most respondents (67 per cent for Site A and 62 per cent for Site B) highlighted the need for timelines to process knowledge management activities. In the words of one respondent, 'Most missions are on short-term deployment; therefore, timelines are of the essence for ensuring effective knowledge management' (Operational level #A12).

Figure 5 shows the views of the respondents from Site A on knowledge management processes in the UN Police.

Figure 5. Site A: Percentage of respondents' view of knowledge management processes within UN Police

In light of the results from this operational site, the organisation's efforts and priorities in knowledge management are arranged in the order presented above. Figure 6 shows the respondents' views from Site B of the purpose of knowledge management processes within the UN Police.
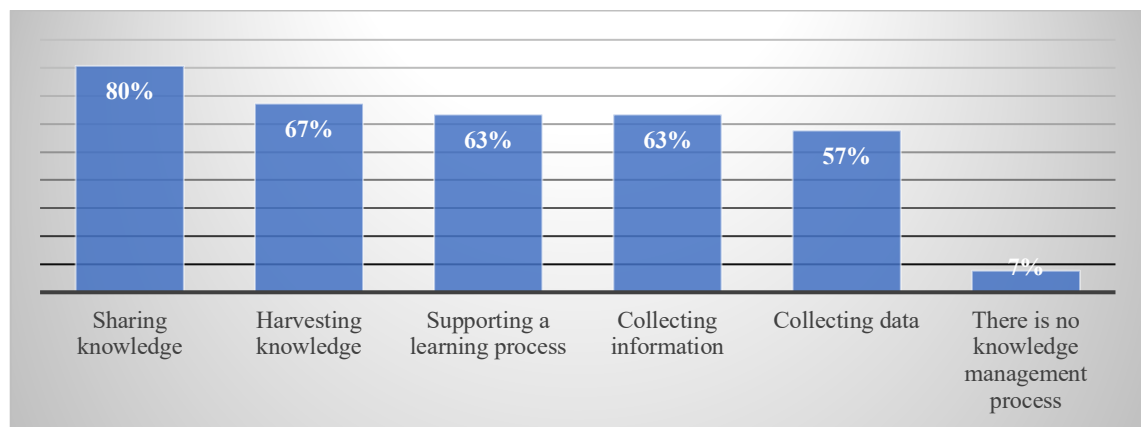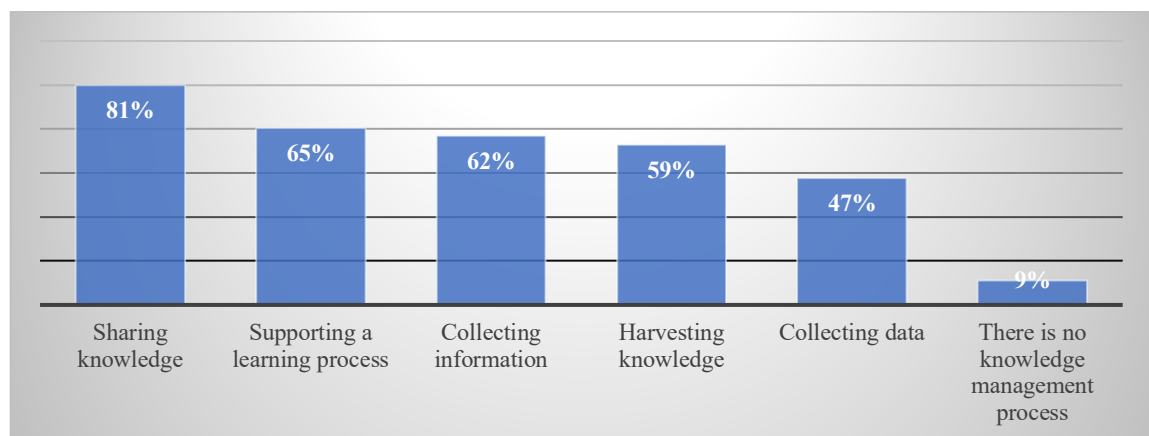

Figure 6. Site B: Percentage of respondents' view of knowledge management processes within UN Police

Considering the results from this operational site, it appears that the respondents' perspectives differed slightly from Operational Site A. However, the results clearly show that the main purpose of the knowledge management process is sharing knowledge.

Analysis of the participants' experiences concerning the adoption of UN Police standard operating procedures demonstrated that most respondents (87 per cent for Site A and 91 per cent for Site B) agreed that the mission adopts such procedures. In the context of the UN Police operations and their activities at Site A, the participants (42 per cent) indicated that what is learned in a specific mission is not carried over into other missions; this issue may not have been clear to some of the respondents (29 per cent). Consistent with the previous operational site, mixed results emerged in Site B (37 per cent yes, 37 per cent no), indicating that what is learned in a specific mission is not carried over into other missions—or perhaps it is not clear whether it is carried over, which was an interesting point to examine during the semi-structured interviews. Analysis of the results obtained from the question on directives, guidelines, standard operating procedures, and training modules being developed based on knowledge from other missions pointed to a potential area of continued development for both operational sites (24 per cent no, 38 per cent not sure for Site A; 12 per cent no, 44 per cent not sure for Site B). Along the same lines, the majority of the respondents from Site A (79 per cent) were not aware of any shared tactics, actions, or resources that would allow the UN Police to turn operational information and experience into a knowledge process. Analogously, many respondents from Site B (47 per cent no, 31 per cent not sure) were not aware of any shared tactics, actions, or resources that would allow the UN Police to develop operational information and experience into a knowledge process, and only a few respondents (22 per cent) had some knowledge of such a process. This finding necessitated inquiring about this potential knowledge process through interviews at both sites. The analysis related to the mechanisms underlying knowledge acquisition revealed that more than half (54 per cent for Site A and 53 per cent for Site B) of the respondents explained the mechanisms (e.g. surveys, group discussions, workshops, meetings, reporting, sharing of knowledge during training and related programmes), while the remaining respondents (13 per cent do not know, 33 per cent were not sure for Site A; 3 per cent do not know, 44 per cent were not sure for Site B) were not aware of such mechanisms. This was an area for continued research through participant interviews at both operational sites. In relation to knowledge management being used effectively in UN Police activities, a majority of the respondents (70 per cent from Site A and 56 per cent from Site B), pointed to an area for continued development that required subsequent inquiry through semi-structured interviews. In this context, 51 per cent of the respondents from Site A (13 per cent no, 38 per cent not sure) were not convinced that the leadership had taken actions to manage

knowledge. On the contrary, at Site B, the majority of respondents (75 per cent) reported that the leadership had taken some action to manage knowledge. However, analysis of the answers related to an established 'good practices and lessons learned' scheme demonstrated that most participants agreed (14 per cent strongly agree and 53 per cent agree for Site A; 16 per cent strongly agree, 66 per cent agree for site B) that such a scheme was in place, while a substantial minority of the respondents (15 per cent disagree, 4 per cent strongly disagree, 14 per cent do not know for Site A; 9 per cent disagree, 3 per cent strongly disagree, 6 per cent do not know for Site B) disagreed or did not know that a scheme had been established. Most respondents (56 per cent for Site A and 69 per cent for Site B) agreed with the requirement to apply the best practices and lessons learned, reinforcing the impression that it is common throughout the UN Police. However, analysis of the question regularly consulting the Best Practices Toolbox[6] shows that 48 per cent of the respondents from Site A (8 per cent strongly agree, 40 per cent agree) perceived that all elements consult documents made available when performing mission duties or when involved in operations. From this result, it appears that a significant number of respondents (37 per cent) did not agree with this position, and 15 per cent did not know about it. These results indicate that a significant number of UN Police officers in these operational sites might not really take advantage of such instruments. Along the same lines, the number of documents that the respondents have never used so far shows a low rate of utilisation of the Best Practices Toolbox. Figure 7 clearly shows substantial room for continued improvement in taking advantage of some of the available tools to support efficient UN Police operations.
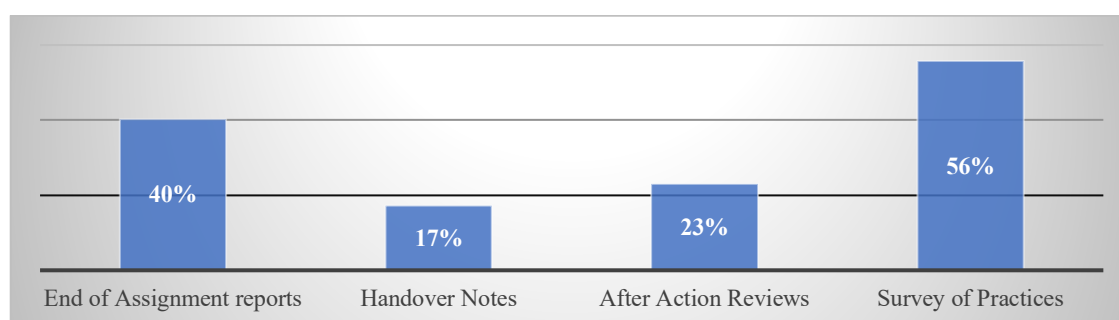
Figure 7. Site A: Percentage of Best Practices Toolbox documents never used by respondents

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[6] For the purpose of knowledge sharing and organisational learning, a set of tools (i.e. the Best Practices Toolbox) is deployed across peacekeeping missions.

I utilised the same approach to analyse these answers from the second site. The result shows slightly different responses from Site B compared to Site A. Here, the results suggested that such instruments are utilised to a greater extent (9 per cent agree, 47 per cent agree). In contrast, the respondents' answers to how many of these documents they have never used so far show a low rate of utilisation of these best practices tools. Figure 8 clearly shows the substantial area for continued improvement in utilising some of the tools made available to support efficient UN Police operations. Further exploration through semi-structured interviews was deemed necessary for both sites.
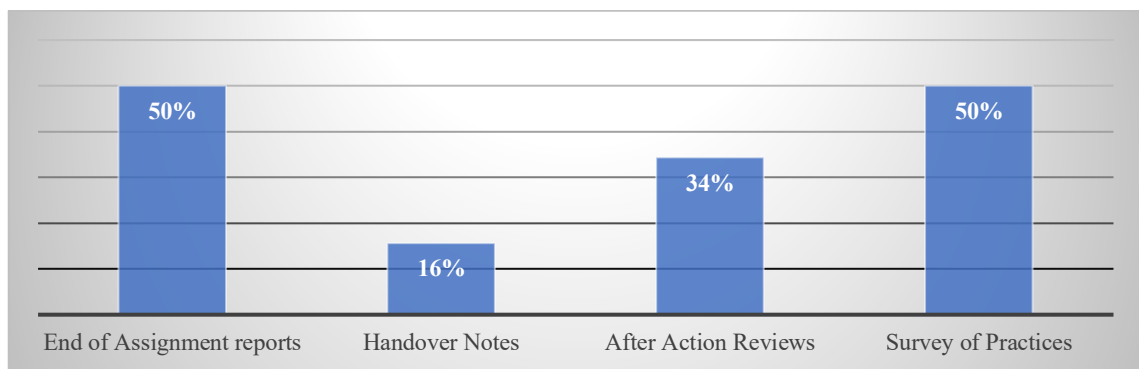
Figure 8. Site B: Percentages of Best Practices Toolbox documents never used by respondents

5.4   Concluding remarks

I was aware that the participants in this research—having different experiences and positions within the multidimensional organisational structure—would therefore hold different points of view. Scrutinising the data from the survey, as well as the gaps, similarities, and differences between the two sites (see Appendix 11), helped to generate ideas and indicated the need for subsequent inquiry through semi-structured interviews. The empirical findings are displayed in the following chapter to reveal the correlation linking the data for this study.

Chapter 6: Empirical Findings of Phase 2—Interview

6.0   Overview

This chapter follows up the results of the survey analysis of phase 1 by presenting details of the empirical findings from the semi-structured interviews (see Appendix 12), which were of a conversational nature framed around the research aims, objectives, and themes. The findings in phase 2 are qualitative and are built around themes elicited from the interviews and substantiated by the words of the research participants themselves. The qualitative data is presented as they surfaced during each conversation, allowing relative remarks from each operational site and organisational position to emerge.

The semi-structured interviews provided rich accounts from the research participants about how they carry out their everyday lives in the empirical context of this research. I compiled the interview material into text, on a chronological and hierarchical basis, for each of the subject matter experts interviewed. In terms of discursive consciousness, I examined the interview transcripts for what everybody says they do. I would then get the interviewees back towards practical consciousness during the moments when I got them to reflect in response to my questions.

Although more comprehensive conclusions within the literature review and the research questions are reflected in the chapter on research findings and discussion, I have already looked at the implications of the responses. For this reason, and to preserve the significance and credibility of the respondents and interviewees, the last part of this chapter summarises the results and empirical findings and contextualises the discussion of the research findings.

6.1   Organisational environment and knowledge management practices

As introduced in the section 2.2.1 of the literature review, and as Ashton (2004) explains in his work on the impact of organisational structure and practices on learning in the workplace, tacit knowledge depends directly on how the working context is constructed. Drawing on the interviews, this section commences with data from the subject matter experts' experience in multidimensional UN peacekeeping operations and discusses points that arose about relations between the organisational environment and the practices taking place.

The analysis begins with the questions about the kind of details they received when they arrived in their current postings, and the answers provide insightful information about their current working expertise and experiences. At both operational sites, some of the interviewees were leading small groups of experts in dealing with specific projects, while others had large units to command and had to deal with human resource development activities for the local police. The information received during their check-in process and induction training gave them generic details about the organisation and the working conditions, as well as the mission's mandate. The human resource department directly appointed the majority of these interviewees working at the tactical level solely on this basis of their personal history profiles. However, the majority of the operational and strategic level interviewees had to go through a specific selection and interview process in order to access their postings. Upon their arrival in the assigned area of operations, they all met their supervisors and colleagues and started to collect information about their work and the expected tasks.

> I didn't know about my duty until I met my work colleagues and started doing my job (Operational level interviewee #A56).

The above elements and quotation gave me a basis on which to appraise and investigate how both sites operate. In response to the question of what happened when they left their last posting, the participants discussed their extensive experience in multidimensional UN peacekeeping operations. The interviewees had several years of experience in many missions, and each time they arrived on or left a mission, they had to complete different administrative documents to check in or out of the organisation. The conversations suggested for both sites that the end-of-assignment appraisal is the most important document to retain, as it may help in obtaining a new post within the organisation. They highlighted that in general, the check-in and checkout processes are predominantly done through administrative procedures. This view was held by most of the participants from both sites. The following comments were typical of the participants when trying to explain why there is no encouragement to reflect on knowledge.

> I think they are only interested in financial aspects and related administrative issues. They are not interested in knowing what we did or about our expertise. That is why we are repeating the same actions and not progressing with the tasks (Tactical level interviewee #B123).

It is all about making sure all assets and related financial issues are cleared before leaving the mission area for good. If an end-of-mission report or handover is required, this is for the higher-level positions. (Tactical level interviewee #B124).

It was interesting to contrast the above quotation with an interviewee from Site A. This person explained that his previous position had required a complete end-of-mission report which he shared with his supervisors; after being reviewed by the Department of Best Practice, this report was published and made available in their database. This approach pointed to a Paradigm 2 modus operandi that follows a knowledge management strategy of a 'people-to-documents' technique analogous to Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge (i.e. 'externalisation'). However, the interviewee recognised that this report was an enforced procedure when checking out of his previous posting due to his high-level position (i.e. Strategic level); it was not a requirement for lower positions (i.e. Operational and Tactical levels). During the conversation, he highlighted that such a report is a good way of sharing information and gave a quick overview of his situation when he left the position he had held for several years. Indeed, when prompted about what kind of details he had received when he arrived in his current posting, he realised that such a report does not provide enough information, despite all the efforts made to provide details. The following quotation illuminates the solicitation for details necessary to do the work.

When arriving at my new post, I wished to be able to spend some weeks with my outgoing colleague to get a full briefing and directly get his expertise on the situation that he was facing (Strategic level interviewee #A52).

The response was quite similar between both operational sites with regard to the administrative part of the check-in and check-out processes, but varied with regard to the details they received and the knowledge they would have liked to pass on. Initially, many of the interviewees said it was just an administrative procedure for entering and leaving a mission. However, when probed about their responses, it emerged that these procedures meant something more. Some interviewees went on to say that they were a form of briefing and debriefing. One interviewee referred to them as a means of sharing their previous and current experiences with their colleagues during the check-in and check-out processes and to meet with the supervisors who sign their appraisals and sometimes

discuss their handover notes. This other side of the coin presented, therefore, an interesting perspective that is more related to a Paradigm 1 approach (see section 2.1.4), where knowledge is considered as a disposition embedded in human minds and not readily codified through tangible media.

A trend that emerged from these interviews was that sharing information and knowledge through social interaction means a great deal. The following comment was typical of the responses.

> I have good interest in my work, and it is giving me a lot of pride. And I want my colleagues to know what I went through and [that I can] help them (Operational level interviewee #B117).

Participants discussed several topics pertaining to their work and their willingness to share more knowledge than is usually requested. An interviewee from Site A noted that 'good information is important, but to build up my expertise and knowledge on how things were done previously was much more important' (Strategic level interviewee #A51). Obtaining documentation and being briefed were often not sufficient to grasp the work at hand, and he started learning about his position the hard way. This point was supported by comments from another interviewee from the same operational site regarding the kind of details shared with him when he arrived at his current posting. He responded that an induction training, the length of which was a few days, gave him a general overview of the mission.

> After joining my new colleagues, I started to ask around about my duty and what is expected from me. My supervisor and colleagues were very helpful in bringing me up to speed. However, it took a long time to get a good picture of the situation and of the expectations (Strategic level interviewee #A52).

Such statements suggest the scope for eliciting tacit knowledge within this empirical context. The gap between what is transferred in 'bringing me up to speed' and the time involved in getting 'a good picture of the situation and of the expectations' is not only considerable, but also raises the question of how well the processes of induction and peer discussions have been reflected on by the participant working at the strategic level of the organisation.

Another interviewee from Site B described the kind of work he had to perform in his current and previous postings and discussed the difficulties in understanding both the work context and the impact of military and civilian departments on his responsibilities.

> External decisions to UN Police have important impacts on the work at hand and require adapting your strategy and operations swiftly. Knowing how to do it well requires the right skills and a lot of expertise (Strategic level interviewee #B113).

While the phrasing is bland, his view about whether a situation went well points to how much the different dimensions influence each other. Noting that these external forces can help or worsen the situation, he claimed that in his previous mission, he had tried to pass along this type of knowledge to incoming officers and wished to receive such information himself when coming into a new post.

The influence of the different dimensions seemed to be on the mind of many participants. Highlighting Braverman's (1974) insistence that there is power in all social interconnections, the interviewees from both operational sites described similar consequences of working in the kind of organisational configuration described in the literature review (section 2.2). The main positive aspect they mentioned was that there is a common way of doing things and sharing information. However, this point about operations relying on common knowledge hints at a significant level of reliance on tacit knowledge. Indeed, they cited instances of a lack of efficient information-sharing and cooperation. This was a salient point that hints at a struggle to transmit worker-specialised knowledge and skills between the dimensions of this organisational configuration. Their explanation was that some of their colleagues were not comfortable working in this configuration and therefore did not perform well.

Another subset of the social interconnections found in this multidimensional organisational configuration is the consensus from many interviewees that the command dimension was an important factor in making decisions regarding whether and how knowledge would be managed within their areas of responsibility. An interviewee summarised his views on the consequences of working in a multidimensional organisational configuration as being challenging at different levels.

I would describe my experience in working in multidimensional UN peacekeeping operations as a long learning process. It takes time to understand how things work in such organisations, and not understanding something can stop an operation or a project from moving forward (Operational level interviewee #B118).

One interviewee highlighted the point that their work is different from their duties at home:

It is those links with military and civilian organisations that change; we are not used to working so closely with them, and that makes our tasks different compared to our home country duties (Tactical level interviewee #B119).

The UN Police officers frequently conceive of their work as just a police task and do not fully understand the need to cooperate with other components of the missions.

This is difficult to change, unless you are going to share with other components your own experiences and explain how things are done around here (Tactical level interviewee #B122).

One interviewee from Operational Site B claimed that the UN Peacekeeping Operations Department ultimately decides policy and knowledge management matters. Consequently, the managing and sharing of knowledge as a strategic resource within the UN Police is quite regulated. One interviewee summarised the consequences of the enforced policies and the requirements of each dimension in acting together:

It often feels as if we have not got a lot of autonomy. We have got to try and go with what is ordered and what somebody else is prioritising. I suspect one of the reasons why we get a bit stuck when sharing our information and expertise is that there is a conflict between the way we would like to work and the direction which is imposed in relation to the interaction with the civilian or military components in particular (Operational level interviewee #B118).

This is an excellent example of the potential difficulty in implementing the foundations of the official knowledge sharing and organisational learning policy in a fairly rigid UN Police hierarchy.

Most interviewees, when prompted about a time when everything went well, emphasised the influence of the decision-making and management structure of the UN Police. One interviewee said that the clear structure, including his own unit's chain of command, helped execute work adequately. Another identified the influence of experienced command staff, at least those who knew what to do when things became difficult.

> There are not many experienced colleagues in the right place at the right time. This time, this operation turned out well because of having experienced and dedicated UN Police officers to face the situation that could have turned out badly (Tactical level interviewee #B121).

When following up with the interviewee, it emerged that there was commitment from the commanding staff to developing plans and reviewing the ways in which the UN Police run their operations: 'To improve we learned from our past operations' (Tactical level interviewee #B121). Many other research participants from both sites shared this view. It appears that UN Police is committed to finding better ways to conduct their operations and to helping the UN Police officers to understand how to carry out their work. According to both paradigms, in order to elicit this type of knowledge, a setting with sufficient organisational structure and credence in organisational values is still an area for continued development in this empirical context. This is analysed in the next section.

6.2   Knowledge flow among UN Police officers and its different dimensions

By talking about their past and current experiences in multidimensional UN peacekeeping operations, interviewees from both operational sites emphasised the kind of knowledge they would like to pass on—namely, the experience and expertise that they acquired during their different tours of duty. A consensus emerged from the different interviews, maintaining that all knowledge is an integration of the explicit and the tacit (Polanyi, 1967a) and that the knowledge they acquire gives them the means to take action in their working contexts. They were made aware of the requirement to share knowledge within the organisation and that a policy on the matter existed. However, they were not

able to access much knowledge about their work. The following comment was typical of the responses:

> When I work for the UN, I welcome all types of duty; however, some tasks demand more expertise than others. There is not much information or references or tools to help, and it is often necessary to reinvent the wheel (Strategic level interviewee #A51).

A consensus emerged from both sites—and throughout all levels of the organisation—that a specific knowledge management process for their kind of work would be the most successful strategy in addressing some, but not all, of the issues covered in the previous section.

I focused more on the sort of expertise they build up and how they approach the process of managing knowledge by asking them about a time when everything went well and then leading the conversation to their most difficult experience. The interviewees told rich and detailed stories about the situations they had faced. A tactical level interviewee (#A58) from Site A described the impact of different policies translated into operational plans, using examples related to his work. He claimed that many of his actions and how things were done developed from inside his unit. The following excerpts from the conversation show the shift in the transcript and reveal useful information about the thinking behind the process of taking advantage of knowledge.

> **Interviewee:** My colleagues and I are handling really difficult tasks in a dangerous area of operations and we have developed our own approach to do the work efficiently. Actually, there are no guidelines given for this type of work.
>
> **Researcher:** So what helped you during these operations?
>
> **Interviewee:** Do you mean how I handled the work in the field?
>
> **Researcher:** Yes, or maybe when you think about those operations can you explain who or what was of used to you?
>
> **Interviewee:** Oh, you see, I constantly had opportunities to acquire better skills and understanding about how to work; it is not my first mission. I build

> a lot of my expertise with different field experiences, as well as building up
> my understanding of the tasks with colleagues. I have much more connection
> and support with colleagues from my previous mission, and they still support
> me in giving information and recommendations on what is going on. It is
> what helped me in facing the different kinds of situations every day.

These statements make the interesting point that the UN Police is unable to take advantage of or shape the research participant's knowledge—especially in the context of his area of expertise. This mirrors the concerns of Lee and Yang (2000) that an organisation's ability to take advantage of knowledge is contingent on several factors, such as the organisational environment and its workers. As presented in the literature review (section 2.3.1), this signal of a potential difficulty in managing organisational knowledge in this empirical context is conditional on individual experience, perception, and the social framework.

As the above quotations illustrate, the participants were asked not only about how, but also about who or what helped in doing their work. This question led to some insights into what could have turned out differently. In general, the interviewees felt that the work was challenging; therefore, they constantly had opportunities to acquire higher-level skills and learn how to work better. As a result, situations often went well based on their expertise, field experience, and understanding of the working context. When prompted, all interviewees agreed that implementing a method to manage knowledge efficiently was a good idea. However, the above elements and quotations show that to manage knowledge in this organisational configuration, it is not sufficient to manage straightforward information; it demands considering and consolidating underlying social practices (Tsoukas and Vladimirou, 2001, p.991). This brings the analysis to the ways in which interviewees approach the process of managing and harvesting knowledge.

With regard to UN Police officers, both recruitment and turnover are serious challenges. Therefore, their main approach is to request and give extensions for tours of duty.

> My main tool as a manager for retaining the necessary human resources, skills
> and knowledge to accomplish my mandated tasks is providing extensions. I
> need to keep my colleagues working on this mission as long as possible
> (Strategic level interviewee #A52).

Inclinations to manage and harvest knowledge emerged with reference to those who had joined or left their team of co-workers. The prevalent view was that working with experienced peers helped provide a better and safer working environment. Work activities and discussions provided a rich learning environment where expertise and knowledge could be acquired.

An incumbent from Site B spent a couple of weeks with the colleagues who replaced him in his position. He highlighted that this was exceptional, as such a handover is normally done through a simple report or sometimes over the phone (or both). He claimed that face-to-face handovers and the chance to spend a number of days together were fundamental in passing along specific information about and knowledge of the work context.

> When I arrived in my current posting, I only received several briefings from my colleagues and I did not get the chance to meet with the colleague who was on my current posting. When I left my previous post, I spent days explaining, showing and demonstrating to the newcomer how things worked and why. He was really grateful (Strategic level interviewee #B113).

One interviewee from Site A introduced a new element that had not been discussed in the previous interviews. He explained that a new best practice officer was appointed within the UN Police component, and, before leaving the mission, he had had a meeting with this officer in which he could share information about his tour of duty. During this procedure, the interviewee gave a good debriefing about his work and the situations he had faced.

> The meeting was more a discussion where I could give some feedback that shared real information and knowledge about my work. I do not know if it helps, but this officer gave me a chance to give my opinion, and the information given will maybe help to improve some aspect of the work (Operational level interviewee #A56).

It seems that this situation was unique to some extent and was not part of a formal process. Although the interviewee appreciated this approach in reviewing his work activities outside the formal chain of command, the other interviewees from both sites did not have such a meeting and highlighted that they mainly passed on their experience directly to

other colleagues before departing from their posting. It was apparent for both sites that the sharing of experience and knowledge took place in informal settings.

> Before I left, I met my colleague a couple of times and I gave him all my documentation and information about my work, hoping he would continue the good work (Operational level interviewee #A54).

In addition, at both operational sites, they all received the same kind of details when arriving in their current posts, despite the fact that their duties were different and they were working in different areas of operation within the mission. Nevertheless, one of the interviewees from Site A, when leaving a previous posting, wrote a document explaining the work he did and providing cues as to how to proceed with the tasks. He mentioned that end-of-mission reports are sometimes written by colleagues and are helpful to newcomers or colleagues taking over the post.

> When I left my post, I wanted my colleagues to continue with my work. It was difficult and I put in a lot of effort to make it work (Operational level interviewee #A55).

However, the other interviewees did not write any documents or pass on any information to other colleagues. It was not required, and they did not know who, if anyone, would take on their positions.

The main issue emerging from these conversations is that the interviewees wanted to talk to colleagues who would carry on their current work, but this was not possible. The reasons for this were the rapid turnover in human resources and the impossibility of meeting face-to-face with the incumbent. Indeed, it seems for both operational sites that there were no procedures in place for sharing their experience and knowledge.

> I learn more from doing my work and discussing with my colleagues than from reading all the documents from my previous colleagues or those given to me upon my arrival in my new workplace. I think the colleague that replaced me had to do the same (Operational level interviewee #A56).

Participants' views on what actually happened when they left their last posting are perhaps best summarised by one comment: 'We were not free in the way we would like to pass our experience and knowledge on to them' (Operational level interviewee #B118).

The way the UN Police approaches the process of managing knowledge appears more effective in some missions than others, and is often related to the strategic direction of the mission.

> In some of my missions, I had to be responsible for the development of the structure for sharing and managing knowledge within my units under my command, but in other missions this aspect was not considered at all (Operational level interviewee #B116).

When asked where they could find help and expertise to carry out their current work, they highlighted that procedures and policies were in place, but only to a certain extent. Furthermore, they had a large network of colleagues who helped one another.

> I often contact colleagues at home or in other missions to help or share documentations and get some help (Operational level interviewee #B116).

Many interviewees, when asked about their inclinations for harvesting and creating knowledge, further commented on the consequences of the enforced policies and the issues related to the configuration of their mission. One from Operational Site B argued that knowledge management issues cannot be altered; he thought that this should be an important part of strategy development in the UN Police.

> Matters of knowledge management are imposed on us by policy that needs to be adapted and implemented in our UN Police components (Operational level interviewee #B116).

Some positive aspects of sharing knowledge were identified as well, such as learning from others' experiences and developing an adapted approach to difficult coordination tasks and situations with other components. Many meetings take place, offering a good form of communication and helping to share information.

> I meet and work daily with colleagues from the military and civilian components of the mission. In the field, we do our tasks and they do their

work. Sometimes, my colleagues and I support them (Tactical level interviewee #A57).

The notion that they still need to interact with others' organisational dimensions (i.e. military and civilian) was not considered an issue for them; therefore, they did not really consider this as a reason for sharing their expertise beyond their immediate workplace.

The interviewees were asked about the way they shared their experiences and their motivations for doing so. Two interviewees from Site A highlighted that the reporting process is driven to prove and justify the actions taken, making the reporting factual, rather than an attempt to understand how things were done.

> There is no formal process for managing knowledge. I go through operations
> after operations and/or conduct specialised projects or tasks. Then I leave and
> go home after my tour of duty (Tactical level interviewee #A57).

Interviewees from Site B went on to describe their experiences, the sort of expertise they built up, and how they learned to work more efficiently. A couple of interviewees regretted going to other missions where they encountered the same issues. They highlighted the fact that not being able to share experience formally meant that the UN Police faced the same problems over and over.

> That makes it pretty difficult to move forward with any task or project at
> hand. We need to start it all over again (Tactical level interviewee #B123).

Linking to the above points in this empirical context, the knowledge and skills from the UN Police officers appear to be broadly circulated within the organisation. Furthermore, leadership clearly influences the dynamics of the organisation in the attainment of its goals (see Schein, 2010) and impacts the ways in which participants approach the process of managing and harvesting knowledge. These elements bring the analysis to the possibilities provided in this study for knowledge creation.

Most of the interviewees from both sites believed that transferring information can be effective within their organisation. They believe that work gives them something new to learn every day; however, this knowledge often remains with them and the colleagues

with whom they are working. This underlined the point made in the literature review that much of the knowledge that individuals gain through experience is not documented, shared, or efficiently turned to account (Kreiner, 2002; Tsoukas, 2003; Zack, 1999b). Nevertheless, it appeared that teamwork is important, as it helps co-workers share their experiences and knowledge. Long discussions between trusted colleagues about the problems they have faced or are facing often take place in informal settings.

> In general, I try to share my experience with colleagues who are involved with the same kind of work; you can see they have the same expertise and understanding (Strategic level interviewee #A51).

When discussing a time when everything went well, the interviewees talked about similar situations in different working contexts. One interviewee from Site A said that he had used the same approach many times in different missions and that it had always helped.

> The first time I had to deal with such an incident, I did not know what to do, but it worked. And now I am using this approach to manage such critical situations (Operational level interviewee #A53).

Similarly, when prompted further on the sort of expertise they had built up, many participants said they often use the same approach to help with different kinds of situations, and that their proficiency in using professional methods or approaches is often a result of their home training and education. However, they learned most of their skills and expertise as a UN Police officer during their tours of duty at different operational sites around the world and by interacting with different components.

> We learned a lot of stuff in our home country, but it is just not enough for what we need in UN peacekeeping operations; field experience is necessary. And this field experience was missing for all of us. We had to improvise and go with our gut feelings (Operational level interviewee #A55).

One of the interviewees from Site A described one of his most difficult experiences, when he and his colleagues were not able to face the violence and the scale of the situation.

None of us had faced such a situation in our home country. We are police officers trained to deal with domestic policing matters, but at that time, it was totally new for all of us (Operational level interviewee #A54).

In both operational sites, the consensus emerged that field experience was seen as the main vehicle for gaining the necessary skills and knowledge to deal with situations.

Every day is a learning day, and there is not only one right way to do my work in the field (Operational level interviewee #A53).

To expand upon these points, I asked participants at both sites about the sort of expertise they had built up to explore the possibilities that their functions offered for knowledge creation. A conversation with an interviewee from Site A focused on a time when everything was going well. Arguing that 'We have a role to share our knowledge and ask our colleagues about their experience before starting any task; do your homework first', the interviewee explained he often had to work on specialised projects requiring complex planning tools that he had to develop and use within the UN Police, as well as with his civilian and military colleagues (Operational level interviewee #A115).

Another common perception held by the interviewees from both operational sites was that working in this multidimensional organisational configuration required a mind that was receptive to new ideas from within the UN Police and from other dimensions. For them, having the ability to think creatively with their UN Police colleagues and with those from the civilian and military components could be considered a starting point for better knowledge flow among UN Police officers and its dimensions.

In line with those findings is the point made in the introduction (section 1.2) that knowledge requires one person's ability to gain new knowledge to be tied to someone else's inclination and potential to share that knowledge. Becker-Ritterspach (2006, p.360) described these social perspectives as 'pathways' where knowledge is conveyed and integrated into another social environment. Nevertheless, another interviewee from the same site, when asked about understanding current tasks to identify the possibilities their work presents for knowledge creation, claimed that the power struggles among components sometimes overwhelmed an individual's willingness to share his point of view and expertise.

I understood the hard way that the knowledge management tools [in this example: after action review reports] are often used simply as an administrative measure to report or justify a specific action, and for the other components to cross-examine the work activities of the UN Police (Operational level interviewee #A116).

It is important to consider these aspects in regard to the social interactions between the different dimensions in this empirical context. These 'pathways' could be ways of sharing knowledge and, more importantly, they could form the construct for the social production of new knowledge. However, the flow of knowledge is also contingent on several factors, such as the multidimensional organisational configuration, its social setting, and related tensions.

6.3   Ambiguity within knowledge management process and practice

The interviewees from both sites described their own roles within their units and their interactions between the military and civilian components, as well as the need to have a clearer understanding of how they should all work together in the field. It appears from the conversations that their postings provide them with many possibilities for knowledge creation in this complex and dynamic work environment. During conversations with interviewees from both sites about how they grasp their present work, they described the difficulties they faced in getting up to speed with the current context. One of the interviewees from Site A pointed out that international policing knowledge of this kind of work setting is often lacking, although professional skills and knowledge of domestic policing[7] acquired in the home countries are often useful. He further said that for those who had undergone pre-deployment training:

The training is often too easy, the standards are set too low, and the content is not adapted enough to the reality of the field (Strategic level interviewee #A51).

Following this conversation, this interviewee was asked about a time when everything went well while working for the UN Police. He referred to a project of which he was in charge a few years previously. He regarded this work as successful, as the work at hand

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[7] UN Police officers come to the UN from various contributing countries. Therefore, in the context of this research, various policing cultures and backgrounds coexist.

went well, and he had competent and skilled co-workers to carry out the tasks required to accomplish the project.

Over time, colleagues left the team, and subsequent projects did not work out as well. It became increasingly difficult to steer team efforts, and the unit's reputation diminished after a couple of years. The situation worsened further when the interviewee left the post for a promotion.

> I tried to explain and keep up the good work, but it was just too many colleagues leaving at almost the same time—the good work left with them (Strategic level interviewee #A51).

He used this example to illustrate the inherent difficulties in sustaining work cohesion and matching the right expertise with the required field experience. The colleagues simply did not know how to apply their expertise to the work context.

> It is just too different compared with their home country and with what they know (Strategic level interviewee #A51).

The following quotations from the same interview show the shift in illustrating the current knowledge management processes and practices:

> **Interviewee:** Reporting on my activities is important part of my work and, I report daily to my superiors.

> **Researcher:** How helpful is it?

> **Interviewee:** The current arrangements do not provide all details for reviewing how my work was handled, but provide a good overview of my work and duties. The main issue is that there is not much feedback.

> **Researcher:** If you do not receive much feedback, who else can benefit from this review and reporting?

> **Interviewee:** These reports are shared by my supervisors to assist in the decision-making process with other units or components.

> **Researcher:** Do you mean it assists in developing and sharing knowledge with the different dimensions?
>
> **Interviewee:** Oh, maybe. You have to understand that there is not much information about best practices available in relation to my work and how to interact with these civilian and military components.

Getting others involved and participating in activities and projects is a key premise of a learning organisation (e.g. Argyris and Schön, 1978; Pedler et al., 1997; Senge, 2006; Watkins and Marsick, 1993). The circumstances described by the interviewee is an example of a situation where practices, co-workers, groups, and communities evolve as events transpire. This evolution was cited in section 2.2.2, revealing that social processes and circumstances, organisational learning and learning organisation mechanisms, and the knowledge management practices of organisations are closely linked. Nevertheless, the practices of the policy on knowledge-sharing and organisational learning from the empirical context of this study seems minimal,[8] and the related adjustments within the multidimensional organisational structure do not encourage knowledge sharing (see Currie and Kerrin, 2003). In the following sections, these elements are analysed further in relation to the participants' expertise in the use of knowledge management tools to obtain help in accomplishing tasks.

Interviewees from Site A explained that external influences from the other components are vast, and that not much information about best practices is available in relation to their particular postings or how to interact with these different dimensions. The following quotation outlines fairly well the consensus on this matter:

> There are information, training and after-action review reports available that can help. However, there is no clear-cut knowledge management process to be able to respond to the dynamic and evolving context that the UN Police are facing (Strategic level interviewee #A52).

I asked about the UN Police in terms of harvesting knowledge and expertise for using knowledge management tools by enquiring as to where officers can find help and

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[8] The data available are based principally on interview participants and, to some extent, on the survey respondents. It is therefore not methodologically practicable to assess with certainty the extent to which the empirical context is engaged in relation to the policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning.

expertise in carrying out their tasks. Interviewees from Site B described the nature of the operations and how UN Police operated within this organisational structure. An interviewee from this site explained the difficulties he faced in getting the necessary help to accomplish his tasks:

> I am getting help or information to accomplish my tasks through my colleagues and by sharing our expertise on the task. I have not found a real source of information or knowledge that can really assist me in doing my work (Strategic level interviewee #B114).

When asked how they could share their experiences, the interviewee had similar answers, explaining that all operations are well documented and reported through their chain of command. The conversation on the feedback they receive highlighted the fact that their performance is the subject of periodic appraisal; if their supervisors are satisfied with them, an extension of their tour of duty may be granted. They recognised that some knowledge management tools were available, but even though many of them had gone through numerous difficult experiences, they had not used many of these tools for sharing their experiences or expertise. They also emphasised that they rarely received feedback on the way they conducted their work. Another interviewee from this site emphasised that the best way to obtain more information about the work is to ask colleagues, especially those with the most experience.

It was suggested in the literature review for this research that both paradigms on knowledge (section 2.2.2) perceive knowledge management principally as the expansion of an environment with an infrastructure and ad hoc processes. However, in both operational sites, there were no specific ways in which they approached the process of managing knowledge. Although some interviewees from Site B felt that knowledge sharing was necessary to get everyone up to speed with their work, they went on to say that it could be difficult in some instances due to the nature of the work.

> You can only share what you know with those you work with. The UN Police is large and works in different areas of operations. New UN Police officers need fieldwork to really learn how things happen in UN peacekeeping operations (Strategic level interviewee #B113).

The predominant view when asked about the kind of help they could obtain to accomplish their tasks was that they needed better information on how to accomplish specific tasks related to the kind of work they faced in multidimensional UN peacekeeping operations. As indicated earlier, most interviewees identified a lack of proper handover and knowledge management when they left a post. Furthermore, the view of interviewees at both operational sites on giving or receiving feedback was that many actions and tasks needed to be reviewed and the findings needed to be shared adequately in order to assist the organisation as a whole.

> A lot of reports are written every day, but the management, even when supportive, do not give feedback. Often the work is reviewed only when something special happened (Tactical-level interviewee #A122).

Clearly, feedback procedures and the use of knowledge management tools are not formally in place.

From the interviews and the survey results, the empirical context for this study is aimed— through policy implementation—at knowledge Paradigm 2, wherein there are processes in which knowledge is codified, stored, and formalised. However, when prompted further about where they could find help and expertise to carry out their current work, all interviewees emphasised that they receive support from their peers in accomplishing their tasks from the outset. It can be inferred that at both sites, activities are rarely reviewed, and the only feedback workers receive comes by way of an appraisal of their performance.

> The only reward for doing your job is to get a positive appraisal that will help in getting an extension of your tour of duty, if you want one (Tactical level interviewee #A62).

From these conversations, it seems that knowledge management tools are sometimes used simply to report a specific action. It was apparent that interviewees' personal motivations for doing good work, as well as their professionalism, were important factors in sharing their expertise with their peers. This was mainly done on the job through informal discussions, where stories about their past experiences and what they had learned from them were shared.

There is not much reward for sharing your expertise or knowledge. Nevertheless, my experience influences the way I do my work, and reviewing our work activities will certainly help (Strategic level interviewee #B116).

The ambiguity of knowledge management processes and practices in this empirical context concerns what interviewees from both sites often pointed out. That is, their experience and the expertise of their colleagues are the main sources of help in carrying out their current work. Their approach encompasses recurrent and reciprocal interactions between known and knower in practice, which links more to a point of view associated with knowledge Paradigm 1. The interviews demonstrate to some extent the collective aspect, as is given consideration in the literature on communities of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Brown and Duguid, 1998), and highlight the fact that the transfer of knowledge in this empirical context is made mostly via socialisation (Tsoukas, 2003; D'Eredita and Barreto, 2006). That is, in this study, the research participants were mainly able to share their experiences and expertise through informal arrangements.

6.4   Storytelling and embedded tacit knowledge

Clearly, storytelling helps to foster a common understanding of their embedded tacit knowledge (Bhardwaj and Monin, 2006; Snowden, 2002; Whyte and Classen, 2012). When asked about the way UN Police approach knowledge management, an interviewee stated: 'To get up to speed with my previous post and my current taskings, I had to ask around and do a lot of research myself' (Strategic level interviewee #A52). The current arrangements did not provide him with the kind of details that he needed to do his work. He reiterated the importance of informing incoming officers about the decision-making process and where to obtain information about the previous situation so as to understand how things were handled at that time. His comment demonstrates the consensus emerging from the research participants from both sites: 'So yes. It can be something that can be passed over to our own colleagues during our talks. I think we are all learning by doing and talking about the work. Listening to work-related stories is actually the most eye-opening on how things work around here'. According to him, the combined effects of the dimensions tended to delay strategic, operational, and tactical decision-making. He illuminated this point by showing that civilian and military components have their own priorities, and therefore, the different strategies can clash with the processes in place. However, he added that this expertise and understanding of how things work are

important to pass on to UN Police officers, as too often they are not aware or experienced enough to work in such a multidimensional organisational configuration.

Most of the conversations from both sites identified the influence of the UN Police's standard operational procedures and the abundance of policies, directives, and guidelines giving them a framework in which to operate. They all identified potential consequences of the multidimensional organisational configuration for sharing information and knowledge. It can be inferred that the police culture[9] and backgrounds influence decision-making and the sharing of any type or kind of information and expertise.

Reflecting on both knowledge paradigms presented in the literature review and linking knowledge-based strategy to the points and quotations in this chapter, it appears that knowledge is found in areas like repositories, co-workers, groups, and communities. In general, UN Police officers are keen to tell stories about their experience and their adventures. Linking this point to the literature review (section 2.1.4) on the recessive nature of tacit knowledge, many participants highlighted the fact that they take advantage of storytelling for learning and sharing knowledge. Therefore, what is left implicit or taken for granted varies across parts of the organisation and across the hierarchy. The results and empirical findings offer insight into what creates the conditions that either prevent knowledge from being made explicit or limit its transfer. The next section puts these elements into perspective.

6.5   Putting the results and empirical findings into context

The participants had a homogeneous professional background and substantial UN Police field experience[10] within the empirical context (see Table 4).

Table 4. Research participants' level of expertise and experience

Participants	Prevalent level of expertise	Average years of experience (UNPOL)
16	Strategic	4.5

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[9] Many participants described the empirical context's culture as hierarchical and the multidimensional organisational configuration as bureaucratic.

[10] A normal tour of duty for a UN Police officer is one year. The tour can be extended to a maximum of three years in the same mission.

| 36 | Operational | 4.6 |
| 72 | Tactical | 3.2 |

During the interviews and other contact with the participants (e.g. e-mails and phone calls to clarify examples and confirm transcripts), many conversations were about the official channels. Nevertheless, rather than talking about policy, I prompted the interviewees for more examples and stories to get behind the official conversations and gather real insights into the empirical context. I tried to examine why and how actors from this context decided to manage the knowledge acquired through diverse sources—what matters that is not included in the briefs. Drawing on the research aim and objectives, the themes identified in the literature, and the design of the research instrument, I identified and referred to theoretical concepts to illuminate the data that I felt was significant for this study.

I prioritised the 'how' (what the participants were actually doing) over the 'why' and 'when'. However, I wanted to discover what the actors found themselves doing—their expertise and the tacit elements of the organisation which the organisation itself might not have discerned. By subjecting the whole body of my research material to a close reading and going over the results and texts, I clarified post hoc explanations and approached the rationales of the participants. I completed a list that required many iterations and revisions before expounding on the main elements and interrelationships with the two other dimensions and the impact on the flow of tacit knowledge (see Appendix 14). A summary now follows.

6.5.1 UN Police organisational context and characteristics

The main issue to emerge in relation to working in this multidimensional organisational configuration was that authority and directions must be clear to integrate the different dimensions. The participants emphasised the need for the components to be well integrated, with good coordination mechanisms for handling interactions.

The participants recognised in general the need for a common method of working, though this was something that took place through normal work practices, particularly in improving operations, interactions, and information sharing for sustaining work

cohesion. The participants in both operational sites regarded detailed policies, directives, guidelines and procedures, knowledge harvesting, conversing and sharing, and access to related good practices and lessons learned as the main factors in supporting operational efficiency. To summarise the prevailing vision of the participants, an ideal knowledge management system would be available online for general readership, assisting in improving operations while promoting interactions and information sharing among the different dimensions based on the feedback such an instrument could generate. This is not yet in place for either operational site.[11]

There were mixed views on the kinds of undertaking and support for the formal sharing of experience and related knowledge within the empirical context and between the dimensions. This was the case for each organisational level. The consensus was that there was a need for clear-cut knowledge management processes supported by the leadership. The participants at Site A were not convinced that the leadership had taken any actions to manage knowledge, and this clear ambivalence at Site B resulted in a substantial difference in taking advantage of the available knowledge management instruments.[12] Some of the participants complained that training was often not adapted to trainees' needs. Furthermore, the knowledge accumulated on different tours of duty was often ignored by the administrative processes (check-in/out procedures). The lack of handover and knowledge management when leaving a post was identified as a lost opportunity to improve the work. These points of reference and general characteristics (see Table 5) are examined and detailed in the next sections.

Table 5. Characteristics of the organisational environment

General characteristics
▪ Multidimensional organisational configuration where the components complement each other.   ▪ Command and control deemed clear, with a lack of information flow.   ▪ Knowledge is transferred to other parts of the organisation.

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[11] The UN DPKO Peacekeeping Best Practices Section provides a Peacekeeping Policy and Practices Database (access restricted to UN staff).

[12] The Best Practices Toolbox includes templates to retain institutional memory and to identify, capture, share, and use knowledge accumulated in peacekeeping, thereby promoting the integration of lessons learned, best practices, and other operational knowledge into work processes.

- Management system may discourage genuine reporting; likelihood of individual blaming.
- External influences from other dimensions:
    - Inadequate resources.
    - No clear direction or order.
    - No clear working method or approach.
    - Lack of knowledge on specific issues needed for the task.
    - Difficulties in understanding the work context, as well as the impact that other departments have on shared responsibilities.
- Aspects of the work that do not lend themselves to open discussion because of the circumstances and confidentiality concerns.
- Different working cultures within the component and in other dimensions.
- The principal features of the working context change quickly, and there are difficulties in filling positions due to rapid turnover as well as unmet skill sets.
- Site A is having difficulties in its interactions with other dimensions; this is linked to the need for the components to be well integrated with good coordination mechanisms.

6.5.2 Types of knowledge arising from UN Police officers

The types of knowledge arising from UN Police officers was something to which many of the participants had not given much thought; however, during the conversations, it was accepted that the work required expertise and special skills (see Table 6). The participants already held strong views about the need to adapt their know-how to the operations. They were familiar with sharing knowledge and aware of the knowledge-sharing and organisational learning policy.[13]

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[13] This policy to maintain and strengthen the effectiveness and efficiency of UN peacekeeping in the field and at headquarters by identifying, capturing, sharing, and implementing best practices and lessons learned has been in effect since 1 October 2015.

Table 6. Types of knowledge among UN Police officers

Expertise and special skills		
Strategic level	**Operational level**	**Tactical level**
▪ Specialised, high-profile knowledge (e.g. strategic planning, complex project management).	▪ Operation and coordination with all components (i.e. planning, execution of complex and integrated tasks).	▪ Field experience and understanding of how things are done and developed from inside a unit, rather than from imposed policies that are not adapted; specific guidelines often do not exist.

6.5.3   Ways in which UN Police officers approach knowledge management

There were divergent views on the ways knowledge management was conducted, with a particular way of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge (see Table 7). However, the main efforts and priorities in knowledge management seem to lie in sharing knowledge (see Figures 5 and 6), and the organisation has not advanced from the knowledge-sharing policy of 2006 to the knowledge-sharing and organisational learning policy of 2015; 'best practices and lessons learned' is more common than 'organisational learning'.

Table 7. Modus operandi of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge

Current modus operandi
- Structures and procedures to analyse data, share knowledge, and exercise good practice are straightforward.   - Components share knowledge with each other from their activities, rehearsals, and exercises.   - Components manage knowledge, but UNPOL does not have the ability to access much information and knowledge that is specific to the task.   - Retention of personnel is the main way to maintain skills and knowledge.   - Factors that support operational efficiency: - Detailed policies, directives, guidelines, and procedures.   - Knowledge harvesting, conversion, and sharing.   - Access to related good practices and lessons learned.

The type of work and organisational structures were recognised as an ideal way to create new experiences and develop and adapt the participants' working skills. Their views depended on their level of responsibility within the work structure, in terms of promoting knowledge management and how best to approach the process (see Table 8). Nevertheless, participants from both operational sites mentioned work structure, which relied on teams working together with trusted and experienced peers for face-to-face interactions for passing along specific information and knowledge about the working context and how to handle the workload.

Table 8. Knowledge management approach and process

Current approach and process
- High position within the structure requires a complete end-of-mission report, stored in Best Practices database.   - Knowledge often stays with them and their colleagues.

- Long discussions between trusted colleagues about the problems they have faced or are facing often take place informally.
- Handover is done through a simple report and/or over the phone.
- Face-to-face handovers and the chance to spend a number of days together were fundamental for passing along specific information and knowledge about the work context.
- Expertise is not shared outside the workplace.

6.5.4 UN Police officers' inclinations in harvesting knowledge

The main pattern that emerged from the discussions was that the organisation would not be providing much structure without the support of leadership for harvesting knowledge. Furthermore, participants from both operational sites noted that the policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning from the organisation was minimal. What is harvested from work activities is discussed among colleagues and often provides a rich learning environment where expertise and knowledge can be displayed. Their current inclinations in harvesting and sharing knowledge (see Table 9) appeared to be a matter of personal choice.

Table 9. Inclinations in harvesting knowledge

Current inclinations
- By asking colleagues, especially the most experienced ones.   - Work activities and discussions provide a rich learning environment where expertise and knowledge can be acquired and shared.   - Keen to get better information on how to accomplish specific tasks related to the work.

6.5.5   Possibilities of UN Police officers' functions for knowledge creation

Almost all participants opined that the working context offered many possibilities for building expertise and gaining knowledge (see Table 10). The experience from the field was the main vehicle for gaining the skills to perform the work. Understanding how things are done in this complex and dynamic work environment was seen as integral at all organisational levels. The pattern in relation to how they understand their work showed that the participants were conversant with the multidimensional organisational configuration of a UN peacekeeping mission. Working in this context required grasping the combined effect of the different dimensions, such as influences on the field operations. The participants understood the importance of working experience in such a configuration and the knowledge and advantage it brings.

Table 10. Functions and knowledge creation

Organisational Levels		
Strategic	**Operational**	**Tactical**
▪ Build expertise and knowledge on how things are conducted.	▪ Field experience is seen as the main vehicle for gaining the skills and knowledge necessary to conducting the work.	▪ Many possibilities for knowledge creation in this complex and dynamic work environment; domestic policing know-how adapted to the international context.

6.5.6 UN Police officers' expertise in the use of knowledge management tools

Most of the participants had some expertise in the use of different knowledge management tools (see Table 11). Some had undergone formal training in their home country and had exposure to tools currently in use. The main issue to emerge in relation to the expertise and use of available instruments was that knowledge management tools were not being used. Many of the participants agreed that all operations are well documented. However, there is no procedure for sharing experience and knowledge aside from conversations with colleagues.

Table 11. Expertise and use of knowledge management tools

Expertise and use of available knowledge management tools		
Strategic level	**Operational level**	**Tactical level**
▪ Using procedures in place for sharing their experience and knowledge when required/ordered to provide the documentation requested.	▪ Not having or using procedures in place for sharing their experience and knowledge; talking to the colleagues who carry on their current work. ▪ All operations are well documented and reported through the chain of command for information and further action, if required.	▪ It is apparent that the use of knowledge management tools is not formally in place. ▪ It is recognised that some knowledge management tools are available but they are not taken advantage of.

6.5.7 The support UN Police officers receive in managing knowledge

The participants noted that there was a lack of support for ongoing knowledge management activities (see Table 12). In general, they spent a lot of time seeking information on how to do their work, and there were not many sources of information beyond co-workers. Participants regarded experience and expertise as knowledge that they shared informally. Many participants were part of large informal networks of seasoned colleagues. There were mixed views on the value of reviewing activities and getting feedback. The participants' consensus can be summarised as a lack of feedback. Not surprisingly, there is not much reward for sharing expertise and knowledge. Participants insisted that their own sense of initiative and morale was why they shared their expertise with each other.

Table 12. Support for managing knowledge

Ongoing support for knowledge management activities		
Strategic level	**Operational level**	**Tactical level**
▪ Need to spend a lot of time seeking information to understand how things work. ▪ Getting help or information to accomplish tasks from colleagues and by sharing task expertise. ▪ No real source of information or knowledge available that can assist.	▪ Not free in passing on experience and knowledge. ▪ Procedures and policies are in place to some extent. ▪ Large network of colleagues who help each other out. ▪ Command dimension as an important factor for making decisions regarding whether and	▪ Gaining experience and expertise are the main elements in carrying out work. ▪ Sharing experience and expertise through informal arrangements.

	how knowledge will be managed. ▪ Managing and sharing knowledge as a strategic resource is quite regulated.	

6.5.8 Interrelationships and tacit knowledge flow

There were similar views on the interrelationships within these multidimensional organisational configurations (see Table 13). This was the case for each operational site. The consensus was that important relationships with the other dimensions had to be considered. Furthermore, the effectiveness of the processes and mechanisms among dimensions appear to depend on the UN's multidimensional peacekeeping mission.

Table 13. Interrelationships and impact on the flow of tacit knowledge

Flow of tacit knowledge
Interrelationships   ▪ Check-in/out administrative procedures.   ▪ Induction training provides overview and documents; does not assist with the handover of the work but provides a form of briefing and debriefing—a means of sharing experiences.   ▪ Knowledge management appears to be more effective in some missions than others; it is often related to the influence of the strategic direction of the missions.   ▪ Consequences of the enforced policies involve, in these multidimensional organisational configurations, the requirement of each dimension to act together and demand an integrated and streamlined approach.

Impacts	▪ Various approaches, strategies, and processes demand adaptability and integration. ▪ The activities of each dimension influence each other. ▪ Decisions from other dimensions have importance for the work at hand and require an adapting strategy and operations. ▪ The source of knowledge is mainly aligned with the kind of work dealt with and the interactions between the different components. ▪ There is a common way of doing things and sharing information; examples of a lack of sharing information and cooperating efficiently require important work in streamlining the processes and mechanisms. ▪ Power struggles among the components sometimes overwhelm an individual or a group seeking to share a point of view and expertise. ▪ Knowledge management tools are often used as an administrative measure to report a specific action.

The participants expressed more positive views on the consequences of such an organisational design and emphasised the complementarity of the components. There was agreement across organisational levels that each dimension has to act with the others, and this requires integrated approaches. The consensus was that different approaches, strategies, and processes in each component affect the work of each dimension. The activities of each dimension influence each other and demand adaptability and streamlining of the processes and mechanisms at all organisational levels.

In both operational sites, some participants viewed the power struggles among the dimensions as sometimes overwhelming individuals and the group. The participants mentioned some knowledge management tools that were used as an administrative measure to report on specific actions taken by individuals or groups from a specific

dimension. Therefore, seeking to share a point of view and related expertise was not always straightforward and could negatively affect the flow of tacit knowledge among the dimensions.

6.6   Concluding remarks

During the process of field research, data collection, analysis, and interpretation, I knew that my cultural and personal bias shaped my research decisions. Therefore, the sustained involvement with the questionnaire results and the texts from the transcripts comprised a series of steps taken to weight each participant's perspectives with all data and arrive at my own interpretation. Transparency is thus offered through the objectives of this research and the themes identified in the literature review. This analysis presented both what has been brought to light and how that process took place.

The analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data has identified patterns between the two operational sites, demonstrating that in these multidimensional organisational configurations, planning, performance, and reporting, as well as coordinating and interacting with other components, are dynamic and complex processes. The development and transfer of knowledge presents challenges across the strategic, operational, and tactical levels of the UN Police and between military members and civilians.

According to the questionnaire and interviewee responses, the UN Police has a source of knowledge to be uncovered—principally, tacit knowledge in the form of domestic policing know-how adopted to the international context of these UN peacekeeping operations. It was determined that individuals and groups within these organisations are at the centre of knowledge development and transfer, and that tacit knowledge helps subject matter experts' decision-making when confronting complex and dynamic situations. Furthermore, the sharing of experience and best practices seems to happen both formally and informally, with some structures and procedures established for the sharing of valuable data, information, and knowledge. It was also noted that individual consideration becomes the prime factor in making knowledge sharing decisions. Conclusions, implications, and themes identified in the literature review are discussed in the following chapter.

Chapter 7: Research Findings and Discussion

7.0   Overview

The previous chapter incorporated the presentation of the preliminary data analysis and empirical findings, drawing on the influence of a multidimensional organisational configuration on knowledge and the interaction of tacit knowledge with major subsystems. My approach to this research is interpretivist in that the analysis of the interview material involved accepting the extent to which worlds like that of the UN Police are socially constructed (Berger and Luckmann, 1967; see also Mason, 2002, p.3) and so distancing myself from the kind of perspective in which reports from informants are taken as straightforwardly descriptive on an objective reality. The mixed design, by relying initially on numerical data, presented qualitative material that could furnish insight into possibilities for understanding the empirical context (see Gilbert, 2002).

Following on from this modus operandi, my empirical findings suggest some limited processes and mechanisms that might assist in eliciting several kinds of tacit knowledge currently left untapped by the formal knowledge systems and procedures in this multidimensional organisational configuration. Therefore, the research findings give rise to numerous issues for further discussion in relation to the literature review, which covers several lines of argument about types of knowledge and strategies for their collection, including an emphasis on organisational learning.

This chapter integrates the prominent features and correlates them with the literature, thereby attempting a clear exposition of the contribution of this research. The next chapter presents the empirical and theoretical limitations of the research, along with their implications.

7.1   Analysis of the multidimensional organisational configuration

In this multidimensional organisational arrangement, the foundations and ad hoc processes to promote beneficial knowledge management as indicated in the literature review (e.g. Busch, 2008; Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995) were not explicitly grounded in my findings. Nevertheless, because tacit knowledge originates from individual experience, and by taking into account the impact of the

structural environment, an understanding was reached of the characteristics and parts common to the concepts considered in the literature review.

The analysis of the results and empirical findings, as described previously, represents an effort to outline the critical aspects of organisational features in exhibiting individual knowledge in the form of know-how in this empirical context. Whilst this has been done to help deliver a detailed analysis of this distinct organisational design (section 2.2), in order to grasp the standardised system to sustain the management of these UN operations, it is expedient to take a more extensive view of the civilian, police, and military dimensions. Thus, the knowledge in this configuration runs through the dimensions, and, as the literature on tacit knowledge indicates, a particular organisational environment is expected, with ample organisational structures and reliance on organisational values to codify this type of knowledge (Ashton, 2004). The first key finding (section 6.5.1) about the organisational setting and the characteristics illustrated in Table 5 is that the participants report themselves as familiar with the pathways for knowledge that go through the separate dimensions. This is closely connected to the aim of this study and the examination of distinct mechanisms of eliciting and transferring tacit knowledge.

Section 2.2.1 acknowledges that organisational design is a driver of knowledge management. Following Avasthi and colleagues (2015), I examined the knowledge carried within the UN Police to understand how it is affected by the knowledge that is circumscribed across the individual officers and in defining the interrelationships among the different operational dimensions. As cited in Chapter 2, Suppiah and Sandhu (2011) asserted that tacit knowledge and sharing behaviours correspond with the attributes of the members of the organisation, including its employees, leaders, and managers. Furthermore, the literature review established that tacit knowledge—and the flow of such knowledge—not only facilitates the recognising and examining of the dynamics of individual inclinations to harvest and share knowledge, but also allows some possibility to grasp the synergies among individuals within the organisational configuration. In this empirical context, the synergies that the participants have with their supervisor, peers, and other dimensions require an adjustment to the circumstances of field operations. Occasions in which knowledge sharing took place gave the participants an opportunity to display their work activities by talking with colleagues and receiving feedback from their peers or supervisors. However, others did not think their work was regarded as a source

of knowledge. Actually, the influence of policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning is minimal within the UN Police (section 6.5.4). The current knowledge management approach links mainly to a point of view associated with knowledge Paradigm 2, which restricts knowledge management conception to relatively superficial manifestation and the use of toolbox documents made available when performing mission duties or when involved in operations. Furthermore, some situations continue to worsen due to the absence of feedback (section 6.5.7).

Given the need to advance the organisational capability of the UN Police and, to a larger extent, UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations, it is helpful to clarify the question of how the UN Police can promote the transfer of knowledge, particularly in light of the study's findings over a fast rotation of human resources. In this context, there is an intricate relationship between knowledge and individual experience. Nevertheless, the individual actors and groups of actors working in these configurations, with structures that could accommodate pathways for conveying knowledge based on experience of the different components, often do not help the harvesting and sharing of knowledge. This was borne out in the organisational characteristics of the UN Police, as well as with the different usages that take place amongst the different dimensions. The strong indication from my study is that the prevailing interrelationships across organisational dimensions do not carry the kind of comprehensive framework for knowledge creation and conversion anticipated by scholars such as Eraut (2000) and Polanyi (1962, 1967b) as being imperative for taking account of tacit knowledge (see Chapters One, Two, and Three).

7.2   Revisiting key themes and critiques on eliciting tacit knowledge

Chapter Two reviewed some of the debates in the literature about knowledge, presenting the creation of knowledge as a human process that depends on technological arrangements, organisational politics, individual rewards and motives, and culture. The literature review covered the explicit and tacit forms of knowledge, knowledge management, and knowledge as a strategic resource. Practical skill or expertise (i.e. tacit) and theoretical knowing of a branch of study (i.e. explicit) can be seen in both individuals and groups at the operational sites. Endorsing Paradigm 2, there were signs at each site of processes and mechanisms (e.g. surveys, group discussions, workshops, meetings, reporting, sharing of knowledge during training, and related programmes, directives,

guidelines, and best practices) for codifying and abstracting tacit and explicit knowledge for knowledge creation and sharing. However, the findings show many stumbling blocks to exposing and sharing knowledge. As an example, many participants in the interviews highlighted the importance of good communication and collaboration; however, the current practices and knowledge management system do not enhance knowledge transfer, despite all integration efforts between the different dimensions. Furthermore, knowledge was found in repositories and other areas of the organisation, although the current setting (i.e. organisational structures and credence in organisation values) is not sufficient to elicit and take advantage of tacit knowledge. Having carried out empirical research that engaged with themes associated with eliciting tacit knowledge, we must revisit these elements in light of the relevance of tacit knowledge.

The key themes on tacit knowledge covered comprehension of the social processes that circumscribe its development and the flowing social aspect of knowledge. Customarily, transferring, sharing, and acquiring this kind of knowledge through organisational divisions and/or dimensions is correlated with practices that reflect various manners of communication (Argote et al., 2003; Argote and Ingram, 2000). The discussion in Chapter Two argued that whereas some of these elements correlate with tacit knowledge rooted in individuals' experience and context (Haldin-Herrgard, 2000; Leonard and Sensiper, 1998), capturing tacit knowledge, narration, and storytelling through language can assist with sharing among individuals. Indeed, section 2.2.3 noted that distinct types of knowledge demand rational reflection. In this research, some sharing of tactics, actions, and resources for harvesting and sharing knowledge are already in use through the knowledge sharing and organisational learning policy of the organisation examined in this study, and this remains a potentially complex relationship between knowledge and experience (section 6.5.2). Perhaps in UN Police components, associated knowledge is found in repositories and in experts working in distinctive fields. What can be said nonetheless is that an individual police officer working as a peacekeeper is a problem solver and innovator who does not become a UN Police officer by incorporating information related to the work: he or she does so by socialising with other UN Police officers and learning how to do the job. By consenting to each other's skilful interpretation of an undertaking, participants recognise each other as competent members of the organisation (Munro, 1999). That is why members are concerned with how their competence is acknowledged and recognised or dismissed by other members. As was

stressed earlier this research was not interested in the doings of individual UN Police officers as such, but has rather relied on their competence for rendering more visible the community of practices and related social networks through which tacit knowledge might be made explicit enough to enhance its flow across organisational dimensions.

The literature review suggests an inherent association among knowledge management, organisational design, evolving context, and related dynamics (Gatigon and Xuereb, 1997; MacDonald, 1991; Venkatraman, 1991). There is however no overarching framework to understand the dynamics that govern the resolutions of the participants to use their expertise and to better the role of the individual in this multidimensional organisational configuration. Instead, the two operational sites that were studied had communities of UN Police officers who aspired to expand their individual skills by drawing on the collective knowledge of their colleagues. This happens when officers team up—for instance, in communities (Brown and Duguid, 1991; Lave and Wenger, 1991). These elements pointed to Paradigm 1, where the focus is on deeper manifestations of knowledge, such as matters that are taken for granted by different operatives on the ground and assumptions and understandings of practices. However, few managerial actions were initiated to influence the development of an environment with an infrastructure conductive to these ad hoc processes for knowledge management. The findings on the knowledge management approach and process (see Table 8) recognised that the type of work and organisational structures generate new experiences to develop and adapt the participants' working skills. Participants from both operational sites mentioned instead work structure, which relied on teams working together with trusted and experienced peers in face-to-face interactions to pass along specific information and knowledge about the working context and how to handle the workload.

All these elements indicate that the UN Police component should offer greater possibilities and spaces for individuals to interact in knowledge creation rather than concentrating on obtaining, determining, shifting, and sharing existing knowledge (von Krogh et al., 2000). In fact, UN Police officers clearly rely on communities of practice to understand, appraise, and harmonise knowledge in new surroundings. These communities did not display the characteristics presented by Lave and Wenger (1991) and Zack (1999c), and the work structure depends instead on teams working together. It

seems that for the most part, long discussions with trusted colleagues relating to the difficulties they have faced or are facing often take place in informal settings.

Indeed, it was established in this empirical setting that knowledge accessibility is based on experience and the connections of individual actors and groups. This correlates with the assertion by Lawy and Bloomer (2003, p.28) that practices and communities expand sequentially through analogous processes. In this way, prior experiences serving as knowledge archives fashion the inclinations of all parties towards knowledge exchange processes and influence whether or not knowledge is distributed. All in all, while much doubtless remains tacit, these communities of practice, where they occur within the UN Police component, foster much of the creation and the collection of knowledge that is made explicit from moment to moment.

When it comes to effective operations in these specific configurations, I established how the UN Police component relies on the interactive methods and interplay amongst individual actors with the expertise required, with fieldwork experience as the main medium. When considering the endorsement of Paradigm 2 in the empirical context of this study and the expertise and motivations of the UN Police officers in using knowledge management tools (see Table 11), a need was perceived for consolidating an integrated approach with a method combining the flow of explicit knowledge into and out of a repository (section 6.5.6). This ties in with Zack's (1999b) classification of knowledge management architecture into interactive and integrative approaches that include a broad set of knowledge-processing management abilities in both tacit and explicit knowledge domains (Chapter 2), shared by authors such as Hansen and colleagues (1999).

7.3   Turning tacit knowledge into a strategic resource

This research revealed that with a multidimensional organisational configuration, the flow of tacit knowledge is particularly affected. The earlier discussion allows for a detailed articulation of the need for organisations to be equipped to locate, elicit, store, share, and benefit from not only data and information, but also knowledge in terms of what is taken for granted as 'know-how'. Most of the participants in this study viewed their work experiences within this particular multidimensional organisational configuration as a source of knowledge (section 6.5.5). As discussed earlier experience in the field was reported as the main vehicle for gaining the skills to perform the work,

with understanding how things are done in this complex and dynamic work environment being seen as integral to accomplishing tasks at all organisational levels. Knowledge often stays with the individual UN Police officer rather than being shared among colleagues.

In saying this I hope this study fosters a better understanding of the part practitioners themselves play in harmonising the concept of knowledge with what is taken for granted as 'know-how'. At the level of practice, the empirical findings reveal something of the range of the tacit knowledge potentially held by the UN Police officers. Often enough the type of knowledge associated with their functions calls for specialised expertise and skills (see Table 6). Participants at the strategic level for example require high-profile knowledge in strategic planning and in dealing with complex project management. The operational level, in coordinating all components, needs expertise and skills in planning and executing complex and integrated tasks. The participants' tactical levels of expertise and special skills relate to their field experience and their learned or intuitive understanding of how things are done. As such, harvesting and sharing such knowledge in a multidimensional organisational configuration requires acknowledgement that this is a strenuous process, which surely entails recognising, and taking into account, the ever-changing social aspects of knowledge.

It became more and more apparent in my study the extent to which that there are many elements of knowledge management practices (e.g. knowledge creation, knowledge transfer, and knowledge storage and access) within the UN Police, with interrelationships among other dimensions, albeit not in a fully structured design (see Table 7). Furthermore, there appear to be many obstacles to sustaining work cohesion and coordinating the right expertise with the required field experience, particularly as the organisation does not appear to provide much structure without the support of leadership. Their current inclinations in explicating and sharing knowledge appeared to be a matter of personal choice; in this context, harvesting tacit knowledge per se is not truly happening (see Table 9).

The analysis of the prevailing practices for the management of knowledge informs the way in which individual actors are predisposed to make decisions based on prior experience; most of the participants could recognise their own functions with the concept of knowledge as know-how by connecting to their own experience as UN Police officers

(see Table 10). This ties in with the literature on discerning the role of tacit know-how in knowledge management. Chapter 2 referred to Tsoukas (2003), and this research supported the point that much of the knowledge that individuals obtain as a consequence of experience is not documented, shared, or methodically turned to account (see also Kreiner, 2002; Leonard and Sensiper, 1998; Zack, 1999b). This is substantiated in the narrative summarising the information collected about the ways in which the UN Police addresses the process of managing knowledge from the three different organisational levels and two operational sites (see Table 8). The analysis in the previous chapter indicated that their views on promoting knowledge management, and how best to approach the process depended on their level of responsibility within the work structure. Nevertheless, the knowledge often stays with the individuals and their colleagues; therefore, their expertise is not shared outside the workplace.

Whilst in this distinct multidimensional organisational configuration, knowledge is differentially viewed and possessed by individuals (section 6.5.3), in the concepts addressed in the review of the literature it was established that tacit knowledge in the form of know-how is shared where common practice predominates (see Brown and Duguid, 2001). This research provides supportive evidence of the requirement for the effort and support of associates who have this knowledge and those who need it (section 6.5.7). A lack of support for ongoing knowledge management activities was noted, and a lot of time was needed to gather information on how to do the work. However, the pattern of the results indicates that participants are sufficiently cognisant of the need to manage knowledge within an apparently bureaucratic and regulated organisation (see Table 12)—that is, by self-consciously following Paradigm 1, participants regarded experience and expertise as knowledge coming mainly from their co-workers that they shared informally out of their own sense of initiative and morale. Furthermore, police officers, by endeavouring to make their knowledge and expertise explicit, might lose some or all control of it. This is an issue, as the main means to be given an extension of the tour of duty lies in the need for the UN Police to retain or recall those individuals with the requisite knowledge, experience, and expertise. This combination of factors underpins the knowledge flow inside this configuration, and this succession of factors underpins the knowledge management inclination within this context.

A key finding in this research is identifying in general a significant knowledge resource that is perhaps under-recognised and certainly untapped. Following Paradigm 1 with a custom-built knowledge management strategy could help the UN Police when deployed in multidimensional peacekeeping operations. That is, almost without exception in the study, UN Police officers are interested in telling stories about their experience and sharing their expertise. Such stories could be collected and analysed in a specialised unit by those trained in discourse analysis. So, too, the techniques of data mining familiar to those concerned with the analysis of big data might be able to harness knowledge that is otherwise difficult to formalise and make explicit on an individual basis. Therefore, content analysis as a version of discourse analysis presented in the Methodology and Methods chapter might help with knowledge management in the UN Police, where day-to-day conversational encounters are adjusted when institutional frames are in play (Antaki and Stokoe, 2017, p.1). Professor Elizabeth Stokoe has developed an application of a psychologically-focused version of discourse analysis to police interrogation as an interesting method of content analysis to interrogate and interpret the data. Her approach could be developed to help with institutional constraints on conversation that UN Police officers have with each other and their colleagues from different dimensions. The goal of this application could be to explore aspects of knowledge that UN Police officers tend to leave tacit and to examine the interrelationships between these un-reflected types of knowledge among different organisational dimensions. The suggestion is that a tailor-made version of discourse analysis adapted to the empirical context could help connect UN Police officers and improve their interrelationship with other dimensions. By acknowledging the current Paradigm 1 approach utilised informally by the UN Police and recognising that some knowledge is difficult to formalise without a specific application of discourse analysis, such a modus operandi could foster current official knowledge management efforts, mainly following Paradigm 2. This recommendation is substantiated further in the next section.

7.4   Organisational configuration and impacts on the flow of tacit knowledge

This discussion chapter warrants a thorough articulation of the utility of tacit knowledge within a multidivisional organisational configuration. Section 3.1.1 noted that managing these multidimensional operations involves planning, measuring performance, and reporting on each dimension independently, in addition to coordinating and

communicating with other dimensions. Chapter 1 proposed that to prevail, the individual groups within these organisations must be responsible for knowledge transfer and personnel development. As such, interest in harvesting the different types of knowledge and how it could be refined within the UN Police components did not manifest itself as an issue in this research: UN Police functions provide opportunities for knowledge creation and transfer that can be effective within the UN Police in collaboration with the other dimensions. This research also found that whilst respondents did not expressly converse about harvesting knowledge, by virtue of the expression of their inclinations and attitudes toward the subject matter, it was feasible to circumscribe the sets of dispositions of such individuals from this distinct dimension of the two UN missions used for this study. The demand for a specific shared type of tactics, actions, and resources that would enable the development of operational information and experience into a knowledge process became apparent. The interconnectedness among the different dimensions throughout diverse settings could enhance the possibility of knowledge harvesting and sharing. It could also offer individuals and groups a wider network. Based on the process and outcomes of this research, it can be argued that meaningful attributes of eliciting tacit knowledge are both an inherent strategic resource in the form of specialised knowledge from individuals who work in these UN operations and the incorporation of platforms to form the necessary social network for contributing to the knowledge transfer mechanisms for explicit and tacit knowledge flows to take place.

It was found that several mechanisms guide individual knowledge management and associated arrangements within the context of this study. While articulating these mechanisms drew on the respondents' perception of former practice and knowledge collections; from a theoretical point of view, one notable contribution of the research is perhaps in facilitating a better understanding of the knowledge flow through the dynamics of this multidimensional organisational configuration. However, results and explanations from study participants were not entirely conclusive in explaining why and how they gather their synergies among distinct dimensions. To study the dynamics of the tacit knowledge flow in this organisational configuration among individuals and groups, I should underline the importance of understanding the work that is accomplished through interrelationships with the other dimensions.

While participants often apply the same approach to accommodate a situation, their ability to apply professional methods or approaches is usually a consequence of the training and education from their home country. Nevertheless, by reflecting on the application of knowledge creation in the analysis of the collected data, supportive evidence was found for the empirical utility of tacit knowledge over and above the concepts examined in Chapter Two. The participants in the present study explained that they acquire most of their skills as UN Police officers during their tour of duty on a UN multidimensional peacekeeping mission. Unmistakably, their function generates knowledge creation in developing a clear direction and background and knowing how to deal with especially difficult events in such operations. The challenging work offers continuous possibilities to obtain higher-level skills and understanding about how to work in complex and hostile work environments. The UN Police, like many organisations, has a large amount of aggregate knowledge to be uncovered. Yes, to a considerable degree, this knowledge is tacit, taking the form of know-how and best practices (O'Dell and Grayson, 1998), but to perform well, UN Police officers exhibit knowledge, and this individual knowledge depends on the social context in which it is found (Grover and Davenport, 2001). Therefore, even though their function provides for knowledge creation, the source of knowledge creation is essentially aligned with the work UN Police officers do and their relationship with the civilian and/or military component(s).

The formal structure in these UN Police components is pyramidal, which is related to the operational concept of such a police organisation. All UN Police officers had a one-to-one working relationship with their direct supervisor. It was apparent from the interviews that the supervisors/managers felt that they knew the abilities, qualifications, strengths, and weaknesses of the officers under their purview. In this context, the participants recognised that the structure of the UN multidimensional peacekeeping missions does affect opportunities to manage knowledge. It is important to note that it is an organisation that Scarbrough and Swan (2001) would present as endorsing knowledge management with a focus on tools and knowledge (i.e. Paradigm 2). The points made in Chapter Two on national culture shaping individual attitudes towards knowledge sharing and influencing their cognitive tendencies, and the comments made by Bhagat and colleagues (2002) and Ford and Chan (2003) on the difficulties of transferring knowledge between recipients who do not hold the same beliefs, assumptions, and cultural norms, also emerged during this research. UN Police officers are from different countries, and, from

the empirical findings, it can be concluded that their policing cultures and backgrounds affect decision-making and the sharing of information and expertise.

Many of the issues in the literature on technical and organisational infrastructures with diverse avenues for effective knowledge transfer (Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Dewhurst et al., 2001; Zack, 1999a) are supported in the research findings for the two operational sites. The multidimensional organisational configuration that is specific to the empirical context of this study requires accommodating the workplace culture and organisational strategies so that they value learning and sharing. This is strongly linked to stakeholder and management elements to create an environment in which cultural diversity is taken into account. Furthermore, the elements of influence (i.e. regional variances in cultures, political systems, and levels of economic development) mentioned in the literature review conducted by Rhody and Tang (1995) were observed, and they demand acknowledging the prevailing organisational practices that affect the interrelationships and the flow of tacit knowledge (see Table 13).

As discussed in the previous section, the UN Police requires well-defined processes and customised solutions for the generation of corporate knowledge. However, as UN peacekeeping has evolved into a complex multidimensional enterprise involving personnel from a range of nationalities, disciplines, and professional cultures, it is unlikely any single overarching knowledge management system could fully integrate all dimensions, even at the strategic level of operations.

7.5   Concluding remarks

In this chapter, I have demonstrated the interrelationships of different dimensions and the transcendent nature of tacit knowledge within the empirical context used for this study. In doing so, I have shown that the actions of the individuals and groups of actors within this multidimensional organisational configuration do not occur in isolation: each dimension bears considerations for the entire organisation. This thesis investigated the interactions of tacit knowledge in relation to the current major subsystems used by the UN Police and their impact on the flow of tacit knowledge. It is worth emphasising again that the concept of tacit knowledge and organisational configuration design has been used in this research to examine how knowledge is circulated and to elaborate on the prevailing social factors and participatory methods, as well as the opportunity for cooperation within

these configurations. As established in the first chapter, much organisational knowledge is embodied in people, and the nature of this knowledge is elusive. Therefore, an exploration of the interrelationships across distinctive dimensions enables a demonstration of how individuals and groups of actors exhibit their inclinations in practice, thus providing insight into the functioning of the UN Police components regarding the predisposition not only to make practical decisions but to share relevant data, information, and knowledge. By revisiting key themes on eliciting tacit knowledge, I addressed contemporary critiques on tacit knowledge. I demonstrated that these themes and critiques have a bearing on the empirical context used for this research. Furthermore, the discussion on the utility of tacit knowledge allows the research to articulate the influence of a multidimensional organisational configuration on the elicitation and sharing of knowledge as a strategic resource, along with a consideration of cultural diversity in unleashing individual and organisational knowledge.

In discussing the fact that knowledge must be disseminated horizontally among peers and vertically among hierarchal levels within the UN Police, it was noted that due to possible deficiencies in the prevailing knowledge management system, tacit knowledge was not being effectively or efficiently harvested, as the main social interactions between the different organisational dimensions are not facilitated. The UN Police is not equipped to deal with all aspects of interrelationships within these organisational configurations, such as the issue of power relations and the interaction of one cultural group with another's organisational structure, which could encourage and enhance the possibility of progress during peacekeeping operations (section 6.5.8). Because UN Police officers are subject matter experts when deployed in multidimensional peacekeeping operations, there are also many reasons why they may not share their knowledge with non-domain specialists (e.g. power, language differences, and time constraints). Whoever controls the work organisation exercises power that erects or removes barriers (Fuller et al., 2005), and this discussion has indicated that the UN Police can follow separate approaches to knowledge management depending on the leadership, the individual, and the group of actors. Nevertheless, the current framework does not fully reflect people's experiences, and therefore it cannot produce new processes and mechanisms for exchanging and developing knowledge. The following chapter puts this remark into proper perspective.

Chapter 8: Conclusions and Implications for Possible Future Research

8.0   Overview

Chapter One presented the research problem and the rationale. The purpose involved the contribution to the academic literature in advancing knowledge of the connection between the organisational environment and tacit knowledge, on the one hand, and the burgeoning number of multidimensional organisations, on the other. This was connected especially with the emergence of UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations. The analytical framework adopted for the research was based on a synthesis of insights from the literature review and methods and methodologies tested out in the social sciences. The framework considered several other concerns that may not be viewed as having an immediate impact on tacit knowledge, but that in my view can affect the flow of tacit knowledge within the integrative constituents of a UN multidimensional peacekeeping mission. The aim was to illuminate the relationships connecting organisational design, organisational knowledge orientation, environmental dynamics, and current knowledge management systems in the UN Police. In conducting the research, my awareness of the social processes involved was particularly heightened, especially in terms of their considerable impact on the flow of knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration.

Chapters Two and Three examined the literature and the empirical context that was used to inform the analytical framework. The literature review focused on the themes linked to the research question and sub-questions arising from it. Chapter Two examined issues related to knowledge management, involving the depiction of a framework that arises from experience and produces new processes and mechanisms for exchanging and developing knowledge. This was accompanied by a review of expertise and the associated tacit elements of the organisation that are often discerned but not taken fully into account. The chapter then explored the debates in the literature on tacit knowledge originating from subject matter experts and described the effect of the organisational environment upon tacit knowledge elicitation. Chapter Three examined another aspect of interest by considering the work-related knowledge of this organisation. Chapter Four described the research methodology and the design of the research instruments. A mixed methodology was used to arrive at a more complete picture of the issue. Chapter Four also examined ethical issues related to the research, the research sample, and the fieldwork. Chapters

Five and Six presented the qualitative and quantitative data that were collected for each operational site. A summary then presented the patterns across the two operational sites and their interrelationships with the two other dimensions. Chapter Seven discussed the data analysis and empirical findings. The issues were discussed within the empirical findings arrived at through data analysis and a summary of patterns across the three organisational levels of the two operational sites. This final chapter presents the main conclusions, implications, and research limitations.

8.1   Empirical contribution of this research

The research presents several interesting and potentially eye-opening results linked to the UN Police components under study, and it further highlights the need for more research in areas that may bolster or challenge the data and empirical findings discussed in Chapter Seven. This study exposes many gaps in the knowledge management system within the two participating operational sites (section 6.5.3). These gaps must be addressed before considering specific models or theories with regard to the connection between organisational environment and tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge, such as practical skills or expertise, was confirmed to perform a meaningful part in UN Police components deployed in multidimensional peacekeeping missions. It also surfaced that knowledge management structures, as per the policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning, are only slowly being implemented. Currently, the system in place in both operational sites does not take full advantage of any type of knowledge. In this context, the capacity to continue harvesting and refining tacit knowledge is beyond the scope of this study, despite the findings that individual know-how of UN Police officers may be viewed as a source of inherent advantage for the organisation in terms of problem-solving and decision-making. This research concludes that while the multidimensional organisational configuration of UN peacekeeping missions and their leadership are responsible for attributes related to knowledge management, the participants recognised the potential benefit of taking advantage of their individual know-how and sought opportunities for sharing it with the others.

To suggest some limited processes and mechanisms that might assist in eliciting what seems to be considered either 'tacit' or 'unnoticed' in a multidimensional organisational configuration, Figure 9 depicts the knowledge flow. The configuration is symbolised by a square containing three concentric circles representing the three dimensions in UN

multidimensional peacekeeping missions, where specific work-related knowledge and expertise are held by individuals and groups. From the upper left going clockwise, the first circle represents the civilian component (C), the second the police component B), and the third the military component (M); the positioning of the circles does not reflect the influence of the dimension in the organisational configuration. This organisational design has a considerable effect on the flow of tacit knowledge. The cross-sections (i.e. CP, PM, and MC) represent the connecting activities between the two dimensions, associating the experience of individual actors and groups. These pathways are the invisible or informal relationships that shape the development and sharing of tacit knowledge between the two components and are discussed together. When it comes to the dimension's collective intellectual and operational capability, each component seems responsible for knowledge transfer and the development of all operators within that dimension. The inner cross-section (i.e. CPM) represents the integrated pathway that emerged, pertaining to the characteristics and imported know-how from the interrelationships among the three components. This area depicts the tacit knowledge flow among the dimensions. These emerging pathways can present a preeminent opportunity for the flow of tacit knowledge that could increase awareness and harvesting that concentrates on the interplay among individual actors with the expertise required through knowing-in-practice.

The illustration is based on the conclusion that to understand how to harvest and transfer tacit knowledge in this multidimensional organisational configuration, it is essential to define the condition, the occurrence, and where it is situated. The illustration implies that know-how in the UN Police emerges from day-to-day events within the component and from the interrelationships among the other dimensions that affect the development, harvesting, and transfer of tacit knowledge through dimensions when diverse practices of interaction take place when mobilising tacit knowledge in problem solving. These interrelationships, connections, and associations between tacit knowledge and decision-making hint at the requirement for a customised knowledge management system (section 6.5.8). Furthermore, the findings from the research showed that communities of practice and groups of actors involve those who individuals aspire to increase their collective knowledge and skills, either in teams or through informal networks of current and former colleagues. Informal knowledge-sharing and the development of skills and

experiences through social interactions still matter to the great majority of the participants.

Endorsement by top management is crucial in rendering more visible these community of practices and related social networks through which tacit knowledge might be made explicit enough to enhance its flow across organisational dimensions. As knowledge accessibility in this empirical context is principally from experience and through varied relationships of individuals and groups of actors within and between components, specific managerial actions could be encourage to induce the expansion of the infrastructures and ad hoc processes between the cross-sections to consolidate an integrated pathway among all dimensions and those who transfer and receive knowledge. In the UN Police component, the sharing of tactics, actions, and resources to support the development of operational information and experience into a knowledge process, along with the social network (i.e. cross-sections and inner cross-section), are vital sources of tacit knowledge that could be made sufficiently explicit to be harvested and transferred between experts and non-domain experts. This would also necessitate dealing with issues related to power and miscommunication in a complex and dynamic working environment.
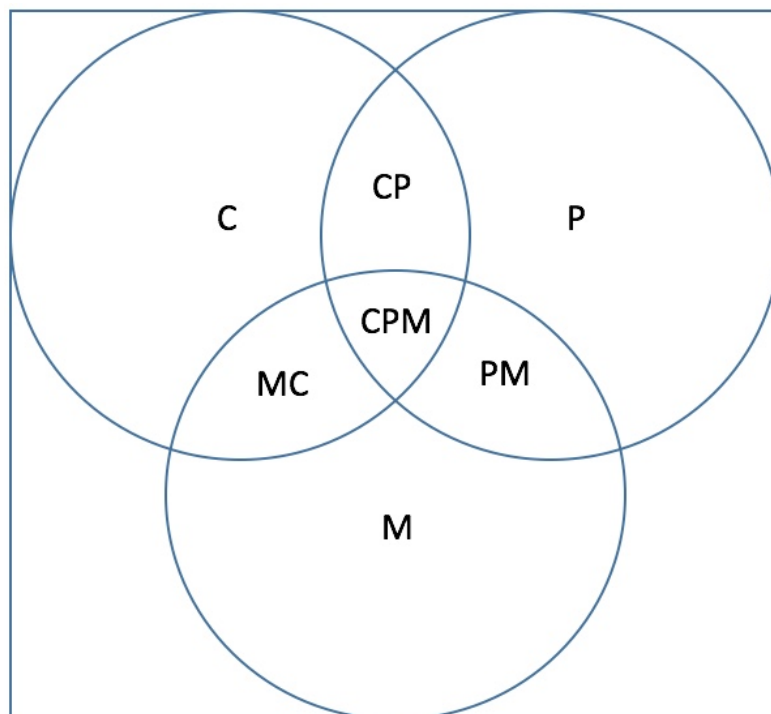

Figure 9. Organisational dynamics and tacit knowledge flow in UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations

In attempting to enhance understanding of the intangible dynamics related to the creation, adoption, and diffusion of tacit knowledge within a multidimensional organisational configuration, it is essential to consider knowledge management. The two paradigms stress that it is essential to have some method of advancing, harvesting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals into the corporate structure. In the context of this study, the practice of managing knowledge sheds light on different aspects by considering that knowledge is social and contextual.

To have some modus operandi in promoting, adopting, and distributing knowledge from individuals to the corporate structure within a multidimensional organisational configuration, it is necessary to understand the key aspects that shape the harvesting and transfer of organisational knowledge. This practice within the UN Police must consider that knowledge is social and contextual. This conclusion, informed by UN Police officers' experience, perception, and values, is consistent with the work of Haldin-Herrgard (2000) and Leonard and Sensiper (1998), who contend that tacit knowledge has its origins in individuals' experiences, perceptions, and values, and is therefore contextual.

This study, by tying 'explicit' and 'tacit' knowledge to the distinction between 'practical' and 'discursive' consciousness (p.85), fosters a better understanding of the part practitioners themselves play in harmonising the concept of knowledge. It can be inferred from the results that multidimensional organisational configuration puts the UN Police in a position to develop its own knowledge management system by taking advantage of knowledge as a strategic asset. This conclusion is based on what was observed at the operational sites. The UN Police components deployed in these operations are a source of know-how that is acquired from working within the operational sites. By taking advantage of this type of knowledge, the knowledge sharing will improve. This research has established that work is needed to explore a knowledge codification strategy in which all available knowledge is elicited, organised, structured, and consolidated in information systems. Importantly such work should also develop a personalisation strategy focused on tacit knowledge sharing from one individual to another, since this could help the different dimensions to share their expertise and work together and should not be ignored as part of the organisational architecture and design process. This recommendation concurs with the work of Hansen and colleagues (1999) and Zack (1999a). Interactive

knowledge management could bolster personalisation, and an integrative knowledge management system design could intensify the codification strategy.

UN Police officers value harvesting and sharing their expertise. Their dependence on other kinds of knowledge to do their work, or any other specific and formal approaches, were not wholly evidenced in this research. Had this been the case, it would have flagged a potential interference for the value of tacit knowledge for the UN Police component in UN multidimensional peacekeeping operations. The question then remains as to how to take advantage of tacit knowledge in this organisational configuration. The conclusion is that UN Police officers should be allowed to share their expertise through a reconciled process, integrating key aspects that affect the flow of tacit knowledge, as illustrated in Figure 9. This would encourage subject matter experts to engage with and avail themselves of knowledge management.

Several underpinning themes of this research are interrelated. The combination of these themes determines how expensive the knowledge management environment could be in the UN Police components. Management support and foundations for effective knowledge management with the autonomous community of practice are necessary. Issues that are external to the UN Police, such as the policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning about how tools and knowledge can be acquired and shared, also influence how UN Police officers engage with knowledge creation. This brings into sharp focus the fact that tacit knowledge gained in the workplace is grossly under-recognised, and consequently the scope and ability of UN Police officers to react to tasks is underestimated. Given this knowledge management deficit, especially in relation to tacit knowledge, it is difficult to ascertain the level of expertise of the UN Police components deployed on multidimensional peacekeeping missions.

The need to recognise that a contrast exists between *'what can be said'* (i.e. discursive consciousness) and '*what is characteristically simply done'* (i.e. practical consciousness), set forth in literature review chapter (p.32), is not fully acknowledged in the UN Police. A contributory factor here is the fact that tacit knowledge is rendered invisible because it is connected to fieldwork. The features of a process for formal acknowledgment of this type of knowledge and how it should relate to policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning is something that warrants further research. A practical question is whether the newly acquired tacit knowledge that enhances UN Police effectiveness in

their current work can be the same as that knowledge that is acquired in a more structured setting. To conclude, knowledge development and sharing constitute an ongoing process in UN Police components, but this process is largely unrecognised because of its informal nature. The knowledge sharing and organisational learning tools available for the UN Police officers, as the sole means to achieve knowledge management, cannot harvest the tacit knowledge needed to do the work, and this might be why it is underused. Endorsing Paradigms 1 and 2 simultaneously is extremely difficult for any organisation; however, developing a better understanding of reflective practices, as explored in the literature on knowledge and its management, can aid better decision-making, improve focus, and lead to greater coordination and productivity of efforts within a multidimensional organisational configuration. Thus, a better, simultaneous awareness of Paradigms 1 and 2 would avoid focus on a single perspective. It could help with a required design related to the extent and depth of the knowledge management system that the empirical context of this study may need.

8.2 Research contribution on eliciting, collecting, and transferring tacit knowledge

The contemporary discourse in the research on tacit knowledge compels an understanding of the social processes that define its construction. This study has demonstrated that a multidimensional organisational configuration affects the flow of knowledge. Research participants considered their fieldwork as a prominent source of expertise, if not a unique source of knowledge about their work development. A strong relationship between working experience and knowledge sharing was shown to exist, and this relationship should be recognised by the leadership.

Each peacekeeping operation is different, but there is a large degree of uniformity in mandated tasks and organisational structures. This research indicates that harvesting tacit knowledge in such a multidimensional organisational configuration as a feature of a knowledge management system that integrates the explicit and tacit knowledge would be beneficial. Knowledge sharing is a significantly strong basis for taking advantage of tacit knowledge, particularly for dynamic and complex tasking. However, this may not work efficiently among the different dimensions. The findings helped in exploring the organisational culture characteristics and recommended further study of the dynamics within a multidimensional organisational configuration when dealing with operational

activities across components and dimensions. The culture and tradition based on the existing community of practice may not translate efficiently to other dimensions. The creation of an expansive knowledge environment that shares explicit and tacit knowledge may therefore pose a problem. This finding warrants further research.

There is a further implication in relation to harvesting knowledge. The benefit that accumulates in experienced individuals as a result of their work could be appropriated to greater effect if there were more ways to harvest and share their expertise. These forums would need to take account of and build on these individuals' know-how. The component would benefit from having more skilled employees in a position of authority and responsibility by realising the tacit knowledge and hands-on experience that these individuals have obtained in the course of their work. Although an organisation can progress through harvesting and sharing expertise and experience, knowledge management processes can be quite complicated and often do not consider the social processes that encompass knowledge development. It will be imperative for the successful advancement of management processes that they receive wide acceptance at all organisational levels. Comprehensive communication, education, and training are recommended, and may all be achieved through a knowledge management network. The onus is on the component to develop in coordination with the other dimensions, with a designated incumbent as a focal point. The exercise will require specialists with acumen and expertise to develop such structures and programmes within a multidimensional organisational configuration.

8.3   Empirical and theoretical limitations encountered in this research

The limitations of this research, detailed below, are classified as empirical and theoretical. Empirical limitations consist of factors that were outside of my control as a researcher, as well as limitations resulting from choices made about the research approach and the empirical context. The theoretical limitation, on the other hand, relates to tacit knowledge and became evident in the course of data analysis and empirical findings.

8.3.1   Empirical limitations

This research could be of interest to practitioners. Not all multidimensional organisational configurations require management of this type of knowledge, but for those organisations that hope to become more resourceful and versatile and that desire to prepare their

employees to participate and help the organisation to mature and be more effective, the research findings on tacit knowledge may be applicable. Although the participants had to be part of the UN Police, the ideal situation would have been to allow multi-participant arrangements from all dimensions. Ideally, military and civilian components should have been addressed, but these other components have a distinct role with their own functions and systems. The access to the UN Police expresses the reciprocal engagement connecting my research goals and the interests of this organisation; I had access to the UN Police, but not to the other components. Therefore, the nature of the research would have shown a curtailment in gaining access to these other components and the intricacies of adjustment in linking research objectives and interests. For this reason, only the UN Police component was approached. Other research limitations included the limited funding and time frame. In this regard, the research was carried out on a more modest scale than was preferred.

8.3.2 Theoretical limitations

In the literature review, several frameworks demonstrated the application of tacit knowledge as an elemental asset. However, there is little agreement in the literature about what constitutes knowledge or knowledge management. For this study, it is advisable to position the concepts in relation to other associated theories, particularly such theories as the tacit-explicit duality that divide discussions, arguments, and ideas into two contrasting views on knowledge (e.g. Paradigms 1 and 2). This point arises from the identification of an occurrence during research analysis, which implies that theoretically, an organisation needs to be prepared to deal with specific features of individual interactions within these multidimensional organisational configurations. In the findings and analysis chapter, tacit knowledge is shown to offer insight into the individuals' actions and experiences that guide their knowledge management and sharing practices. The study infers that although the different dimensions are part of the same entity, there may be a tendency among some components and individual actors to engage in a selective diffusion of knowledge and an attempt to gain or defend a potential position of power and knowledge base; these elements can dramatically affect the flow of tacit knowledge (see Table 13).

8.4 Scope and recommendations for further research

Although the research and empirical findings are relevant to other contexts, there is a requirement for more case studies in settings with a multidimensional organisational configuration and other geographical areas to produce more generalisable results. Tacit knowledge, by allowing participation in practical activities and insisting on the distinction between doing something well or poorly, is a research area that demands additional exploration. This research on the influence of a multidimensional organisational configuration on the elicitation of tacit knowledge and interaction of knowledge with the major subsystems is unique for the following reasons. Firstly, it challenges the traditional view of how knowledge is considered within the empirical context of this research. It also reveals that knowledge sharing within UN multidimensional peacekeeping missions does not necessary crystallise the knowledge that is needed for UN Police components and requires further research on a knowledge management system. Because it is specific to the UN Police and to multidimensional peacekeeping operations, the findings can be developed to inform knowledge management strategies for UN Police components around the world. However, by reaching a larger sample, accommodating not only the police but also military and civilian components, the interrelationships between these dimensions could be examined even more closely.

8.5 General remarks and implications of this study

To achieve the aim and objectives of this research and promote a greater recognition of how and why individuals and groups of actors make choices within a multidimensional organisational configuration and decide whether to harvest and share their knowledge and expertise, this research focused on the UN Police. It examined formal and informal knowledge management within the multidimensional UN peacekeeping missions. The research design relied on the synthesis of findings from various themes comprising a range of concepts that affect knowledge in a way that had not been done before. It provided additional insight into UN Police perceptions on the need to better support informal knowledge sharing and recognise how such knowledge can, and should be, be part of a knowledge management strategy (section 6.5.7). It highlighted the significance of a particular relationship that exists between different dimensions. This type of relationship seems to be more relevant for knowledge creation and diffusion than formal interventions. Therefore, to maintain a flow of knowledge within a multidimensional

organisational configuration, the centre of attention is shifted beyond knowledge sharing towards a framework that combines the generation, harvesting, and transfer of tacit knowledge.

List of appendices

Appendix 1: Sample introductory letter

To Whom It May Concern
Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Office of Rule of Law and Security Institutions
Police Division
United Nations Police

23rd April 2017

REQUEST FOR ACCESS TO THE UN POLICE ORGANISATION

My name is David Rosset, and I am a doctoral student at the University of Leicester School of Management. I am conducting research for a thesis which is titled "Eliciting tacit knowledge: How a multidimensional organisational configuration impacts on the flow of tacit knowledge – A case study of the United Nations Police".

We often know more than we can say, and organisations have an immense knowledge base to uncover from their employees, primarily including tacit knowledge in the shape of know-how. This knowledge could be put to excellent use if it were elicited and transferred within the organisations. Moreover, so often valuable knowledge is lost when personnel change. This research aims to expand the knowledge of the connection between the organisational context and tacit knowledge by studying UN Police components within UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Missions.

I believe your organisation is most suitable and appropriate for research of this nature because the kind of knowledge acquired by the incumbents in these distinct operations around the world is expected to be a hybrid of parts that can be made explicit while other knowledge is presumably tacit. Furthermore, the working environment relates to the central research question of the elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with a multidimensional organisational configuration (i.e. military, police and civilian dimensions).

This research has received ethics approval from the University of Leicester, and no personal data or confidential information will be collected. Furthermore, my work is supervised by two research supervisors from the University of Leicester.

I assure you that the information will only be used for the purpose of earning a qualification, and the data acquired based on trust and the interests, rights and sensitivities of your organisation will be safeguarded.

Thank you in advance for taking the time to help me with this research.

Best regards,

David Rosset

<u>Supervisors</u>:

Professor Rolland Munro	Dr Daniela Rudloff
Professor of Philosophy of Organisation	Lecturer

Appendix 2: Sample information sheet for self-administered online questionnaire

27 April 2017

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER – DOCTORATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, RESEARCH

Dear Colleague,

My name is David ROSSET and I am a doctoral student at the University of Leicester School of Management, I am conducting research for my thesis, "Eliciting tacit knowledge: How a multidimensional organisational configuration impacts the flow of tacit knowledge – A case study of the United Nations Police".

I would like to invite you to participate in this research project. However, before you decide, it is important to understand why the research is being done and what it requires on your part. This information sheet explains the purpose of the research and the implications of your involvement. Please read it carefully. You are welcome to discuss this project with others if you wish before you make your decision.

We often know more than we can say and organisations have an immense source of knowledge in their employees. Much of this knowledge is tacit, in the shape of know-how. This knowledge could be put to excellent use if elicited and transferred within the organisations. Moreover, valuable knowledge is often lost when personnel change. This research will expand the knowledge of the connection between organisational context and tacit knowledge by studying UN Police components within UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Missions. I believe that UN Police is most suitable for a study of this nature since the kind of knowledge acquired by the incumbents in these distinct operations around the world is anticipated to be a hybrid of parts that can be made explicit and other knowledge that is presumably tacit. Furthermore, the working environment relates to the central research question of the elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with a multidimensional organisational configuration (i.e. Military, Police and Civilian dimensions).

In the first phase of this research, a self-administered online questionnaire will be e-mailed directly to the invited participants. One hundred (100) UNPOLs working from two (2) UN Peacekeeping Multidimensional Missions with UN Police components have been invited for this research. You have been invited to take part in this first phase. For the second phase of this research (which will start a month after the first), the projected sample size for the interviews is twenty-four (24). These subject matter experts from the UN Police will come from the same two (2) UN Peacekeeping Multidimensional Missions selected for the self-administered questionnaires. To prevent double-counting of results, respondents will not be interviewed.

Proper coded referencing will be used whenever an interviewee or a questionnaire participant is quoted directly. While conducting and writing up the research, I will not disclose the names of any participants, individuals or organisations. I will also ask interviewees to review the transcript of their interviews and the related parts of the thesis before its submission, as they have the right to request that I make modifications that could protect their anonymity or the anonymity of any third parties and ensure accuracy. Therefore, individual participants will receive direct feedback from me only on their own participation—this will allow corroboration of the findings, but no original data will be altered, and none of the participants will have access to the data of other participants. Furthermore, the management, storage, organisation, analysis and disposal of data will be my responsibility, and I will minimise any risk of loss, unauthorised access or transference of data to any third parties.

If you agree to participate, please keep this information sheet. Sign and return the attached consent form to me at davidrosset@mac.com. This research has received ethics approval from the University of Leicester, and no personal data or confidential information will be collected from you. Furthermore, I requested access to the UN Police organisation and received the approval and support to conduct this study. Therefore, with the support and assistance of your organisation, I generated a list of subject matter experts and conducted an analysis to select the most suitable participants for both phases of the research. You are considered one of these experts because of your experience, knowledge and strategic, operational or tactical responsibilities.

It takes only 10 to 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. The questions will cover areas of interest for this study and all questions will relate to your knowledge, experience and perceptions of the subject. Please know that there are no right or wrong answers. All the information that I collect about you during the research will be kept strictly confidential. As explicit guarantees of confidentiality, there are no individual identifiers and your IP address is not captured when you complete the questionnaire. Furthermore, it will not be possible for anyone to identify you in any reports or publications. All data collected for this research will be encrypted and securely transferred. I assure you that I will use this information only to earn a qualification, and will safeguard the acquisition of data based on trust and the interests, rights and sensitivities of your organisation. You are under no obligation to engage in the study and you have the liberty to withdraw from the research at any time.

Furthermore, I want to make explicit that the results could be shared with other academics and professionals. Therefore, to diminish any impediments to the publication of the findings and to avoid harm to all participants, when gathering data, I will use pseudonyms to preserve your anonymity and that of your institution. Furthermore, I will not endeavour to obtain any confidential figures or information, as they are not essential to the research problem. Instead, the focus of the proposed research is how you perceive the organisational environment within the UN Police, the characteristics of its practices, and the modus operandi of developing, adopting and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate routine. As the management of tacit knowledge calls for an understanding of the social processes that determine its development, this research also examines the type of actions and resources that UN Police uses or could use to take advantage of knowledge in the shape of know-how.

Whilst there are no immediate benefits for the participants in the project, I hope that this work will be of interest to international bodies, their international partners and the whole range of security sector actors.

Thank you for reading this document and in advance for taking the time in helping me with this research.

Best regards,

David Rosset

Supervisors:

Professor Rolland Munro   Dr Daniela Rudloff

Professor of Philosophy of Organisation   Lecturer

Appendix 3: Sample consent form for University of Leicester—survey

Please tick the appropriate boxes	Yes	No
Participation		
I have read and understood the project information sheet dated 21/09/2016.		
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.		
I agree to take part in the project. Taking part in the project will include responding to a web-based survey.		
I understand that my taking part is voluntary; I can withdraw from the study at any time, and I do not have to give any reasons for why I no longer want to take part.		
Use of the information I provide for this project only		
I understand my personal details, such as e-mail address, will not be revealed to people outside the project.		
I understand that my answers may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs.		
I understand that my real name will not be used in publications, reports, web pages, or other research outputs.		
Use of the information I provide beyond this project		
I agree for the data I provide to be archived by the researcher.		
I understand that other genuine researchers will have access to the data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
I understand that other genuine researchers may use my answers in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
So we can use the information you provide legally		

I agree to assign the copyright I hold to any materials related to this project to David Rosset.

Name of participant: ……………… Signature: …………. Date:………………………

Researcher: David Rosset……….... Signature: …………. Date:………………………

Project contact details for further information:

David Rosset, +41225480139, davidrosset@mac.com

Rolland Munro (Prof.), +441568780230, rm357@leicester.ac.uk

Appendix 4: Sample e-mail—questionnaire respondents

29 April 2017

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER – DOCTORATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, RESEARCH

Dear colleague,

Thank you for your support with this research.

We often know more than we say, so valuable knowledge is often lost when personnel change. This research expands the knowledge of the connection between organisational context and tacit knowledge.

This research has received ethics approval from the University of Leicester, and no personal data or confidential information will be collected. I have requested access to the UN Police organisation and received the necessary approval and support to conduct this study.

With the help of your organisation, you have been invited to complete a self-administered survey. Attached to this e-mail please find a letter providing concise information describing the aim of the study, informed consent and how to withdraw from the study. Please do not hesitate to contact me at davidrosset@mac.com if you have any queries about this research.

Completing the questionnaire takes only 10 to 15 minutes. Please click on this link to reach the document:

https://www.survey/YYSYKSP

I thank you in advance for your diligence and support.

Best regards,

David Rosset

Appendix 5: Sample information sheet for interview

21 July 2017

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER – DOCTORATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, RESEARCH

Dear Colleague,

My name is David ROSSET and I am a doctoral student at the University of Leicester School of Management. I am conducting research for my thesis, "Eliciting tacit knowledge: How a multidimensional organisational configuration impacts the flow of tacit knowledge – A case study of the United Nations Police".

I would like to invite you to participate in this research project. However, before you decide, it is important to understand why the research is being done and what it requires on your part. This information sheet explains the purpose of the research and the implications of your involvement. Please read it carefully. You are welcome to discuss this project with others if you wish before you make your decision.

We often know more than we can say and organisations have an immense source of knowledge in their employees. Much of this knowledge is tacit, in the shape of know-how. This knowledge could be put to excellent use if elicited and transferred within the organisations. Moreover, valuable knowledge is often lost when personnel change. This research will expand the knowledge of the connection between organisational context and tacit knowledge by studying UN Police components within UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Missions. I believe that UN Police is most suitable for a study of this nature since the kind of knowledge acquired by the incumbents in these distinct operations around the world is anticipated to be a hybrid of parts that can be made explicit and other knowledge that is presumably tacit. Furthermore, the working environment relates to the central research question of the elicitation of tacit knowledge and its interaction with a

multidimensional organisational configuration (i.e. Military, Police and Civilian dimensions).

In the first phase of this research, a self-administered online questionnaire was e-mailed directly to the invited participants. One hundred (100) UNPOLs working from different UN Peacekeeping Multidimensional Mission with UN Police components have been selected for completing this questionnaire. For the second phase of this research, the projected sample size for the interviews is twenty-four (24). You have been invited to take part in this second phase. These subject matter experts from the UN Police will come from the same UN Peacekeeping Multidimensional Mission selected for the self-administered questionnaires. To prevent double-counting of results, respondents will not be interviewed.

Proper coded referencing will be used whenever an interviewee or a questionnaire participant is quoted directly. While conducting and writing up the research, I will not disclose the names of any participants or of any individuals or organisations. I will also ask interviewees to review the transcript of their interviews and the related parts of the thesis before its submission, as they have the right to request that I make modifications that could protect their anonymity or the anonymity of any third parties and ensure accuracy. Therefore, individual participants will receive direct feedback directly from me only on their own participation—this will allow corroboration of the findings, but no original data will be altered, and no participants will have access to the data of other participants. Furthermore, the management, storage, organisation, analysis and disposal of data will be my responsibility, and I will minimise any risk of loss, unauthorised access or transference of data to any third parties.

If you agree to participate, please keep this information sheet. Sign and return the attached consent form to me at davidrosset@mac.com. This research has received ethics approval from the University of Leicester, and no personal data or confidential information will be collected from you. Furthermore, I requested access to the UN Police organisation and received the approval and support to conduct this study. Therefore, with the support and assistance of your organisation, I generated a list of subject matter experts and conducted an analysis to select the most suitable participants for both phases of the research. You

are considered one of these experts because of your experience, knowledge and strategic, operational or tactical responsibilities.

It takes only 30 to 45 minutes to complete the interview. The questions will cover areas of interest for this study and all questions will relate to your knowledge, experience and perceptions of the subject. Please know that there are no right or wrong answers. All the information that I collect about you during the course of the research will be kept strictly confidential. You will not be able to be identified in any reports or publications. All data collected for this research will be encrypted and securely transferred. I assure you that I will use this information only to earn a qualification, and will safeguard the acquisition of data based on trust and the interests, rights and sensitivities of your organisation will be safeguarded. You are under no obligation to engage in the study and you have the liberty to withdraw from the research at any time.

Furthermore, I want to make explicit that the results could be shared with other academics and professionals. Therefore, to diminish any impediments to the publication of the findings and to avoid harm to all participants, I will secure your anonymity when gathering data. I will use pseudonyms to preserve your anonymity and that of your institution. Furthermore, I will not endeavour to obtain any confidential figures or information, as they are not essential to the research problem. Instead, the focus of the proposed research is how you perceive the organisational environment within the UN Police—the characteristics of its practices, and the modus operandi of developing, adopting and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate routine. As the management of tacit knowledge calls for an understanding of the social processes that determine its development, this research also examines the type of actions and resources that UN Police uses or could use to take advantage of knowledge in the shape of know-how.

Whilst there are no immediate benefits for the participants in the project, I hoped that this work will be of interest to international bodies, their international partners and the whole range of security sector actors.

Thank you for reading this document and in advance for taking the time in helping me with this research.

Best regards,

David Rosset

Supervisors:

Professor Rolland Munro   Dr Daniela Rudloff

Professor of Philosophy of Organisation   Lecturer

Appendix 6: Sample consent form for University of Leicester—interview

Please tick the appropriate boxes	Yes	No
Participation		
I have read and understood the project information sheet dated 21/09/2016.		
I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about the project.		
I agree to take part in the project. Taking part in the project will include being interviewed and recorded (audio).		
I understand that my taking part is voluntary; I can withdraw from the study at any time, and I do not have to give any reasons for why I no longer want to take part.		
Use of the information I provide for this project only		
I understand my personal details, such as phone number and address, will not be revealed to people outside the project.		
I understand that my words may be quoted in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs.		
I understand that my real name will not be used in publications, reports, web pages, or other research outputs.		
Use of the information I provide beyond this project		
I agree for the data I provide to be archived by the researcher.		
I understand that other genuine researchers will have access to the data only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		
I understand that other genuine researchers may use my words in publications, reports, web pages, and other research outputs only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.		

So we can use the information you provide legally		
I agree to assign the copyright I hold to any materials related to this project to David Rosset.		

Name of participant: ……………… Signature: ………….. Date:………………………

Researcher: David Rosset…………. Signature: ………….. Date:………………………

Project contact details for further information:
David Rosset, +41225480139, davidrosset@mac.com
Rolland Munro (Prof.), +441568780230, rm357@leicester.ac.uk

173

Appendix 7: Sample e-mail—interview participants

21 July 2017

UNIVERSITY OF LEICESTER – DOCTORATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE, RESEARCH

Dear colleagues,

Thank you for your support regarding this research.

We often know more than we can say, so valuable knowledge is often lost when personnel change. This research aims to expand knowledge about the connection between the organisational context and tacit knowledge.

This research has received ethics approval from the University of Leicester, and no personal data or confidential information will be collected. Hence, I requested access to the UN Police organisation and received the necessary approval and support to conduct this study.

With the help of your organisation, you have been invited to participate in an interview. Therefore, I have attached to this e-mail a letter providing concise information regarding the aim of the study, informed consent, and how withdrawal from the study is handled. Please, do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries about this research (e-mail: davidrosset@mac.com).

It should take only about 30 to 45 minutes to complete the interview. Please, let me know the most convenient time for you to have a teleconference via phone, Skype, or other means.

I thank you in advance for your diligence and support on this matter.

Best regards,

Appendix 8: Web-based self-administered questionnaire

University of Leicester – Doctorate of Social Science

Welcome to This Survey

Thank you for participating in this survey.

We often know more than we can say. So often valuable knowledge is lost when personnel change. This research aims at expanding knowledge of the connection between organisational context and tacit knowledge.

Please take about 10 to 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. It is strongly recommended to complete the survey in one go and to submit it by clicking on the button 'done.'

The document covers three areas of interest, and all questions relate to your knowledge, experience, and perceptions of the subject. Importantly, there are no right or wrong answers. All data collected for this research will be kept confidential and will be encrypted and securely transferred.

This research has received the necessary approval and support from your organisation to conduct this study, and it has received ethics approval from the University of Leicester, and no personal data or confidential information is collected.

You will be able to access the anonymized results, and I would like to thank you in advance for spending some of your valuable time answering the following questions.

Kind regards,

David Rosset

E-Mail: davidrosset@mac.com

(Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries about this research)

1

* 1. To proceed with this survey, please, confirm that you have read the information sheet explaining the purpose of the research and the implications of your involvement.

  ○ Yes — it is up to me to decide whether or not to take part. My proceeding to the question is taken as consent and I am aware that I can withdraw at any time.

* 2.
Please specify the duty station or UN mission where you are currently working.

[▲▼]

Other (please specify)

[   ]

* 3. How many years in total have you spent in UN Police mission(s)?

[▲▼]

Other (please specify)

[   ]

* 4.
In which position(s) have you served when in UN Police mission(s)?

	How long (in years)
Senior management	[▲▼]
Middle management	[▲▼]
Officer	[▲▼]
Staff	[▲▼]

University of Leicester – Doctorate of Social Science

Organisational environment

The first interest of this questionnaire is to target the organisational environment within the UN Police as well as the various characteristics of the practices that take place.

* 5.

Generally, in the UN Police context, the UN Police elements are well acquainted with the multidimensional organisational configuration of the UN Peacekeeping Missions.

○ Strongly agree

○ Agree

○ Disagree

○ Strongly disagree

○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 6.

The UN Police as an organisation is recognised as complementary to other UN components (i.e., military and civilian) within a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Missions.

○ Strongly agree

○ Agree

○ Disagree

○ Strongly disagree

○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

3

* 7.

In a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Mission, how clear do you think the command and control structure is?

- ○ Very clear
- ○ Clear
- ○ Unclear
- ○ Very unclear

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 8.

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission there is sometimes a blockage of information flow and disruption in the chain of command between the different dimensions (i.e., civilian, military and police).

- ○ Strongly agree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Strongly disagree
- ○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 9.

In the UN Police context, it is easy to handle the interaction between the different components (i.e., civilian, military and police).

- ○ Strongly agree
- ○ Agree
- ○ Disagree
- ○ Strongly disagree
- ○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

4

* 10.

Does the UN Police use knowledge gained from action reports, inquiries, reviews or investigations in any other part of the organization?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Not sure

Please explain your answer

[   ]

* 11.

Do you think the actual management system discourage genuine reporting?

- ◯ Strongly agree
- ◯ Agree
- ◯ Disagree
- ◯ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 12.

Does the actual management system in place seeks to blame individuals?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Not sure

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

5

Take the Survey

Modus operandi

The second interest of this questionnaire is to target the modus operandi of developing, adopting and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate routine.

* 13.

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, how clear to you are the structures and procedures to analyse and share knowledge and good practices?

○ Very clear

○ Clear

○ Unclear

○ Very unclear

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 14.

In a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Mission, is the different components (i.e., military, police and civilian) share knowledge?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

6

* 15.
In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, does the UN Police manage knowledge?

◯ Yes

◯ No

◯ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 16.
Within the UN Police, the directives, guidelines and standard procedures are based on substantiated good practices and lessons learned.

◯ Strongly agree

◯ Agree

◯ Disagree

◯ Strongly disagree

◯ Don't know

◯ Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 17.
In the UN Police context, are there any factors at work that might hinder harvesting knowledge?

◯ Yes

◯ No

◯ Not sure

Please explain your answer

[   ]

* 18.

In your experience, does the statement below accurately describe the actual situation in the UN Police? Lessons learned in relation to UN Police activities, rehearsals and exercises are shared with the military and civilian components of the Department of Peacekeeping Operations for advice and evaluation.

○ Strongly agree

○ Agree

○ Disagree

○ Strongly disagree

○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 19.

Please rate: What factors do you think support efficient UN Police operations? (1 being the most critical, 7 being the least critical).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Knowledge harvesting, conversion and sharing	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Access to related good practices and lessons learned	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Detailed policies, directives, guidelines and procedures	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Home country training	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Pre-deployment mission training	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
In-mission training	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Periodic evaluation	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

Take the Survey

University of Leicester – Doctorate of Social Science

Type of actions and resources

The management of tacit knowledge calls for an understanding of the social processes that determine its development. Therefore, the third interest of this survey seeks to examine the type of actions and resources that would allow the UN Police to use knowledge in the shape of know-how.

* 20.

The UN Police as an organisation has an immense strategic resource in the form of specialised knowledge to be uncovered from individuals who work in these Multidimensional Peacekeeping Operations around the world.

○ Strongly agree

○ Agree

○ Disagree

○ Strongly disagree

○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 21.

Is there a need for timelines for processing knowledge management activities within UN Police?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Not sure

If yes, please explain your answer

[   ]

* 22.

What is the purpose of the knowledge management process within the UN Police? More than one answer is possible, tick the boxes accordingly.

☐ Collecting data

☐ Collecting information

☐ Harvesting knowledge

☐ Sharing knowledge

☐ Supporting a learning process

☐ There is no knowledge management process

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 23.

In your experience does the statement below accurately describe the actual situation in the UN Police? UN Police standard operating procedures are adopted by the mission.

○ Strongly agree

○ Agree

○ Disagree

○ Strongly disagree

○ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 24.

In the context of the UN Police operations and their related activities, do you think that what is learned in a specific mission is carried over into all other UN Police missions?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Not sure

Please explain your answer

[   ]

10

184

* 25.

Are directives, guidelines, standard operating procedures and training modules developed for the UN Police on the basis of knowledge from other missions?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Not sure

Please explain your answer

[   ]

* 26.

Are you aware of any shared type of tactics, actions and resources that allow the UN Police to develop operational information and experience into a knowledge process?

○ Yes, I am explaining my answer in the comment box

○ No

○ Not sure

If yes, please explain your answer

[   ]

* 27.

In the UN Police context, what are the mechanisms for harvesting knowledge?

○ I do not know

○ I am not sure

○ I am explaining the mechanisms in the comment box

Please, specify the mechanism if known

[   ]

* 28.

In relation to UN Police activities, is knowledge management used effectively?

○ Yes

○ No

○ Not sure

Please explain your answer

[   ]

* 29.

Within the UN Police context, are there any actions taken by the leadership to manage knowledge?

◯ Yes

◯ No

◯ Not sure

Please explain your answer

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* 30.

A "good practices and lessons learned" scheme for the purpose of improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the UN Police is established.

◯ Strongly agree

◯ Agree

◯ Disagree

◯ Strongly disagree

◯ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

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* 31.

The requirement to apply best practices and lessons learned is now second nature throughout the UN Police.

◯ Strongly agree

◯ Agree

◯ Disagree

◯ Strongly disagree

◯ Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

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12

186

* 32.
All elements of UN Police regularly consult Best Practices Toolbox documents made available when performing mission duties or involved in operations.

- ( ) Strongly agree
- ( ) Agree
- ( ) Disagree
- ( ) Strongly disagree
- ( ) Don't know

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

* 33.
How many of these documents have you written so far?

	How many
End of Assignment reports	[⬍]
Handover Notes	[⬍]
After Action Reviews	[⬍]
Survey of Practices	[⬍]

Comments or others, please specify

[   ]

13

187

Take the Survey

Concluding remarks

Thank you for participating in this survey, as a participant to this research, if requested by email (davidrosset@mac.com), you will be able to access the result of this survey. Nevertheless, the large dimension of such an organisation demands special provision with regards to the cogency of the results. Hence, any generalisation of the results must be considered with sound caution.

34. Below is a final free-text section where you are encouraged to comment on anything related that you might find important and that had not been touched upon in the preceding questions.

14

188

Appendix 9: Quantitative data collection through the web-based self-administered questionnaire—Operational Site A

1. The first interest of this questionnaire was to target the organisational environment within the UN Police as well as the various characteristics of the practices that take place.

Table 1.1

Generally, in the UN Police context, the UN Police elements are well acquainted with the multidimensional organisational configuration of the UN Peacekeeping Missions.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	25%
Agree	53%
Disagree	20%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	2%

Table 1.2

The UN Police as an organisation is recognised as complementary to other UN components (i.e. military and civilian) within UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Missions.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	45%
Agree	42%
Disagree	11%
Strongly disagree	2%
Don't know	0%

Table 1.3

In a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Mission, how clear do you think the command and control structure is?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Very clear	20%
Clear	58%
Unclear	20%
Very unclear	2%

Table 1.4

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, there is sometimes a blockage of information flow and disruption in the chain of command between the different dimensions (i.e. civilian, military, and police).

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	22%
Agree	73%
Disagree	3%
Strongly disagree	2%
Don't know	0%

Table 1.5

In the UN Police context, it is easy to handle the interaction between the different components (i.e. civilian, military, and police).

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	2%
Agree	35%
Disagree	45%
Strongly disagree	13%
Don't know	5%

Table 1.6

Does the UN Police use knowledge gained from action reports, inquiries, reviews, or investigations in any other part of the organisation?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	62%
No	18%
Not sure	20%

Table 1.7

Do you think the actual management system discourages genuine reporting?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	4%
Agree	40%
Disagree	47%
Don't know	9%

Table 1.8

Does the actual management system in place seek to blame individuals?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	31%
No	49%
Not sure	20%

2. The second interest of this questionnaire was to target the modus operandi of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate routine.

Table 2.1

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, how clear to you are the structures and procedures to analyse and share knowledge and good practices?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Very clear	12%
Clear	63%
Unclear	23%
Very unclear	2%

Table 2.2

In a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Mission, do the different components (i.e. military, police, and civilian) share knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	69%
No	25%
Don't know	6%

Table 2.3

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, does the UN Police manage knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	75%
No	19%
Don't know	6%

Table 2.4

Within the UN Police, the directives, guidelines, and standard procedures are based on substantiated good practices and lessons learned.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	14%
Agree	62%
Disagree	14%
Strongly disagree	2%
Don't know	8%

Table 2.5

In the UN Police context, are there any factors at work that might hinder harvesting knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	42%
No	33%
Not sure	25%

Table 2.6

In your experience, does the statement below accurately describe the actual situation in the UN Police? Lessons learned in relation to UN Police activities, rehearsals, and exercises are shared with the military and civilian components of the Department of UN Peacekeeping Operations for advice and evaluation.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	7%
Agree	56%
Disagree	23%
Strongly disagree	2%
Don't know	12%

Table 2.7

Please rate: What factors do you think support efficient UN Police operations?

Answer Options	Weighted Average
Detailed policies, directives, guidelines, and procedures	4.4
Knowledge harvesting, conversion, and sharing	4.3
Access to related good practices and lessons learned	3.8
Home country training	3.5
Pre-deployment mission training	3.4
Periodic evaluation	3.1
In-mission training	2.1

3. The management of tacit knowledge calls for an understanding of the social processes that determine its development. Therefore, the third interest of this survey sought to examine the type of actions and resources that would allow the UN Police to use knowledge in the shape of know-how.

Table 3.1

The UN Police as an organisation has an immense strategic resource in the form of specialised knowledge to be uncovered from individuals who work in these Multidimensional UN Peacekeeping Operations around the world.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	27%
Agree	61%
Disagree	4%
Strongly disagree	2%
Don't know	6%

Table 3.2

Is there a need for timelines for processing knowledge management activities within the UN Police?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	67%
No	12%
Not sure	21%

Table 3.3

What is the purpose of the knowledge management process within the UN Police? More than one answer is possible, tick the boxes accordingly.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Collecting data	57%
Collecting information	63%
Harvesting knowledge	67%
Sharing knowledge	80%
Supporting a learning process	63%
There is no knowledge management process	7%

Table 3.4

In your experience, does the statement below accurately describe the actual situation in the UN Police? UN Police standard operating procedures are adopted by the mission.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	29%
Agree	58%
Disagree	13%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	0%

Table 3.5

In the context of the UN Police operations and their related activities, do you think that what is learned in a specific mission is carried over into all other UN Police missions?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	29%
No	42%
Not sure	29%

Table 3.6

Are directives, guidelines, standard operating procedures, and training modules developed for the UN Police on the basis of knowledge from other missions?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	38%
No	24%
Not sure	38%

Table 3.7

Are you aware of any shared type of tactics, actions, and resources that allow the UN Police to develop operational information and experience into a knowledge process?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	21%
No	46%
Not sure	33%

Table 3.8

In the UN Police context, what are the mechanisms for harvesting knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
I do not know	13%
I am not sure	33%
I am explaining the mechanisms in the comment box	54%

Table 3.9

In relation to UN Police activities, is knowledge management used effectively?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	23%
No	44%
Not sure	33%

Table 3.10

Within the UN Police context, are there any actions taken by the leadership to manage knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	48%
No	14%
Not sure	38%

Table 3.11

A "good practices and lessons learned" scheme for the purpose of improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the UN Police is established.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	14%
Agree	53%
Disagree	15%
Strongly disagree	4%
Don't know	14%

Table 3.12

The requirement to apply best practices and lessons learned is now second nature throughout the UN Police.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	6%
Agree	50%
Disagree	23%
Strongly disagree	8%
Don't know	13%

Table 3.13

All elements of UN Police regularly consult Best Practices Toolbox documents made available when performing mission duties or involved in operations.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	8%
Agree	40%
Disagree	33%
Strongly disagree	4%
Don't know	15%

Table 3.14

How many of these documents have you written so far?

Answer Options	Never
End of Assignment reports	40%
Handover Notes	17%
After Action Reviews	23%
Survey of Practices	56%

Appendix 10: Quantitative data collection through the web-based self-administered questionnaire—Operational Site B

1. The first interest of this questionnaire was to target the organisational environment within the UN Police as well as the various characteristics of the practices that take place.

Table 1.1

Generally, in the UN Police context, the UN Police elements are well acquainted with the multidimensional organisational configuration of the UN Peacekeeping Missions.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	47%
Agree	44%
Disagree	6%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	3%

Table 1.2

The UN Police as an organisation is recognised as complementary to other UN components (i.e. military and civilian) within UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Missions.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	58%
Agree	36%
Disagree	3%
Strongly disagree	3%
Don't know	0%

Table 1.3

In a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Mission, how clear do you think the command and control structure is?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Very clear	39%
Clear	50%
Unclear	11%
Very unclear	0%

Table 1.4

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, there is sometimes a blockage of information flow and disruption in the chain of command between the different dimensions (i.e. civilian, military, and police).

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	9%
Agree	69%
Disagree	19%
Strongly disagree	3%
Don't know	0%

Table 1.5

In the UN Police context, it is easy to handle the interaction between the different components (i.e. civilian, military, and police).

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	6%
Agree	47%
Disagree	25%
Strongly disagree	17%
Don't know	5%

Table 1.6

Does the UN Police use knowledge gained from action reports, inquiries, reviews, or investigations in any other part of the organisation?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	69%
No	14%
Not sure	17%

Table 1.7

Do you think the actual management system discourages genuine reporting?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	0%
Agree	28%
Disagree	61%
Don't know	11%

Table 1.8

Does the actual management system in place seek to blame individuals?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	25%
No	64%
Not sure	11%

2. The second interest of this questionnaire was to target the modus operandi of developing, adopting, and diffusing knowledge from individuals to the corporate routine.

Table 2.1

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, how clear to you are the structures and procedures to analyse and share knowledge and good practices?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Very clear	30%
Clear	49%
Unclear	21%
Very unclear	0%

Table 2.2

In a UN Multidimensional Peacekeeping Mission, do the different components (i.e. military, police, and civilian) share knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	73%
No	21%
Don't know	6%

Table 2.3

In a UN Peacekeeping Mission, does the UN Police manage knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	84%
No	16%
Don't know	0%

Table 2.4

Within the UN Police, the directives, guidelines, and standard procedures are based on substantiated good practices and lessons learned.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	32%
Agree	55%
Disagree	6%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	7%

Table 2.5

In the UN Police context, are there any factors at work that might hinder harvesting knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	30%
No	49%
Not sure	21%

Table 2.6

In your experience, does the statement below accurately describe the actual situation in the UN Police? Lessons learned in relation to UN Police activities, rehearsals, and exercises are shared with the military and civilian components of the Department of UN Peacekeeping Operations for advice and evaluation.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	18%
Agree	52%
Disagree	15%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	15%

Table 2.7

Please rate: What factors do you think support efficient UN Police operations?

Answer Options	Weighted Average
Detailed policies, directives, guidelines, and procedures	7.7
Knowledge harvesting, conversion, and sharing	6.8
Access to related good practices and lessons learned	6.6
In-mission training	6.4
Pre-deployment mission training	5.1
Periodic evaluation	4.9
Home country training	4.5

3. The management of tacit knowledge calls for an understanding of the social processes that determine its development. Therefore, the third interest of this survey sought to examine the type of actions and resources that would allow the UN Police to use knowledge in the shape of know-how.

Table 3.1

The UN Police as an organisation has an immense strategic resource in the form of specialised knowledge to be uncovered from individuals who work in these Multidimensional UN Peacekeeping Operations around the world.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	25%
Agree	66%
Disagree	3%
Strongly disagree	3%
Don't know	3%

Table 3.2

Is there a need for timelines for processing knowledge management activities within the UN Police?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	62%
No	10%
Not sure	28%

Table 3.3

What is the purpose of the knowledge management process within the UN Police? More than one answer is possible, tick the boxes accordingly.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Collecting data	47%
Collecting information	62%
Harvesting knowledge	59%
Sharing knowledge	81%
Supporting a learning process	65%
There is no knowledge management process	9%

Table 3.4

In your experience, does the statement below accurately describe the actual situation in the UN Police? UN Police standard operating procedures are adopted by the mission.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	22%
Agree	69%
Disagree	9%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	0%

Table 3.5

In the context of the UN Police operations and their related activities, do you think that what is learned in a specific mission is carried over into all other UN Police missions?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	37%
No	37%
Not sure	26%

Table 3.6

Are directives, guidelines, standard operating procedures, and training modules developed for the UN Police on the basis of knowledge from other missions?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	44%
No	12%
Not sure	44%

Table 3.7

Are you aware of any shared type of tactics, actions, and resources that allow the UN Police to develop operational information and experience into a knowledge process?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	22%
No	47%
Not sure	31%

Table 3.8

In the UN Police context, what are the mechanisms for harvesting knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
I do not know	3%
I am not sure	44%
I am explaining the mechanisms in the comment box	53%

Table 3.9

In relation to UN Police activities, is knowledge management used effectively?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	44%
No	28%
Not sure	28%

Table 3.10

Within the UN Police context, are there any actions taken by the leadership to manage knowledge?

Answer Options	Response Percent
Yes	75%
No	6%
Not sure	19%

Table 3.11

A "good practices and lessons learned" scheme for the purpose of improving the efficiency and effectiveness of the UN Police is established.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	16%
Agree	66%
Disagree	9%
Strongly disagree	3%
Don't know	6%

Table 3.12

The requirement to apply best practices and lessons learned is now second nature throughout the UN Police.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	9%
Agree	60%
Disagree	19%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	12%

Table 3.13

All elements of UN Police regularly consult Best Practices Toolbox documents made available when performing mission duties or involved in operations.

Answer Options	Response Percent
Strongly agree	9%
Agree	47%
Disagree	16%
Strongly disagree	0%
Don't know	28%

Table 3.14

How many of these documents have you written so far?

Answer Options	Never
End of Assignment reports	50%
Handover Notes	16%
After Action Reviews	34%
Survey of Practices	50%

Appendix 11: Subsequent considerations and inquiries through the interviews

#	Areas of interest	Operational Site A	Both sites	Operational Site B	Extended interview schedule
1.	**Organisational environment**		Having a lack, or an obstruction, of information flow between the dimensions; *how did these elements come about?*		Prompting for shedding more light on: ▪ External influences from other dimensions. ▪ Aspects of the work that do not lend themselves to open discussion.
2.	**Organisational environment**	Having difficulties in handling the interaction between the different dimensions; *what are the hindrances?*		Having no difficulties in handling the interaction between the different dimensions; *how are the interactions facilitated?*	▪ The working context and principal features. ▪ The consequences of the enforced policies and the issues related to the multidimensional organisational configuration.
3.	**Organisational environment**		Supporting the use of knowledge in other parts of the organisation; *what are the mechanisms and processes?*		▪ The aspects of the decision-making process in sharing knowledge.
4.	**Modus operandi**		Having factors at work that might hinder knowledge acquisition; *what are these factors and how do they manifest themselves?*		▪ The main approach to knowledge acquisition. ▪ Their vision of a knowledge management system.
5.	**Type of action and resources**		Presenting what is learned in a specific operational site is not carried over into all other sites; *what are the reasons for this?*		▪ The use of knowledge management tools ▪ How the workplace should ideally be structured to facilitate knowledge management.
6.	**Type of action and resources**		Not having a clear position on directives, guidelines, standard operating procedures, and training modules that are being developed and based on knowledge from other operational sites; *how are these aspects currently being developed?*		▪ The setting for the sharing of experiences and related knowledge. ▪ The main factor for making decisions regarding whether and how knowledge would be managed.
7.	**Type of action and resources**		Not having a clear awareness of any tactics, actions, and resources that allow for the development of operational information and experience of a knowledge process; *what are the current shared types of tactics, actions, and resources?*		▪ The influence of policy, standard operational procedures, guidelines, and directives on how things are done in this multidimensional organisational configuration.
8.	**Type of action and resources**		Not having a clear awareness of the		▪ The main vehicle for gaining the necessary skills

			details about knowledge management, knowledge processes, and the mechanisms underlying knowledge acquisition within the organisation; *what are these elements and can they be explained further?*		and knowledge to deal with the work situation.
9.	**Type of action and resources**		Not consulting and regularly using the best practice tools available; *what is the usefulness of these tools?*		▪ The kind of documentation and reporting that assists with the work.

Appendix 12: Interview Schedule

1. *What kind of details did you receive when you arrived in your current posting?*

2. *Tell me, how did you get up to speed with your last post?*
   - i. *Who filled you in with those kinds of details?*
   - ii. *So what did you do to get more information?*

3. *What sort of expertise did you build up?*
   - i. *When you leave a post within the UN Police, what sort of knowledge would you like to pass on?*

4. *Who would you talk to in order to pass on this knowledge?*
   - i. *How do you know to do that?*
   - ii. *Were these formal arrangements?*

5. *Can you tell me about your last posting—what actually happened when you left?*

6. *Tell me about a time when everything went well.*
   - i. *How did that happen?*
   - ii. *Who or what helped in that situation?*
   - iii. *Could this have turned out differently?*

7. *Tell me about the most difficult time you had.*
   - i. *How did that come about?*
   - ii. *Who or what worsened the situation?*
   - iii. *How did you straighten things out?*

8. *Were you able to share this experience?*
   - i. *How could you do that?*
   - ii. *Who might benefit from it?*

9. *Where can you find help and expertise to do your current work?*

   i. *What kind of help can you receive for accomplishing your tasks?*

10. *Can you describe how you review your work activities?*

    i. *How helpful is it?*

11. *How has your experience influenced, or not influenced you, in the actions you have taken in your current position?*

    i. *What would you say are the most important reasons for sharing your expertise?*

Appendix 13: Sample interview transcript

R – Researcher

I – Interviewee

UN Police Operational Site (#)
Strategic level interviewee (#)

R: [Opening] What kind of details did you get when you arrived in your current posting?

I: Yes, I was appointed by the Head of Human Resources to this posting three years ago. When starting at this new post, I became one of the Strategic Advisers to the Police Commissioner. I was able to spend time and work for a couple of weeks with my outgoing colleague. My chance was to start my first posting directly working for the Head of the UN Police component; my predecessor had four years in this posting and many other peacekeeping mission experiences. For me, it is my first international experience. To spend some weeks with the colleague leaving the post helped me to get on board and to be able to understand what was expected from me in this office. I remember that I was really enthusiastic to work and deal with interesting and dynamic work. My chance compared with many other of my colleagues was that I received, upon starting with my current posting, a full briefing of the operational context, the administrative duties, and tasks relating to my position within the UN Police component of this Mission. Working with my outgoing colleague allowed me to integrate directly into the work. [Conversation] My first task was to review legal documents pertinent to the use of force within the area of operations. I have a legal background and I was confident that I will not have too much problem in supporting the Mission with such a document. Quickly, I realised that it was more complex that I presumed and had to ask for guidance. I immediately found that my colleagues were keen to work with me and were interesting and dedicated people. They also provided me with some official papers about this task and about my duties (job description), but the most helpful was the sharing of experience and the explanation of how things were completed by my predecessor and my work colleagues in this busy office. You have to understand that in this office, we work directly for the Head of the Police component and whatever happens in this area of operation, it goes through my desk.

I quickly understood why my predecessor was glad to go back to his home country and get back to a more traditional pace of police work.

R: [Linking] Can you tell me more about this first posting—what actually happened when you arrived in the mission area?

I: As the rest of my contingent was already deployed in the Mission, I arrived in the mission area on my own. I joined a group of newcomers and it took me several working days to get through all the administrative documentation and acquire all the necessary signatures for the checking-in form before being authorised to work in my current posting within the mission area. Having a couple of weeks to get acquainted with the Mission area and spending time with different new colleagues was stimulating. The colleagues that went through the check-in process with me were civilians, military, and police officers from different countries and from different walks of life. We spent time together discussing our backgrounds, work experience, our countries, and our families. It was a really good start.

R: [Acknowledging] Did you do anything else during this procedure?

I: Yes, there was a set time of administrative procedures with different information and presentations about the mission's mandate. These were then followed by more specific information about the UN Police's mandate and related briefings. They emphasised a lot on UN core values and on working together and respecting our different cultures. Some of the colleagues thought this to be tedious but it sometimes opens up some interesting discussions. Personally, I felt that we could have had more specific details on what was expected from us. Police reform, protection of civilians, and project management did not resonate much to me at that time. However, now after three years of experience, I often give some of these briefings to the newcomers.

R: [Showing understanding] When you leave a post within the UN Police, what sort of knowledge would you like to pass on?

I: There are many activities and tasks to carry out, and it took me almost a year to understand and to be efficient in doing this kind of duty. [Conversation] Every day we work, seven days a week, and with long hours. I share my ideas and experiences directly with my colleagues in the office, and I often assist other colleagues on the job when I have the time or it is requested from my supervisor. I plan each day and

after a couple of hours, I have found that I am doing something totally different than what was planned. A few days ago, I had to organise a seminar to discuss the problem we are facing in protecting civilians from rebels and other threats. Since then it has had to be postponed as we have crisis after crisis to deal with. What I learn from my work and this complicated situation is often kept to myself. However, I share my experience and understanding on how to do the work with my colleagues when the possibility arises.

R: [Encouraging and direct question] How do you know to do that?

I: In my home country, I consistently support colleagues in completing work correctly, as I also do it here in the UN mission. During the day, we meet, we drive together, and we often eat at the same place after our duties. It is during this quiet time, we like to discuss our experience from the day and also look for the point of view of other people. There is a lot of experienced colleagues who like to tell to everyone how well they dealt with things in previous operations.

R: [Acknowledging and prompting] Tell me about a time when everything went well.

I: I was handling complex tasks with some of my colleagues in protecting civilians in the area of operation. We had to develop our own procedures for dealing with community policing matters and coordinating with our counterparts from the other components. I spent a lot of my time following the tasks given to the different colleagues and units for preventing crimes within the protection of civilian camps and for specific quick-impact projects (building of police stations in affected areas by the crisis) to be managed by our components. I did this based on my own experience. Knowing how to work together, and in the end, we handled it by ourselves as the guidelines and directives were not provided yet; if I remember well we received the policy and related directives from the leadership on protection of civilians something like 6 to 9 months later (these documents did not exist and needed to be developed).

R: [Encouraging and linking questions] Who or what helped in that situation?

I: I participated in a lot of meetings with other colleagues from different components of the mission on these matters and policies development. [Conversation] I had a lot of discussions on how to do things, but mainly I was just asked to do the work by the Headquarters, when they (the Head of Mission leadership) were developing directives

and guidelines to follow; this was sometimes frustrating. [Prompting] I am aware of the requirement to share knowledge within the organisation and that a policy on the matter exists for the UN Police component. However, I am not able to access much knowledge about my work. I welcome all types of duty, however, some tasks demand more expertise than others and, as I said, there is not enough information, references, or tools to help, so it is often necessary to reinvent the wheel. My colleagues and I wrote many reports and raised many issues regarding the challenges we were facing but it seems that all this documentation did not reach the colleagues that need to develop and draft documents to guide our efforts in managing the protection of all these civilians from rebels and their own government.

R: [Allowing time for further elaboration and prompting] Could this have turned out differently?

I: International policing knowledge is lacking. From my point of view, the training is often too easy, the standards are set too low, and the content is not adapted enough to the reality of the field. In this situation, my work colleagues have never let me down, many of them knew the environment well and what was required from us while working in peacekeeping operations. The Mission had put them under serious pressure. [Conversation] Without these experienced individuals from the different units and components of this Mission, the situation could have turned out much worse. The environment was very volatile and did not allow for much reflection in assessing the different tasks to handle. Normally, I found that there are not many experienced colleagues in the right place and at the right time but quickly with the pressure to deal with so many issues, I found myself surrounded with colleagues that could really help. Without any doubt, even with better documentation to guide my efforts, it was the teamwork and my aptitude in responding to change in the operational area that made the difference and helped me in doing my work.

R: [Showing understanding and prompting] What kind of help can you receive to accomplish your tasks?

I: [Inaudible, from my notes and requested clarification with the interviewee] We have to try and go with what is ordered when somebody else is prioritising. My legal background is often useful in understanding complex documents to accomplish the tasks given to our Police component. Often, when I am looking for information on

how to do something, there is sometimes conflict between the existing way and the way that is being imposed. Nowadays, we are using work methods that is ad hoc to the challenges we are facing and are putting many aspects of our work and colleagues at risk. As I tried to explain to you, the main difficulty is getting up to speed with the working context that is really dynamic and unpredictable; we are mostly reactive to what happens. [Conversation] When asking for support, interaction with civilian or military personnel is particularly time-consuming, and it is difficult to move forward together. Daily, I ask for support for routine and special tasks and it's the same maze of procedures and need to clarify each and every point before something moves. Often, it works well only if you have the chance to know the counterparts well and it's almost like getting a favour. Last week, it took me hours to organise a simple escort. I had to explain again and again the same issues to almost all parties (civilians and military counterparts) involved. You have to understand that we are doing escorts of civilians and food every day and our civilian and military colleagues working on humanitarian matters should know how it works after so many times.

R: [Asking for elaboration and prompting] How has your experience influenced or not influenced you in the decisions you have made in your current position?

I: [Conversation] I did legal studies before joining the minister of interior in my home country. Then, I worked mainly on police and interior security matters for my government. During the last years, I built experience in international policing the hard way. I just arrived in this Mission during a civil war. I was not prepared for this kind of violence and crisis management. A lot of colleagues left when I was arriving in this Mission. It was too much to handle for a lot of them. When I received the task to build a police unit to deal and help in protecting civilians in the capital of the country, I did know my team but the work was not clear. I didn't know very well the coworkers already selected to work on this project with my team. It quickly became apparent to me that it would be difficult to make any decisions together unless we were going to share our understanding of the task and our previous experiences. My colleagues were excellent and together we were able to build a better and stronger team. I was lucky to be with the right people in the right place and at the right time.

R: [Showing understanding and asking direct question] What would you say are the most important reasons for sharing your expertise?

I: [Conversation] Doing good work! I share my experience with colleagues who are involved with the same kind of work every day; you can see they have the same expertise and understanding and facing the same challenges. In this dynamic working environment, teamwork and helping coworkers by sharing experience is important. I would not be able to do such work without having these interactions with my colleagues and friends. I have built strong relationships during my years in this Mission. Some of my colleagues and friends left but we are still staying in contact and keen in helping and talking about our mission experiences.

R: [Procuring details] How could you do that?

I: You can share what you know with who you work with. I have long discussions among trusted colleagues about my work and the challenges I handled. We often meet after work and chill out together and talk again about our day. Sometimes you face situations that you can only appreciate after you have debriefed with your colleagues. It is good to meet at the gym or around a good meal and share our concerns about the work.

R: [Acknowledging and prompting] Tell me about the most difficult time you had.

I: Some tasks demanded more expertise than others. Over time, my former colleagues left the mission, and it became increasingly difficult to steer all projects. [Storytelling] I built a full team of experts for training police units to protect the victims fleeing the war. I tried to explain and keep up the good work by retaining my colleagues as long as possible in the Mission, but there were just too many colleagues leaving at almost the same time—the good work left with them. There was not much information left behind on how they made things work, and the new colleagues who came to take over this important work were not of great assistance; they were not so motivated and did not put much effort into keeping up the good work done by my previous colleagues. They and I did not find any kind of reference or guidance to help the situation. It was a difficult time for me and for my new coworkers.

R: [Procuring details] How did that come about?

I: [Conversation] I found that matching the right expertise with the required field experience is difficult, and the work is just too different compared with our home countries and what we know. At home, I have not half of the crime and the violence

that this post-conflict situation generates in this country. Civilians get killed, raped, and abducted all the time here. We help the local police in their efforts but there is just too much to handle. Furthermore, there is no information or reports available that could help. However, to be able to respond to the dynamic and evolving context that we were facing, I organised meetings and held discussions with colleagues to share information and ideas. Together, we took a new path, we made some mistakes, and tried to correct them. I look for assistance and information about what was done previously. Some of the former colleagues were kind enough to send some of their training and project management material to help us in completing these important civilian protection projects.

R: [Encouraging and prompting] Can you describe how you review your work activities?

I: During the last three years, I have been responsible for many specialised tasks, and I am involved in several high-profile projects. Reporting on my activities is an important part of my work, and I report daily to my superiors. Every year, my work is reflected in my appraisal and extensions of tour-of-duty requests that we send to the UN Headquarters and then to our home country to get the necessary approval to stay in the Mission. Actually, I am doing my last months as I need to go back to my home police force soon.

R: [Procuring details and direct question] How helpful is it?

I: The current arrangements do not provide all details for reviewing how my work was handled, but provide a good overview of my work and duties. There is not much feedback received, but so far all my extension requests have been approved because my appraisal shows that I am a good element of this UN Police component and they would like me to stay longer.

R: [Encouraging and direct question] Who else can benefit from this review?

I: [From my written notes] These reports are shared by my supervisors to assist in the decision-making process with other units or components. [Prompting] External influences from other components are vast, and not much information about best practices is available in relation to my work and how to interact with these different dimensions. [Encouraging and prompting] I strongly believe that our UN Police component needs to develop their own knowledge management system. It must assist

in improving our operations and help in developing and sharing knowledge with the different components.

[Closing]

Appendix 14: Summary of the main elements

#	Operational sites A and B	Strategic level	Operational level	Tactical level
1.	**Organisational environment**	- Well acquainted with the multidimensional organisational configuration; in addition, the components complemented each other. - Command and control deemed clear, with a lack of information flow. - Knowledge is transferred to other parts of the organisation. - Management system may discourage genuine reporting; likelihood of individual blaming. **Extended findings from interviews** - External influences from other dimensions included: - Inadequate resources. - No clear direction or order. - No clear working method or approach. - Lack of knowledge on specific issues needed for the task. - Difficulties in understanding the work context, as well as the impact that other departments have on shared responsibilities. - Aspects of the work that do not lend itself to open discussion. This is due to the circumstances and the confidentially surrounding the specific situations. - Different working cultures within the component and in other dimensions. - The working context and principal features: - Under extreme pressure and approach changes quickly. - Difficulties to fill positions due to rapid turnovers, as well as skill sets not being met.		
	Inferences	Site A is having some difficulties in handling interactions with other dimensions; this ambivalence is linked to the need for the components to be well integrated with good coordination mechanisms.		
2.	**Modus operandi**	- Structures and procedures in place to analyse data, share knowledge, and good practices are straightforward. - Components share knowledge with each other from their activities, rehearsals, and exercises. - Manage knowledge, but do not have the ability to access much information and knowledge that is specific to their task. - Directives, guidelines, and standard procedures are based on substantiated good practices and lessons learned: mismatch between the documentation and training material available and what is required in the field. - Having factors at play that might hinder the acquisition of knowledge (e.g. quick rotations, leadership and restrictive rules, individual interest, hierarchical and rigid work structures). **Extended findings from interviews** - The main approach to knowledge acquisition: recruitment and turnover are serious challenges; therefore, retention of personnel is the main approach to maintain skills and knowledge. - Their vision of a knowledge management system: system must assist in improving operations, while promoting interactions and information sharing among the various dimensions, based on the feedback the instrument could generate. - How the workplace should be ideally structured to facilitate knowledge management: human resource management is required to sustain work cohesion and match the right expertise with the required field expertise.		
	Inferences	- Main common factors that support the efficiency of their operations: - Detailed policies, directives, guidelines, and procedures. - Knowledge harvesting, conversion, and sharing. - Access to related good practices and lessons learned. - Best Practices Database is available online for general readership		
3.	**Type of actions and resources**	- Potential strategic resource in the form of specialised knowledge. - Need for timelines to process knowledge management activities. - Organisation's main efforts and priorities in knowledge management is still sharing knowledge; it seems the organisation has not yet been able to advance from the Knowledge Sharing policy from 2006 towards the Knowledge Sharing and Organisational Learning policy from 2015. - Having standard operating procedures. - What is learned in a specific mission is not carried over into all other missions. - Directives, guidelines, standard operating procedures, and training modules not being developed from the knowledge obtained from other missions. - Not aware of any shared tactics, actions, or resources that would allow for turning operational information and experience into a knowledge process. - Mechanisms underlying knowledge acquisition: - Surveys. - Group discussions. - Workshops. - Meetings. - Reporting. - Sharing of knowledge during training and related programmes. - Directives, guidelines, and best practices.		

		▪ Knowledge management not being used effectively. ▪ Established "good practices and lessons learned" scheme; or getting in place.		
		Extended findings from interviews		
		▪ The setting for the sharing of experience and related knowledge: through training that is often not adapted enough to the needs of field operations; knowledge accumulated during various tours of duty are often not considered at all during any of the administrative processes (check in/out procedures); lack of proper handover and knowledge management when leaving a posting or at the end of the tour of duty. ▪ The main vehicle for gaining the necessary skills and knowledge to deal with a working situation: no clear-cut knowledge management process; proficiency in using professional methods or approaches is often a result of home training and education; learned most skills and expertise during various tours of duty at different operational sites around the world and by interacting with the various components. ▪ The kind of documentation and reporting assisting with the work: receive the same kind of details when taking a posting, despite the fact that the duties are different; generic details about the organisation and the work conditions and mandate; written handovers are helpful.		
	Inferences	▪ Not convinced that the leadership has taken action to manage knowledge in Site A and present a clear ambivalence with Site B. ▪ The above point is substantiated by the findings that Site A does not take much advantage of the knowledge management instruments made available, where Site B consults these tools, to a greater extent. Nevertheless, both sites show a low rate of utilization of these best practice tools.		
4.	**The types of knowledge arising from the UN Police officers**	▪ Specialised, high-profile knowledge (e.g. strategic planning, complex project management).	▪ How to operate and coordinate with all components (i.e. planning, execution of complex and integrated tasks).	▪ Many actions and how things are done are developed from inside a unit, rather than from imposed policies that are not adapted; specific guidelines often do not exist. ▪ Situations often went well based on expertise, field experience, and an understanding of the working context. ▪ Speed of changes, as an influence on the way tasks need to be approached, and the policy and guidelines—if they exist—are often not adapted to the field or the area of operations.
5.	**The ways in which they approach the process of managing knowledge**	▪ High position within the structure requires a complete end-of-mission report; Best Practices database. ▪ Aware of the requirements to share knowledge. ▪ Knowledge often stays with themselves and the colleagues with whom they are working. ▪ Long discussions between trusted colleagues about the problems they have faced or are facing often takes place in informal settings ▪ Working with experienced peers helps provide a better and safer working environment. ▪ Handover is normally done through a simple report or sometimes over the phone (or both). ▪ Face-to-face handovers and the chance to spend some days together were fundamental for passing along specific	▪ Final appraisal on their performance is an important documentation for the extension of tour-of-duty and future appointments that substantiate their personal history profile for appointments by the human resources department. ▪ Share information about their duty with best practice officers. ▪ End-of-mission reports are sometimes written.	▪ Do not really consider sharing their expertise further than their immediate workplace. ▪ Not sharing experiences formally means that the same problems are faced over and over; no clear process for managing such knowledge. ▪ Ability and willingness to do their work in terms of having a lot of influence on sharing information and expertise.

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		information and knowledge about the work context. ▪ Mentoring and coaching less experienced colleagues by veterans is considered a worthwhile option.		
6.	**Their inclinations in harvesting knowledge**	▪ By asking colleagues, especially the most experienced ones. ▪ Work activities and discussions provide a rich learning environment where expertise and knowledge can be acquired and shared.	▪ Policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning from the organisation is minimal.	▪ Keen to get better information on how to accomplish specific tasks related to the work.
7.	**The possibility that functions lead to knowledge creation**	▪ Build up expertise and knowledge on how things are conducted; experience based mainly on doing the work.	▪ Field experience is seen as the main vehicle for gaining the necessary skills and knowledge.	▪ Structure and knowledge management systems in bringing the right information and knowledge to the right level apparently does not exist or is inadequate. ▪ Many possibilities for knowledge creation in this complex and dynamic work environment.
8.	**How they grasp their present work**	▪ The combined effect of the various components slows up strategic, operational, and tactical decision-making. ▪ External influences from the other components are vast. ▪ Working with more experienced colleagues seemed not to be the general consensus on the ideal form of work organisation. ▪ Aware of the potential of knowledge as a strategic resource and how it influences the nature of field operations.	▪ Matters, as knowledge management, are imposed by policy that need to be adapted and implemented. ▪ Policy on knowledge sharing and organisational learning is not fully adapted and implemented in the difficult and dynamic operating environment.	▪ Reporting process is driven to prove and justify the actions taken, making the reporting more factual than an effort to understand how things were done. ▪ Aware of the potential of knowledge as a strategic resource and how it influences the nature of the field operations. ▪ Write reports on their daily activities to keep their supervisors aware of their work and the situation in the field.
9.	**Their expertise in the use of current knowledge management tools**	▪ Using procedures in place for sharing their experience and knowledge when required/ordered to provide the documentation requested.	▪ Not having or using procedures in place for sharing their experience and knowledge; talk to the colleagues who carry on their current work. ▪ All operations are well documented and reported through the chain of command for information and further action, if required.	▪ It is apparent that the use of knowledge management tools is not formally in place. ▪ Recognised that some knowledge management tools are available, but are not taken advantage of.
10.	**The support they receive for managing knowledge**	▪ Need to spend a lot of time seeking information to understand how things work. ▪ Getting help or information for accomplishing tasks through colleagues and by sharing task expertise. ▪ No real source of information or knowledge available that can really assist.	▪ Sharing information and knowledge means a lot. ▪ Not free in the way to pass experience and knowledge. ▪ Procedures and policies are, to some extent, in place. ▪ Large network of colleagues who help each other out. ▪ Command dimension as an important factor for making decisions	▪ Experience and expertise are the main elements in carrying out work. ▪ Share experience and expertise through informal arrangements.

			- regarding whether and how knowledge would be managed. - Policy and knowledge management matters. - Managing and sharing knowledge as a strategic resource is quite regulated.	
11.	**The feedback they get**	Tasks need to be reviewed and the findings shared adequately.	- Lack of proper feedback or preventive actions. - Experience influences the ways of doing the work; reviewing work activities helps.	Activities are rarely reviewed; the only feedback they receive is through an appraisal about their performance.
12.	**The rewards they receive from sharing their knowledge**	There are not many rewards for sharing expertise or knowledge.	Stuck when sharing information and expertise because there is a conflict between the way the work is done and the direction which is imposed.	Doing good work and professionalism were important factors for sharing expertise with peers. This was mainly done on the job through informal discussions, where stories about past experiences and what was learnt from them were shared.

Interrelationships with the two other dimensions and the impact on the flow of tacit knowledge	
Interrelationships	- Check-out/in administrative procedures. - Induction training providing generic overview and documents; do not assist much with the handover of the work, but provide a form of briefing and debriefing; a means of sharing their previous and current experiences. - The process of managing knowledge appears to be more effective in some missions than others; it is often related to the influence of the strategic direction of the missions. - Consequences of the enforced policies, in these multidimensional organisational configurations, and the requirement of each dimension in acting together, all these elements demand an integrated approach.
Impacts	- Various approaches, strategies, and processes demand adaptability and integration. - The activities of each dimension influence each other. - Decisions from other dimensions have importance on the work at hand and require an adapting strategy and operations. - The source of knowledge mainly aligned with the kind of work they deal with and the interactions they have with the other components. - There is a common way of doing things and sharing information; examples of a lack of sharing information and cooperating efficiently require important work in streamlining the processes and mechanisms. - Power struggles between the various components sometimes overwhelm an individual seeking to share a point of view and related expertise. - Knowledge management tools are often used as an administrative measure to report a specific action.

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