

Knowledge theory, or epistemology, is the doctrine of knowledge. The word epistemology comes from the Greek *episteme*, meaning knowledge or learning and *logia*, doctrine. Knowledge theory is about understanding in what way and to what extent it is possible to acquire knowledge about reality (Jacobsen, 2002). The focus is on questions such as “What does it mean when you say someone knows, or does not know, something?”, “Is there an objective reality which allows us to describe situations in a universal manner?” or “Do different individuals interpret the same events in different ways?”. With regard to organizational learning, the answers to these questions will influence the way in which processes are designed and developed, as well as which tools and techniques are used within the organization to promote the sharing of knowledge and best practice. Very few organizations take time to reflect on and answer these questions, but doing so increases their chances of succeeding in their ambition to create a learning organization (Venzin, von Krogh, & Roos, 1998).

Broadly speaking, organizational learning is generally divided into two schools: one in which learning is seen as a *technical* process and one in which learning is seen as a *social* process (see for example Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999). Organizations which adopt a technical perspective place the emphasis on identifying, collecting, storing and distributing information, and treat knowledge as something people *own* or *possess* (knowledge is acquired through the receiving and interpretation of information). In this type of organization, a new employee might be told: “We have substantial documentation showing what constitutes our knowledge. If you spend some time reading it, you will understand how the company works” (Venzin et al., 1998, p. 39). Organizations which have a stronger social perspective on learning place greater emphasis on human interaction and collaboration, and treat knowledge as something people *do*. In this kind of company a new employee would hear: “The key feature of our company is the strong network that allows us to solve complex problems” (ibid, p. 41). The first example can be related to what Cook and Brown (1999) call *the epistemology of possession* while the latter can be related to what they call *the epistemology of practice*. The technical

and the social approaches to learning are each described in more detail in the following two sections.

2.1 Learning as a Technical Process

The term *possession* in the epistemology of possession implies ownership. In order to own knowledge, it must be seen as something absolute and static which can be formalized and codified; this is generally termed *explicit knowledge*. This view of knowledge as something absolute and static derives from *objectivism*. Objectivists consider the physical world to be the true world. They believe that everything in it can be studied objectively (Jacobsen, 2002) and rely on scientific models and methods (Burrell & Morgan, 1979) in order to reproduce it accurately (Jonassen, 1991).

Truth is the degree to which our inner representations correspond to the world outside.
Truth is defined as dependent on the amount of information. (Venzin et al., 1998, p. 39)

Knowledge is thus seen as a resource which can be gathered and transferred from one place to another. This view is in line with what Hansen, Nohria, and Tierney (1999) call *the codification strategy* in relation to organizational knowledge management. The codification strategy is implemented primarily in the form of electronic knowledge management systems, KMS. These store explicit knowledge which is disseminated and recycled within the organization. Alavi and Leidner (2001) define knowledge management systems as follows:

Knowledge management systems (KMS) refer to a class of information systems applied to managing organizational knowledge. That is, they are IT-based systems developed to support and enhance the organizational processes of knowledge creation, storage/retrieval, transfer, and application. (p. 114)

One type of knowledge management system is called an *expert system*, also known as a decision support system. An expert system is a software program which can help the user to obtain answers to different questions within a specific area, such as medical diagnoses or financial advice. Its purpose is to provide advice in the same way as a person with substantial background knowledge would do. The overall process of filling an expert system with knowledge is called *knowledge acquisition*, the purpose of which is to gather knowledge from one or more individuals, which is then coded and stored in the system. The actual process of obtaining this knowledge is known as *knowledge elicitation* and consists primarily of four separate activities: gathering information, interpretation, analysis and design (Durkin, 1994). In practical terms, this means that one person interacts with an expert, for example through discussion and by asking questions. The questions can be both controlled or more open, giving the experts greater scope to answer in the way that suits them best.

2.2 Learning as a Social Process

The term *practice* in the epistemology of practice means exercising, and refers to things we *do*, either individually or in groups. This perspective emphasizes the relationship between knowledge and action. If we are to learn from knowledgeable people, we need to search not only for their more abstract knowledge but also for their practical knowledge. This is where the tacit, in contrast to the explicit, knowledge is in focus. With reference to the preceding section, however, it should be noted that even if the actual process of gathering knowledge for a knowledge management system can take into account a person's practical knowledge, it is characterized by a technical perspective, since the emphasis is on identifying, gathering, storing and disseminating information, and treats knowledge as something people *own* or *possess*.

The term practice also has a clear link to the group and the social context in which the action takes place. Cook and Brown (1999) define practice as follows:

... the coordinated activities of individuals and groups in doing their "real work" as it is informed by a particular organizational or group context. (pp. 386–387)

This implies an emphasis on learning as a dynamic, relational and context-dependent social activity (described as knowledge-based growth by the American professor, philosopher of science and author Thomas Kuhn, 1970). A central theme within this particular field is in fact that much of the knowledge exists within different entities, or communities (Easterby-Smith & Araujo, 1999). Connecting people with the same type of profession or a particular specialist competency allows them to convert knowledge into action. When these people share knowledge and best practice with others who have the same framework of reference and who use the same type of language and terminology it is easier for them to learn from each other and reinforce their knowledge, both professionally and on an individual level. Hansen et al. (1999) refer to this type of knowledge strategy as *the personalization strategy*. The primary purpose of the personalization strategy is to help people communicate knowledge, not store it. Knowledge is processed primarily through brainstorming and direct communication, both face-to-face and by phone, email and video.

The practice perspective has its roots in constructivism. Constructivists believe that the creation of meaning or knowledge is a social construction (Crotty, 1998). They do not exclude the possibility that there is an outer reality but maintain that each of us constructs our own reality through our own interpretations of the external world (Jonassen, 1991). It should, however, be pointed out here that more radical constructivists believe that there is no outer objective reality which is independent of human mental activity. The type of constructivism Jonassen refers to is more traditional and is based on the thinking of the German philosopher Immanuel Kant.

Molander (1996) sums up constructivism in three points (pp. 158–159):

1. Professional knowledge is a question of the design (in a wide sense) of, and in, a situation: we *construct* uniformity, form, solutions or whatever it might be.

Table 2.1 Central differences between the technical and social approaches regarding the view of learning

Variables	Technical approach to learning	Social approach to learning
Type of knowledge in focus	Explicit	Tacit
View of knowledge (epistemology)	Knowledge is seen as a resource which can be gathered and transferred from one place to another Cook and Brown (1999) call this <i>the epistemology of possession</i>	Knowledge develops as a result of human interaction Cook and Brown (1999) call this <i>the epistemology of practice</i>
Worldview (ontology)	Objectivism	Constructivism
Dominant strategy	The codification strategy	The personalization strategy

2. Knowledge-in-action and reflection are based mainly on what Schön (1983) calls “virtual worlds”—symbolic representations, model worlds and suchlike—which are constructions which do not depict something which exists in reality. Architects’ drawings are one such example.
3. Constructivism as a fundamental philosophical point of view, in contrast to objectivism: we create the “worlds” in which we have knowledge and live our lives.

Table 2.1 shows central differences between the technical and the social approaches respectively regarding the view of learning within organizations:

2.3 Learning as a Technical or Social Process?

Whether an organization should implement a strategy based mainly on codification or personalization should first and foremost be determined by the organization’s natural processes for recycling knowledge (Liu, Chai, & Nebus 2013). Hansen et al. (1999) point to three overall variables that must be taken into consideration: *how the firm serves its customers*, *how the firm receives income from its customers* (in other words, what type of income model it has) and *the people who work within the firm*.

Regarding the first variable, there are differences between, for example, a product organization, a geographic organization and a customer organization. A *product organization* bases its activities on the specific characteristics of the various products. This means that all the functions associated with a particular product are found in the same department (Mabon, 1992). A *geographic organization*, on the other hand, might be built around a certain number of locations, while a *customer organization* adapts its activities to meet the specific demands of different

customers (ibid). Each of these models influences the ability to move knowledge effectively between different departments or individuals. In a product organization, for example, documenting the process in the case of a standardized product might be effective for the learning and transfer of knowledge, assuming the product is standardized and it is easy to understand what it is to be used for and by whom. In a customer organization, it might be more effective to allow people to meet face-to-face to share their knowledge and best practices. They may carry a large amount of tacit knowledge as a result of their many specific customer relations, which can only be released through the questions and feedback of others. It should, however, be understood that the previous example does not apply to innovation, where the level of knowledge exploration is low and the level of knowledge exploitation is high—you can read more about this in the Sect. 3.6 entitled *Central elements in the knowledge management process* in the following chapter.

Regarding the second variable, Hansen et al. (1999) make a distinction between *economics of reuse* and *expert economics*. Economics of reuse implies that a company can reuse the knowledge which is linked to a product or service many times. This might apply, for example, to companies which provide a particular type of web service in which the same programming code can be used for different customers. Expert economics, on the other hand, implies that the knowledge needs to be tailored to the customer and is thus more dependent on access to specific expertise. This might, for example, apply to companies which provide strategic advisory services within a particular field, or offer a customized product.

Regarding the third variable, different types of organizations (or departments) tend to employ different types of individuals with different competencies, experience and personalities. It is likely (and to be hoped) that the skills and personalities of the people who make up a technical team in a product organization differ from those of the people who work close to the customers in a customer organization. Different individuals can thus be more, or less, suited to work according to a codification or personalization strategy. Hansen et al. (ibid) point out, however, that an organization should not exclusively apply only one or the other but that they should complement each other. Hansen et al. argue that the 80/20 rule is a good ratio; that is to say, making use of one strategy for 80 % and the other for 20 %. It should also be pointed out that in his later work (Hansen, 2009) he has become a staunch advocate of the personalization strategy.

Liu et al. (2013) suggest five variables which illustrate the difference between implementing a strategy based on either codification or personalization in an organization: *the type of knowledge recycled*; *the scope of the knowledge*; *accessibility*; *cost* and *incentives*. It is essential to understand these since they demand different types of efforts and competence, and also lead to different outcomes. The five variables are described in more detail in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Central differences between implementing a codification and a personalization strategy (adapted from Liu et al., 2013)

Variables	Codification	Personalization
Type of knowledge recycled	Explicit	Both tacit and explicit
Scope and accessibility	Many people can access a large quantity of standardized data at the same time, regardless of time or place	Smaller number of people have access to more information. Accessibility depends on accessibility of source
Cost	The organization must invest in electronic databases and knowledge must be codified before it can be used. Costs incurred can be equally high regardless of whether there are few or many users	Costs are usually incurred at the actual time the knowledge is recycled and are proportional to the number of users
Incentive	External incentives are more effective, for example in the form of higher salary, bonus, promotion or recognition	Internal incentives most effective, for example satisfaction of being able to influence, help others, do something meaningful, establish interesting relationships or opportunity to develop an exciting role

2.4 Different Disciplines

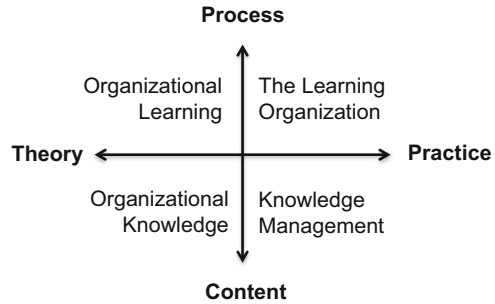
There are many concepts that relate to learning and knowledge work. Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011) distinguish four central approaches which give a good overview of learning in relation to organizations: *organizational learning*, *learning organization*, *organizational knowledge* and *knowledge management*. Each of these places a different emphasis on theory versus practice and process versus content respectively (see Fig. 2.1). All four terms are explained in more detail in the section which follows the diagram.

2.4.1 Organizational Learning

Organizational learning appears in the upper left field of Fig. 2.1 and is characterized by theory and process thinking. This implies that the organizational learning process is studied largely from an academic perspective and that a more critical approach is used in the endeavor to understand what happens in an organization. Researchers in the field of organizational learning have adopted the thought that an organization has the same learning behavior as an organism. *The Swedish language encyclopedia*, Nationalencyklopedin, defines an organism as follows:

A single or multi-cell being (micro-organism, plant or animal) whose structure enables *independent life* (Volume 14, 2009, p. 13, my italics)

Fig. 2.1 Four approaches to knowledge work (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011)



This implies that learning is adaptive, that is to say, an organization has the ability to react to different signals, both internal and external, and adapt as necessary. It also implies that knowledge can be stored over time. Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011) point out that the idea that knowledge can be stored over time was revolutionary when it was first published in a book by Cyert and March in (1963), *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm*. The book criticized, among other things, the strong focus organizations placed on profit maximization, arguing instead for the importance of analyzing and predicting the behavior of individuals in relation to decision making. A number of central ideas regarding learning were developed in the book, including that organizations learn from their experiences and that it is through the organizational learning processes that organizations adapt to their surroundings. Argote and Greve (2007), among others, argue that this book is one of the most influential books on management of all time.

Argyris and Schön have also played a significant role in the growth of this field. In 1978 they published *Organizational Learning: A Theory of Action Perspective*, which highlights the defense mechanisms of individuals and organizations in relation to learning. In their book they present two types of learning: single-loop and double-loop. In single-loop learning, individuals, groups and organizations adapt their behavior in line with the difference between expected and achieved results. This means that most of their work involves correcting something which appears to be going in the wrong direction. It is consequently a fairly static process which aims for balance and stability. In double-loop learning, on the other hand, the values, assumptions and guidelines which lead to a particular behavior are questioned. People try to change or develop a process instead of simply correcting it. When they wrote the book, Argyris and Schön argued that most organizations place themselves on the simpler learning level in order to protect themselves against change. When it comes to other important contributions to the field of organizational learning, Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011) refer, as do many other researchers, to the special edition of *Organization Science* published in 1991.

2.4.2 The Learning Organization

The learning organization is found in the upper right corner of Fig. 2.1. Like organizational learning, the learning organization focuses on the actual learning process as such, but has a stronger link to the *practice* concept and thus the actual exercising of knowledge. This implies a focus on the relationship between knowledge and actions with the emphasis on things which we, as individuals or groups, *do*. The learning organization, unlike organizational learning, thus also has a stronger link to the firm and the business.

The person who is most often associated with the concept of the learning organization is Peter Senge. Peter Senge is an American researcher and chair of the Center for Organizational Learning at the MIT Sloan School of Management. In 1990 he published the book *The Fifth Discipline*. It had an enormous impact, and in 1997 the *Harvard Business Review* named it one of the most seminal books on management published in the last 75 years. According to Senge, the learning organization is built on five disciplines: systems thinking, personal mastery, mental models, shared visions and team learning.

Systems thinking means understanding the connection between different elements in a system and covers areas such as medicine, sociology, technology and economics. If we take medicine as an example, we can see, among other things, that the lack of systems thinking in many parts of the world has led to certain bacteria becoming resistant to antibiotics. Too much focus has been placed on solving a specific problem here and now (breaking down a particular bacterium) without seeing or caring that this specific problem has ultimately created a bigger problem. If we take economics as an example, we can see how a housing bubble in the US burst in 2006 as a consequence of short-term thinking and a hugely complex system of packaging and repackaging loans which did not allow transparency and an understanding of the risks being incorporated.

Senge calls systems thinking the fifth discipline and says it implies a new way of thinking (1995, p. 76), namely:

- The ability to see connections rather than the direct course of cause and effect
- The ability to see change processes rather than just certain parts

Personal mastery is about being in command of your skills and understanding what is most important in any given situation. It also means being able to expand and broaden your visions, amass energy, develop patience and be able to look at reality objectively. Senge (ibid) stresses here that an organization's ability to learn is entirely dependent on the ability of each individual to learn.

A *mental model* is the image people have of themselves, of others and of the environment and the things with which they interact (Norman, 1990). It thus steers our perspective and, in turn, influences our actions. Since erroneous mental models slow down and prevent learning, it must be possible to change them. This process begins with self-scrutiny and the questioning of our own behavior, in order to identify what it is that is preventing learning.

Shared visions refers to the ability to create shared goals. A shared vision encourages collaboration, creates a sense of belonging and commitment and helps people to maintain focus.

Team learning is about helping people to act as one body and make different energies pull in the same direction. In the 1990s, the management consulting firm Andersen Consulting, now Accenture, had an advertising slogan which read: “Are all your talents working in concert?” This slogan captures the essence of team learning.

2.4.3 Organizational Knowledge

In the lower left-hand corner of Fig. 2.1 we find the term *organizational knowledge*. Like organizational learning, it has a strong link to the academic theoretical field, although it focuses not on the actual learning process but on an attempt to understand and conceptualize the type of knowledge which exists within organizations. Michael Polanyi, who has been credited with the term tacit knowledge, has had a significant role in this. Polanyi had a broad knowledge of physical chemistry, economics and philosophy and was an opponent of positivism. Positivists, unlike hermeneutists, see knowledge as something absolute which can be observed, measured and quantified. They make a series of studies and logical deductions in order to try to find regularities and patterns which can be explained as absolute knowledge. Polanyi, on the other hand, saw knowledge as something relative and context-dependent. Tacit knowledge describes the wordless transfer of knowledge (Molander, 1996) and is defined by the Swedish language encyclopedia as follows:

... term ... for the assumptions, social rules and values which are *taken for granted* in human behavior (Volume 19, 2009, p. 62, my italics)

This suggests there are many occasions on which we are unaware of the knowledge we possess and also have difficulty articulating it. Molander (1996) cites the example of a nurse who felt instinctively that a patient who had just had an operation was unwell. The other staff on the ward saw no cause for concern, but 2 h later the patient had died. The nurse described how she could see that something was not quite right and that the feeling was probably due to the experience she had gained from 30 years on the same post-operative ward. She had trouble articulating her experience but her previously stored knowledge told her instinctively that something was wrong.

The difficulty of articulating knowledge varies with the type of knowledge, but Polanyi (1966) argues that all knowledge is essentially based on tacit knowledge:

Physiologists long ago established that the way we see an object is determined by our awareness of certain efforts inside our body, efforts which we cannot feel in ourselves. We are aware of these things going on inside our body in terms of the position, size, shape, and motion of an object, to which we are attending. In other words we are attending from these internal processes to the qualities of things outside. These qualities are what those internal processes mean to us. The transportation of bodily experiences into the perception

of things outside may now appear, therefore, as an instance of the transportation of meaning away from us, which we have found to be present to some extent in all tacit knowing. (p. 13)

One of Polanyi's best-known examples of this concerns the relationship between a blind man and his stick (1962). The man uses the stick to feel any impediments in his way. By so doing, he constructs a picture of reality by registering the movements of the stick in his hand. Familiarity with the stick's movements acts as tacit knowledge in relation to the blind man's exploration of reality. So, when we learn to master our tools and instruments it is as though we extend our own body. We are, in a manner of speaking, at home in our equipment and inhabit it in the same way as we inhabit our body (Molander, 1996).

In recent times, Nonaka (1994) and Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) have received much acclaim for their work in developing the relationship between tacit and explicit knowledge. They argue that the process of transforming knowledge is at the heart of the creation of knowledge. Taking their point of departure in Polanyi's classifications of tacit and explicit knowledge respectively, they have created a model which represents four levels of knowledge creation:

- socialization (from tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge)
- externalization (from tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge)
- internalization (from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge)
- combination (from explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge).

These are presented in more detail in the Sect. 3.1 *Nonaka's SECI model for knowledge transformation* in the following chapter.

2.4.4 Knowledge Management

The term *knowledge management* is placed in the bottom right-hand corner of Fig. 2.1. The focus here is on the practical, on the doing, and the strategic value of the organizational knowledge. Of the four disciplines in Easterby-Smith and Lyles' (2011) four-field matrix, knowledge management is the youngest. It was not until the beginning of the 1990s that it became a scientific discipline. There are many definitions of knowledge management. One which is fairly widespread is that given in 1998 by the American consulting company Gartner Group (this was previously on their website):

Knowledge management is a discipline that promotes an integrated approach to identifying, capturing, evaluating, retrieving, and sharing all of an enterprise's information assets. These assets may include databases, documents, policies, procedures, and previously un-captured expertise and experience in individual workers.

Alavi and Leidner (2001) explain knowledge management in the following way:

Knowledge management is largely regarded as a process involving various activities. Slight discrepancies in the delineation of the processes appear in the literature, namely in terms of the number and labeling of processes rather than the underlying concepts. At a minimum,

one considers the four basic processes of creating, storing/retrieving, transferring, and applying knowledge. (p. 114)

A further example is given by Karlsen and Gottschalk (2004):

[Knowledge Management is a] method to simplify and improve the process of creating, sharing, distributing, capturing, and understanding knowledge in a company. (p. 4)

All the above definitions describe knowledge management from a perspective which is largely technical, as opposed to social, thereby implying that knowledge is something which can be owned. In recent years, for example, Gartner Group has rewritten its definition of knowledge management to place more emphasis on the collaborative aspect of the knowledge management process. They also place greater emphasis on the importance of tacit knowledge:

Knowledge management (KM) is a business process that formalizes the management and use of an enterprise's intellectual assets. KM promotes a collaborative and integrative approach to the creation, capture, organization, access and use of information assets, including the tacit, uncaptured knowledge of people. (Gartner Group, 2014)

Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011) argue nonetheless that the field continues to be characterized by the technical view of learning portrayed by Huber in (1991) in his article "Organizational learning: The contributing processes and the literature" which was published in the journal *Organization Science*. One example of this is Tan's (Tan et al., 2007) description of the central elements that make up the knowledge management process:

- *gathering knowledge*, which includes the indexing, organization, structuring and validation of knowledge
- *sharing knowledge*, which is done through, for example, news publishing, filling a database with content or actively disseminating knowledge via electronic notices
- *recycling knowledge*, which is done by, for example, spreading best practices
- *maintaining knowledge*, This includes scrutinizing, correcting and updating knowledge.

Another, more contemporary example, comes from Ragab and Arisha's (2013) article in the *Journal of Knowledge Management*. They refer to, among others, Bergeron (2003) who argues that knowledge management is a conscious and systematic approach which aims to capture, preserve and transfer knowledge. Durst and Edvardsson (2012) point out in the same journal that the five process stages of identifying, creating, storing, disseminating and applying knowledge are crucial for the enterprise's ability to manage both current and future challenges and, consequently, for its survival.

Table 2.3 Central knowledge terms used in this book

Term	Area of use
Organizational learning and knowledge sharing	Refers to the actual learning and is aimed at the individual rather than the larger organization
Knowledge management	Is used as a general term for managing knowledge in organizations

2.4.5 Knowledge Should Be Used: Not Stored

In this book, the most relevant discipline is the learning organization, since my primary objective in developing a model for sustainable organizational learning has been to help people actively communicate and practice knowledge, not store it. I have, in addition, placed greater attention on the process rather than focusing on analyzing and conceptualizing the knowledge itself. I will, however, from now on use the terms *organizational learning* and *knowledge sharing* throughout the book when I refer to the learning itself (see Table 2.3 for a summary of central knowledge terminology). This is because both these terms give a good illustration of the active aspect of the process and also direct attention towards the actors rather than towards the organization as a whole. I also want to make you, the reader, aware that there are a number of places in this book where the term knowledge management may be used without reflecting its original meaning (see Table 2.3 here too). Certain sources in the book which have referred to this field use it as a blanket term for learning within organizations in general. When I want to distinguish between the more technical or social approaches to learning, I use instead the terms codification strategy and personalization strategy, or the epistemology of possession and the epistemology of practice, respectively.

I have given considerable prominence to Senge’s (1995) model. I do, however, feel that Senge falls short in his view of what motivates people to take part in the learning process. It is true that he stresses the importance of managing our basic commitments, but he never discusses the emotional aspects of the process. His model is more concerned with the ability to master your person and to be open. But to achieve this, we must take a bigger step and have a greater understanding of people’s emotions. Emotions are closely linked to learning, creative thinking, well-being, perception and value creation (Wang & Ahmed, 2003) and are thus an important foundation for effective organizational learning. I will further develop this later in the book, in particular in Chap. 4, *The individual in the learning process*.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has shown that the ability to succeed in creating a learning organization is closely linked to whether the organization takes time to reflect on what the concept of knowledge actually means. This is because our view of learning

influences how processes are designed and developed, and which tools and methods are used within the organization to promote learning and knowledge sharing. If our view of knowledge does not match the requirements of the organization, there is a real risk we will miss the mark. Here, questions such as “What does it mean when you say someone knows, or doesn’t know, something?”, “Is there an objective reality which allows us to describe situations from a universal perspective?” or “Do different individuals interpret the same events in different ways?” can help the organization to move in the right direction.

At the same time, the organization must have a good understanding of the natural processes for recycling knowledge which exist within the business. Hansen et al. (1999) argue that when conducting the analysis, three variables can be used to create this understanding: *how the organization serves its customers*, *how the organization receives income from its customers* and *the people who work within the organization*. When you have a good understanding of the knowledge situation which prevails, or should prevail, within the organization, you will better understand whether you should apply a strategy which is based on codification of knowledge—that is to say storing knowledge in a system—or personalization of knowledge—that is to say that knowledge is exchanged directly between people.

In this chapter I have also described four learning disciplines: organizational learning, the learning organization, organizational knowledge and knowledge management. Each of these has a different emphasis on the dimensions of theory-practice and process-content respectively. In the final part of the chapter, *Knowledge should be used—not stored*, I explained that the learning organization discipline is the most relevant for this book. However, I asked the reader to bear in mind the following two points:

- While the learning organization is the most relevant discipline for this book, I use the terms *organizational learning* and *knowledge sharing* throughout when I refer to the actual learning. Both these terms give a good illustration of the active aspect of the process and also direct attention towards the actors rather than towards the organization as a whole.
- There are a number of places in the book where the term knowledge management is used without necessarily reflecting its original meaning. The reason for this is that certain sources in the book which have referred to this field use it as a blanket term for learning in organizations in general.

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