UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

KNOWLEDGE SHARING BEHAVIOUR AMONG UNIVERSITY LECTURERS IN A HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTION

KAFUI AKU KEMEVOR

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BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Business and Social Sciences Education of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Education, College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy degree in Management Education

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature……. Date……

Name:……

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of the thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature ……Date ……..

Name:……..….

Co- Supervisor's Signature……Date……

Name: …….

ABSTRACT

The quantitative research examined the degree to which lecturers at University of Cape Coast share and use knowledge. This study used the descriptive cross-sectional survey and gathered data from 114 lecturers from the College of Education Studies UCC, through the census method. Data for the study was gathered through the use of a questionnaire. The data were analysed using descriptive (mean and standard deviation) and inferential (independent samples t-test and One-way ANOVA) statistics. The research found that lecturers had a considerable willingness to take part in knowledge sharing with their colleagues. Also, they were willing to receive and use shared knowledge. Additionally, the research revealed that knowledge sharing improved lecturers' efficacy of their academic and administration functions. In terms of demographic variables, it was found that there were no age and sex differences in lecturers' willingness to share and utilise knowledge. However, significant differences existed in their willingness to share knowledge based on professional ranks. They were collaborating, so they were given a sustenance recommendation to encourage lecturers in sharing knowledge with their colleagues since knowledge sharing was found to be beneficial.

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DEDICATION

To my beloved parent, Dr and Mrs Kemevor, my husband Lawrence Gyasi Ntiamoah, my daughter Selorm Marfowaa Ntiamoah and my beloved friends.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Teaching and research are two core roles of universities, which require the efficient and deliberate use of already-existing knowledge and information (Hu, Rijst, Veen, & Verloop, 2015). Knowledge has become a crucial resource in the modern world due to the instability of the environment. Universities serve as key knowledge providers for national development. Tacit or explicit knowledge needs to be managed and utilised effectively by its lecturers. This means that knowledge sharing and utilisation are important in universities. This research examines knowledge management practices, with a focus on knowledge sharing behaviour and the use among university lecturers. The introduction covered in this chapter includes background of the study, presents statement of the problem, clarifies its purpose, presents research questions and hypotheses, emphasises the research's significance, establishes the research's delimitation, limitations, defines key terms, and describes the organisation of the study.

Background to the Study

Productivity is anchored in strategy in the modern competitive landscape and is a key goal for every organisation (Torabi & El-Den, 2017). Collins (2018) states that we live in a society that is marked by fierce competition, ongoing change, rapid innovation, and rising market uncertainty. Therefore, organisations can either choose to actively participate in the environment's evolution or choose to do so in order to develop their entrepreneurship skills, spot trends, analyse the implications of the current

circumstance and creating a plan of action that will enable them to take control of their future that will give them that power.

The management of an organisation, whether school or corporate institution, is highly driven by competitive intelligence. Badaoui and Chettih (2017) opined that strategic information must be mastered and protected in order for competitive intelligence to exist, allowing business managers to make educated judgements at any time. Badaoui and Chettih added that it is a procedure intended to clarify the strategic goals of an organisation. Beyond just information monitoring and retrieval, it emphasises the management of external knowledge assets by including different organisational levels and utilising cognitive skills to deal with difficult decision-making situations. (Štefániková & Masárová, 2014). One of the ideas that is closely tied to competitive intelligence is Knowledge Management (KM).

Knowledge Management (KM) is a structured managerial strategy that focused on identifying and acquiring an organisation's knowledge assets so they may be used and protected in a manner that gives the business a competitive edge (Koenig, 2018). In the view of McInerney and Koenig (2011), KM is defined as a procedure whereby corporations have come up with ways to recognise and store knowledge assets coming from staff members across various departments or faculties who share a similar area of interest or specialisation. As a management tool and a subject of study, KM has grown in acceptance and credibility. (Cranfield & Taylor, 2008; Laal, 2010). This is because this entails recognising the value of knowledge and putting measures in place to gather, recognise, capture, conserve, and utilise it.

This guarantees that knowledge can be shared without reducing its worth or significance. (Abubakar, Elrehail, Alatailat & Elçi, 2019).

KM strengthens the organisation's knowledge assets and helps them be used to their fullest potential, leading to improved organisational behaviour and greater performance. This is accomplished by using a variety methods used in knowledge management, such as knowledge production, refinement, storage, transfer, sharing and usage (King, 2009). Understanding that organisational knowledge should not supplant or supersede individual knowledge is essential. Instead, it should be used to strengthen, cohere, and expand its applicability (Omotayo, 2015). Hijazi (2017) states that when KM is well applied, it may lead managers to promote quicker and better decision-making, reduce duplication of effort, uphold effective procedures by keeping an eye on best practices, and encourage innovation through the sharing of knowledge.

Gharakhani and Mousakhani (2012) claim that knowledge acquisition, sharing, and utilisation are the three primary operations or activities that make up knowledge management. According to Zandbergen (2021), capturing, organising, refining, and transferring are the four primary operations or processes that make up knowledge management. Saurabh (2005) also explains that Knowledge Management (KM) includes all of the processes involved in recognising, obtaining, sharing, and producing knowledge. For KM processes or activities to be put into practice, an environment for KM needs to be created so that people can share what they know. Each learning process begins at the personal level and then spreads into the social context and organisational setting. (Gaines, 2013).

Researchers such as (Olatokun & Nwafor, 2012; Ekeke, 2011) indicate that among the critical activities of effective KM practices is Knowledge Sharing (KS). KS pertains to the act of distributing and imparting existing knowledge (Gharakhani & Mousakhani, 2012). Individuals can transmit their knowledge and experiences through knowledge sharing, serving as significant resources for an organisation and fostering the development of new knowledge (Liaw, Chen & Huang, 2008). Additionally, Yu, Lu, and Liu (2010) describe KS as the process of transferring knowledge between individuals and groups. They believe that sharing knowledge facilitates discussions and debates about particular issues, which helps both individuals and organisations build a knowledge base. This procedure may encourage the creation of new knowledge. (Janus, 2016). However, in KS, three important conditions are necessary. Evans (2012) explains these three important requirements. First, the knowledge provider must be inclined to share their knowledge. Second, the person receiving the knowledge must show a willingness to absorb and use it. Lastly, the recipient of the knowledge must perceive the provided knowledge as beneficial to their responsibilities, the project at hand or the larger business. These three conditions have brought about employees' Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB). The KSB contributes to the improvement of organisational efficiency, innovation, and knowledge application (Wang & Noe, 2010). The term "knowledge sharing behaviour" refers to the degree to which people share and exchange their knowledge and expertise with their coworkers inside their company, hence promoting the creation of new knowledge (Mallasi & Ainin, 2015).

Doblinger (2022) shows that KS for firms to hone abilities and skills, reinforce fundamental values, and retain a durable and competitive edge, knowledge exchange inside and between teams is crucial. In their earlier research, Yang and Chen (2007) state that within the knowledge management environment results, the significance of knowledge sharing has greatly increased. Sharing knowledge thus stands out as the most effective tool for advancing both individual and society development

The utilisation of shared knowledge is important; that is, for success to be ensured, knowledge must be utilised effectively. According to Abubakar et al. (2019), it is often thought that effective knowledge utilisation occurs after knowledge has been developed and distributed. According to the researchers, knowledge is seen to have been used when it is use practically in everyday situations. According to some researchers, utilisation of knowledge (Chen & Mohamed, 2010; Omotayo, 2015) results in work efficiency. This suggests that using knowledge management (KM) is one strategy institutions can use to deal with the difficulties, adjustments, and developments they experience.

Like any other institution, universities are under pressure to improve their services and outcomes for the general public (Cantor, Englot & Higgins, 2013). KM practices are mostly implemented in the corporate world and this is an expanding area of study in the realm of education (Kumaravel & Vikkraman, 2018). According to Alemu (2018), in the contexts of higher education, knowledge is viewed as either academic (teaching and research) or organisational (innovating and creativity), this is produced and used by academic staff, students, managers, and researchers. To guarantee effective Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), the efficiency of the system as a whole

depends on the knowledge that each individual agent generates, stores, and shares (Kotecha, 2012). No matter what kind of academic institution, university lecturers continuously partake in tasks involving the acquisition of knowledge. Lecturers accomplish this by reading from diverse knowledge sources and utilising tools meant for knowledge acquisition. In their research, Kaba and Ramiah (2018) concluded that organisations, universities and colleges which are knowledge-intensive are intended to encourage and facilitate knowledge acquisition among university lecturers.

Some scholars (e.g. Bhusry, Ranjan & Nagar, 2011; Brewer & Brewer, 2010) highlight that universities should use KM to improve the effectiveness of the activities of teaching, learning, and research which need the creation of new academic programmes, strengthening current curricula, enhancing services for students and alumni, assisting with strategic planning and development, creating policies, and raising the overall standard of service delivery. This is because education is about knowledge creation, sharing and application (Ker, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

Knowledge is crucial to any academic endeavour. Knowledge is more valuable when it is shared (Appaih, 2014). However, knowledge sharing behaviour among lecturers is problematic as some intentionally hoard knowledge (Abass, 2017). Despite the fact that sharing knowledge is crucial for boosting an organisation's knowledge and boosting its competitive advantage, there are signs that suggest lecturers may not be willing to do so.

Knowledge sharing inside an organisation depends on its members' willingness to do so. Supporting this claim, Mutage and Dewah (2021)

indicated that knowledge initially lies within the academicians and individuals' willingness to share their knowledge to others greatly influences the development of organisational knowledge. Michailova and Husted (2003) discovered five reasons that affect workers' unwillingness to share their knowledge. These include concerns about declining personal value, related expenses, uncertainties regarding how recipients will use the shared knowledge, recognition and compliance with obvious hierarchical and formal authority, and potential negative effects resulting from sharing knowledge with subordinates. Hence, organisations whose employees are unwilling to share knowledge repeat similar mistakes, waste time getting work done, lack innovation, lack consistency in decision-making, and cannot make learning a routine.

Studies about KS have been conducted in Europe and a few in Africa. In the UK, Al-Kurdi, El-Haddah and Eldabi (2020) based their research focusing on the effects of organisational culture on how academic professionals handle knowledge sharing within higher education institutions. Faith and Seeam (2018) also based their research on using the SECI model in the UK for knowledge sharing within academic circles. In China, Adamseged and Hong (2018) focused their research on sharing of knowledge among university lecturers. The researchers examined effective ways for faculty members to share knowledge in a higher education environment. They looked into how these knowledge sharing techniques improve faculty members' quality regarding the harmony between their research and instruction responsibilities, which is in line with the larger goal of raising standards in higher education. In India, Areekkuzhiyil (2016) explored the various

organisational elements that have an effect on the knowledge sharing behaviour of teachers in higher education institutions.

Sohail and Daud (2009) researched knowledge sharing in higher education institutions in Malaysia. Their research examined the factors and barriers contributing to KS among the lecturers at the university. In Zimbabwe, Chikono (2018) researched knowledge sharing practices among academicians at Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU). The research aimed to discover the knowledge management and sharing procedures that take place in an institution that offers open and distance learning, as well as to investigate the potential role that KM might play in these activities.

Despite the significant of knowledge sharing to the educational landscape as established in literature, much emphasis has not been placed on the willingness of lecturers to share and use shared knowledge in several institutions such as, universities, training colleges and others (Tan, 2016). Prior research (Al-Kurdi et al., 2020; Faith & Seeam, 2018; Adamseged & Hong, 2018; Chikono, 2018; Areekkuzhiyil, 2016; Sohail & Daud, 2009) had focused primarily on knowledge sharing in higher education institutions in other countries, but none has been done on knowledge sharing behaviour among lecturers and the effects of demographics characteristics on KSB especially, in Ghanaian universities. This research specifically investigated the KSB of lecturers.

In Ghanaian universities, lecturers do not only have the task of not only educating students but contributing to the building of the nation. However, this is not possible without sharing and using knowledge among lecturers. Empirically, it appears that there is a gap in the literature regarding

the study of knowledge sharing and usage among lecturers. Without knowing the actual situation, measures cannot be put in place to improve knowledge sharing and using behaviour of lecturers. Without such measures, there is a possibility that lecturers may not be able to contribute their best to students and the nation as a whole. This means that the problem under study is essential.

Purpose of the Study

This study sought to examine to what extent lecturers at the University of Cape Coast (UCC) practice knowledge sharing behaviour among themselves.

Research Objectives

The precise objectives of the research were to:

1. assess lecturers' willingness to share knowledge at the University of Cape Coast.
2. examine lecturers' willingness to use acquired knowledge at the University of Cape Coast.
3. identify lecturers perceived benefits of shared knowledge at the University of Cape Coast.
4. determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their age.
5. analyse whether there is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use knowledge based on their age.
6. establish whether there is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their sex.

7. establish whether there is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use knowledge based on their sex.
8. analyse whether there is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their ranks.
9. determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use knowledge based on their ranks.

Research Questions

The following research questions served as a guide for the study:

1. What is lecturers' level of willingness to share knowledge among themselves at the University of Cape Coast?
2. What is lecturers' level of willingness to use knowledge shared at the University of Cape Coast?
3. What are lecturers' perceived benefits of shared knowledge at the University of Cape Coast?

Hypotheses

The research was guided by the following hypotheses.

1. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their age.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their age.

2. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their age.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their age.

3. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge.

4. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge.

5. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their ranks.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their ranks.

6. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their ranks.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their ranks.

Significance of the Study

The essential participants in education, including lecturers, university administration, researchers, and students, would greatly benefit from the study's outcome. For university lecturers, the results would highlight and increase their awareness of the benefits of KSB. With this awareness, lecturers can improve their knowledge level and share it with their colleagues. This can assist to ensure that all lecturers have current knowledge which can be helpful in their work.

For university management, the study's findings would highlight the requirement for lecturers to obtain and share knowledge. With such awareness, university management could create organisational policies, norms, and values that support and promote knowledge sharing behaviours. According to Sohali and Daud (2009), if university administration played a constructive role, they may encourage their lecturers to participate in knowledge sharing by setting up public forums., talks, and seminars. Ultimately, this can help improve KSB among lecturers in the university and thus raise the standard of knowledge and education in the university.

Additionally, the results on the benefits of knowledge sharing could make lecturers encourage students to develop or build up knowledge sharing behaviours. In this sense, students would learn to seek and share knowledge with their colleagues. Finally, the results would be beneficial to researchers who have an interest in studying KSB among academicians. Thus, the study's results would add to the literature on knowledge sharing behaviour among lecturers in Ghana.

Delimitation

The research was restricted to lecturers in College of Education Studies of UCC. The College of Education Studies was considered because studies outside Ghana considered other colleges, such as nursing and business, and did not consider education colleges. Moreover, University of Cape Coast was taken into consideration because of the institution’s anthem first stanza which states that “we learn to teach, we find out and pass on. We counsel, we guide that all may be enlightened”. The study is to assess how willing lecturers learn to teach colleagues, find out and pass on to their colleagues.

In the College of Education Studies, only lecturers were used because they are considered as knowledgeable professionals who engage in active teaching, writing, and research, all of which the university generates value (Babalhavaeji & Kermani, 2011). The study was restricted to the KSB among lecturers, which focused on their willingness to share knowledge and utilise shared knowledge, as well as the perceived advantages of engaging in knowledge sharing.

Limitations

The research focused only on lecturers in the University of Cape Coast and not all Universities in Ghana, due to the short time given to complete the study. Also since the study has been done in other countries in the education sector but not in Ghana educational field, the researcher chose to begin in University of Cape Coast's College of Education. However, this limit the scope of the application of the results universally.

Also, there could be factors that drive knowledge sharing behaviour for lecturers to improve on their work performances but was not considered to yield an accurate result because the research's main objective was based on willingness. This study hence created a gap for literature.

Moreover, since quantitative approach was employed, data obtained from questionnaire was not in-depth and personalised as could have been obtained by other methods like interview schedule, focus group discussion and observation in qualitative approach. This is because the questionnaire was prepared on a Likert scale consisting a closed-ended questions. It did not give the respondents the room to express themselves on the subject at hand. Also

respondents with no opinion might have answered it anyway with the reason of not understanding the questions asked.

Definition of Terms

Knowledge Management practices: This refers to the processes of knowledge management being put into effective action.

Knowledge Sharing Behaviour: This research's context refers to the intention lecturers or employees exhibit in giving and receiving information.

Knowledge Source: Refers to where knowledge is being derived from. Examples include lecturers, students, competitors, suppliers, customers, partners and experts.

Organisation of the Study

Five chapters comprise the research. Introduction is presented in the first chapter, which covers the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, hypotheses, significance of the study, delimitation, limitations, and organisation. Chapter two discusses the theoretical and empirical literature of the study. chapter three describes the research methods, comprising research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, data collection instrument, data collection procedures, and data processing and analysis. Chapter four presents the results and its discussion. Lastly, chapter five deals with the summary, conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The research reviewed literature related to Knowledge Sharing Behaviour among university lecturers in Higher Education Institutions. The review introduced topics that had some relations with Knowledge Sharing Behaviour in a broader view Therefore, the study captured theoretical, empirical, and conceptual reviews.

Theoretical Review: SECI Model

By encouraging the sharing of tacit and explicit knowledge, knowledge sharing behaviour unquestionably contributes to improving organisational performance. This procedure helps arise a spiral of knowledge creation, which fuels the organisation's ongoing increase in knowledge. The SECI model, developed by Nonaka and Takeuchi, serves as a significant representation of the organisational knowledge creation theory in this study. The SECI Model has become a crucial framework for comprehending and promoting the creation and sharing of knowledge within organisations (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Four methods were recommended by them for producing, merging, modifying, and sharing explicit and tacit knowledge inside an organisation. The SECI Model's Socialisation, Externalisation, Combination, and

Internalisation stages are those in which explicit and tacit knowledge interact and change. Contrasted with explicit knowledge, which is documented and codified and is easier to impart to others, it is often challenging to access the tacit knowledge that is stored in people's brains.

The model successfully integrates numerous knowledge-related processes, adopting a complete KM approach. These procedures cover every aspect of knowledge management, including the creation of new insights, formalisation of those insights into explicit forms, storage of those insights for later use, dissemination of those insights among individuals, and finally application of those insights for actual use (Mikic, White & Razak, 2009; Aurum, Daneshgar & Ward, 2008; Grant & Grant, 2008; Haggie & Kingston, 2003). Figure 1 displays the traits of the four stages of the knowledge conversion process. According to Nonaka and Konno (2005), each of the four conversion modes can be seen as a technique to get over one's current boundaries and advance into other intellectual regions. They work as a unit to provide a foundational framework for the intricate process of knowledge creation.

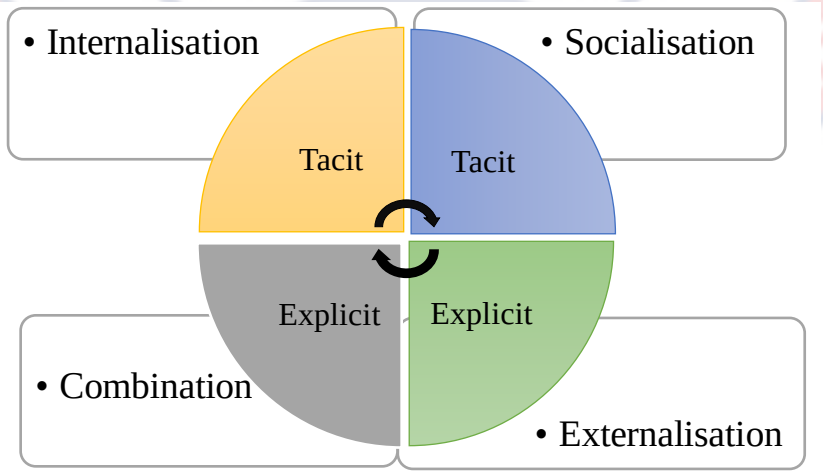

Figure 1: SECI model

Source: Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995)

Through social interactions and the exchange of experiences among members of an organisation, Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) define socialisation as the process by which tacit knowledge is transformed into new tacit knowledge. Yeh, Huang and Yeh (2011) also define socialisation as a variety of techniques, including activities like observation, imitation, active practice, and participation in both formal and informal societies, used to share tacit knowledge. Socialisation is considered by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) given that, the procedure is regarded as the lynchpin of knowledge transfer within this cycle. Given that it involves the frequently elusive and difficult to explain components of knowledge that are developed at the personal level, it is especially crucial.

In contrast to traditional apprenticeships, when learning is mostly transferred through printed instructions or books, socialisation typically transpires at casual public gatherings away from the workplace. Through interpersonal interactions, tacit knowledge is created and transferred in various contexts, covering components like worldviews, mental models, and mutual trust. (Nonaka, Toyama & Nagata, 2000). According to Nonaka and Konno (2005), long durations of apprenticeship help newcomers understand other people's thoughts and emotions. Activities that can encourage this kind of connection include meetings and brainstorming sessions. Since it is difficult to formalise, it is only possible to fully acquire tacit knowledge through shared experiences. Additionally, Nonaka and Konno (2005) argue that practical socialisation should entail being physically close to the information source because this proximity improves the capture of tacit knowledge.

Nonaka and Konno (2005) further explain that another technique of knowledge acquisition involves physically moving through an organisation and gathering tacit knowledge that way. This strategy comprises acquiring data onsite at the company's unique job locations, enabling the recovery of the most recent and pertinent data accessible. However, according to Bratianu and Orzea (2010), socialisation happens through interactions between coworkers, both inside the same team or department and during larger gatherings such meetings with staff, clients, and suppliers. Moving beyond informal talks and cursory exchanges of information is essential for effective socialisation. Bratianu and Orzea (2010) insist that this process should arouse deeper memories and knowledge that has been preserved. People who possess a greater level of understanding and knowledge depth are necessary for the effective transfer of tacit knowledge. Directly communicating ideas to coworkers' entails exchanging personal information and establishing a common ground. This idea is applied at the corporate level to encourage the sharing of excellent practices (Bratianu & Orzea, 2010).

The SECI model's next step is Externalisation, which involves transforming tacit knowledge into new explicit knowledge. This conversion process causes tacit knowledge to "crystallise," making it transferable and allowing for its use as a base for creating new knowledge types including concepts, visual representations, and textual materials (Nonaka & Toyama, 2003). Nonaka and Konno (2005) elucidate two key elements that facilitate effective externalisation. The first factor entails the process of articulating tacit knowledge, which converts tacit insights into explicit knowledge. This includes a variety of methods for expressing one's ideas or mental images,

including the use of written or spoken language, as well as figurative language such as metaphors, analogies, or narratives, as well as visual aids.

Bratianu and Orzea (2010) believe that externalisation is very motivating, and the capacity to use metaphors, analogies, and cognitive models effectively is crucial for knowledge translation. However, by building on preexisting concepts, metaphors are essential for the growth of new theories and ideas (Andriessen, 2008; Andriessen, 2006; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). Discussions that are worthwhile or shared reflections serve as the catalyst for the start of the externalisation phase. Team members can reveal hidden tacit knowledge that could be difficult to explain in other ways by using metaphors or analogies. Through strong motivational techniques and instruction, the externalisation process can be made more effective.

Additionally, this process involves transforming tacit knowledge possessed by clients or specialists into formats that are simple to understand (Nonaka & Konno, 2005). These styles frequently call for utilising creative inference (abduction), deductive or inductive reasoning. For example, Emilia works as a lecturer at University of Education, Winneba. Emilia learned some management techniques from her colleague lecturers at University of Education, Winneba, in terms of making lecture notes simple to lecture with. She specialised in management education and received positive feedback from her students at the University of Education, Winneba. She then decided to write a book titled "Lecturing made easier". She wrote down the steps, learned them and included the necessary skills to make lecturing interesting. Therefore, she shared her skills outlined in the book with her colleagues in the University of Cape Coast and received comments on her work. Thus, she has

now codified and documented her technique knowledge in her book, which she subsequently shared to her peers or co-workers.

The SECI model's Combination phase comes after the Socialisation and Externalisation phases. New explicit knowledge is formed in this stage by combining, classifying, reclassifying, and synthesising previously existing explicit knowledge. When previously acquired knowledge is combined with freshly acquired knowledge from diverse organisational departments, new products, services, or management systems are created. Bratianu and Orzea (2010) define combination as the process of combining various explicit knowledge components to create new network structures of explicit knowledge. The methods of communication and diffusion, as well as the structure and structuring of knowledge, are crucial elements throughout this stage (Nonaka & Konno, 2005).

Nonaka, Toyama and Byosiere (2001) explain that in a practical view, explicit Knowledge is gathered from sources both internal and external of a company. The amassed knowledge is then combined, improved upon, or otherwise altered to provide higher level, more organised explicit knowledge. New explicit knowledge is produced through this process, and it is then shared among the organisation's members. (Dubberly & Evenson, 2011). Unlike externalisation, which is being a solo endeavor, using the communicative nature of explicit knowledge as a foundation, the combination process is a social activity. It is critical to realise that making the assertion that the primary purpose of higher education is the sharing of explicit knowledge is an oversimplification and inaccurately portrays the complexity of the field (Adler, 1995).

Three primary (or possibly four) types of these activities seem to be a part of the combination process, including the use of language (speaking, listening, reading, and writing) to create a synthesis, an unidentified component related to computer operations, and the conversion of knowledge into observable goods or objects (Gourlay, 2003). Gourlay (2003) further states that, up to this point formal education has mainly been in the area of language-based knowledge, which fits into the first category described. It is important to keep in mind, though, that formal education can also be thought of as a separate learning and teaching process, possibly forming a separate fourth category within the framework of combination activities.

The last knowledge spiral of the SECI model is Internalisation, in this sense, describes the creation of new tacit knowledge from explicit knowledge. (Nonaka, Toyama & Nagata, 2000; Nonaka & Konno, 1998; Nonaka, 1994). Gourlay (2003) describes internalisation as the act of assimilating explicit knowledge, involves turning the knowledge into tacit knowledge. According to Dubberly and Evenson (2011), internalisation is a procedure by which explicit knowledge is produced, shared, and then changed by individual team members into tacit knowledge. Nonaka and Konno (2005) specifying that individuals must personally identify relevant knowledge within the larger corporate knowledge environment during this internalisation process.

Nonaka and Konno (2005) state that the incorporation of explicit knowledge into action and practical application is necessary for the process of internalisation. As a result, this internalisation step converts theoretical or conceptual insights into practical application in the areas of plan, use of innovative techniques, or advancement. To give an example, training sessions

in larger firms enable participants to comprehend the nuances of the company and their jobs by studying documents or manuals relevant to their duties and the institution itself. The explicit knowledge in these resources is absorbed by students through such immersion, enhancing their individual tacit knowledge repositories. Furthermore, these books or guides act as conduits for the dissemination of explicit knowledge. Through this indirect exchange, people can virtually experience what their peers are going through (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). Therefore, this phase might be thought of as a well-established practice when knowledge is actively applied in genuine circumstances, ultimately laying the groundwork for new routines and practices to be created (Dubberly & Evenson 2011).

The advancement through the four SECI phases creates a spiral pattern, which spreads both horizontally and vertically through various levels inside companies, according to Nonaka and Takeuchi's hypothesis, which is illustrated in Figure 1 (Nonaka & Toyama, 2003; Nonaka, Toyama & Hirata, 2000). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) state that, the socialisation stage, which is marked by the sharing of people's tacit knowledge, is when the spiral starts. The externalisation step comes next, during which freshly created tacit information is transformed into explicit knowledge. In the subsequent combination phase, this explicit knowledge is integrated with explicit knowledge that already exists. The internalisation phase marks the end of the spiral's cycle, it is where people incorporate newly learned explicit knowledge into their own tacit knowledge stores. As a result, there is a new exchange of tacit knowledge, accelerating the spiral's continued growth in the process of knowledge creation (Andreeva & Ikhilchik, 2011). This suggests that the

process of organisational knowledge development is continuous and self-improving, as proposed by Nonaka and Toyama (2003).

Examining the ways in which knowledge is acquired, generated, and shared, the research used the theory of organisational knowledge creation and the SECI model. It sought to comprehend how unique ideas originate, how they are incorporated into higher education institutions (HEIs), and how knowledge is then internalised, used, and shared among academic staff (Chikono, 2018). Knowledge is acquired through a variety of sophisticated cognitive functions, such as perception, learning, communication, association, and reasoning, claims Cavell (2002).

According to Easa (2012), the knowledge conversion model developed by SECI, which encompasses tacit and explicit knowledge, was seen as an ineffective framework for promoting organisational knowledge development. Additionally, it was thought to integrate different knowledge management procedures. People learn and gain new insights as they exchange tacit and explicit knowledge, which improves their capacity to understand circumstances or problems. As a result, they are more equipped to apply their knowledge to solve issues and come up with fresh ideas (Kamasak & Bulutlar, 2010; Nonaka, Krogh &Voepel, 2006; Popadiuk & Choo, 2006; McAdam, 2004; Soo, Midgley & Devinney, 2002; Swan & Newell, 2000;).

In the current study, the SECI model was relevant because the model describes how knowledge can be acquired and used effectively in organisations. The model suits the study since the researcher looked at how lecturers share and use their knowledge. The model addresses all the varied processes essential in creating, sharing and using knowledge.

Conceptual Review

Concepts related to the study were reviewed. Specifically, the conceptual review covered the Concept of Knowledge, Types of knowledge, Knowledge Management (KM), Knowledge management processes or activities, Knowledge Sharing (KS), Knowledge Utilisation (KU), Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB) and Benefits of Knowledge Sharing Behaviour (KSB). These are discussed in detail below:

Concept of Knowledge

Knowledge has gained significance as a crucial engine for prosperous businesses during the shift from the industrial era to the intelligent age (Appiah, 2014). It has a dynamic impact on a world economy and society that are rapidly changing. Although many people are familiar with the phrases "data," "information," and "knowledge," not everyone is aware of their key distinctions. Regardless of the terms "knowledge" and "information" are sometimes used synonymously, there is a distinct difference between the two. Understanding that data is the source of information, which is the source of knowledge, is crucial. It has a dynamic impact on a world economy and society that are rapidly changing. Although many people are familiar with the phrases "data," "information," and "knowledge," not everyone is aware of their key distinctions. Data, information, and knowledge, according to Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), are closely intertwined, with information acting as a stream of messages or meanings and knowledge developing from this information flow according to the beliefs and commitment of the bearer (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).

Knowledge, according to Leonard and Sensiper (1998), is information that is pertinent, useful, and based on experience. Davenport and Prusak (1998) describe knowledge as a dynamic synthesis of framed experience, values, contextual data, subject-matter expertise, and rooted intuition. This fusion offers a structure for including new knowledge and experiences. Sverlinger (2000), meanwhile, defines knowledge as everything a company does to produce and share knowledge. Knowledge is the most important asset for firms, according to Carneiro (2000), While Kumaravel & Vikkraman (2018) contend that knowledge has evolved into the primary asset boosting economic competitiveness. According to Kidwell, VanderLinde, and Johnson (2000), information is created based on the fundamental facts referred to as data, which only consists of raw data, points, or numbers.

Kidwell et al. (2000) further explain such information is easily stored in databases or documents, and current information technology methods make it easy to retrieve it, even in large volumes. Knowledge, according to Leonard and Sensiper (2002), "is a subset of information" (p. 485). Additionally, Awad and Ghaziri (2004) describe knowledge as the activity of converting information and experience into a meaningful network of relationships, including beliefs and values that a person understands and pertains. It starts in the thoughts of those who possess it and is used there. It frequently becomes ingrained in organisation practices, processes, and standards as well as documents or repositories. On the other hand, information emerges when data is contextualised within a relevant framework and can be thought of as streams of unfiltered facts outlining occurrences in the company (Laudon & Laudon, 2004).

Knowledge includes the ability to navigate through material and knowledge already available through experience. People with this proficiency are able to become more conscious, have the skills necessary to carry out activities, and have an impact on results. Particularly, knowledge acts as a link that makes data and information comprehensible and useful (Grant & Grant, 2008; Hicks, Dattero & Galup, 2007; Sanchez, 2003; Fuller, 2002; Beijerse, 2000; Nonaka, Konno & Toyama, 2000). Cong and Pandya (2003) point out that making a distinction between data, information, and knowledge is necessary for a complete grasp of KM. They claim that data are simply facts. Data must be processed and contextualised into information before it can be used to make decisions. “Knowledge is thus viewed as significant information” (p.26). As a result, a process of transformation is required to go from raw data to knowledge. Raw data are first processed to reveal meanings, patterns, and trends, after which they are transformed into "information." When this information is seen as being important and reliable for making decisions, it is given the title of "knowledge". Knowledge includes more than just information; it also reflects the insights and knowledge that employees possess and may be used to make decisions. This knowledge is incorporated into the teams, work processes, and numerous critical operations inside an organisation, extending to its infrastructure and systems (Dhamdhere, 2015).

Types of Knowledge

Two separate forms of knowledge, tacit and explicit knowledge are the foundation of Nonaka and Takeuchi's (1995) classification of knowledge. They classify tacit Knowledge as being individual and context-specific, making it challenging to successfully convey and formalise. Contrarily,

explicit knowledge is defined as knowing something that can be expressed using formal, methodical language. Nonaka, Konno, and Toyama (2000) go on to elaborate on their concept by stating that tacit knowledge incorporates experiences and skills that are deeply embedded in people. This type of knowledge is challenging to articulate or transmit. Explicit knowledge in contrast, may be seen, felt, and recorded.

Tactic knowledge is defined by Awad and Ghaziri (2004) as knowledge implanted in a person's memory as a result of experiences and work-related activities. Explicit knowledge in contrast, is digitised and codified in variety of formats, including publications of all kinds, including books, papers, spreadsheets, memos, reports, white papers, training materials, and the like. Ramanujan and Kesh (2004) insist that good sharing and communication are necessary for accessing tacit knowledge. Similarly, Alhawary (2011) defines tacit knowledge as a form of experience-based knowledge, intuition, and competence that cannot be adequately stated in words or sentences. It is still challenging to formalise, express, and then communicate. Dhamdhere (2015) gives insights into explicit knowledge, defining it as well-recorded, action-guiding knowledge that is communicated in a formal tone. Explicit knowledge is well-documented, widely available, and comprises primary and secondary information, packaged material, and transferrable assets as sources. It can be explained, recorded, summarised, and codified in many different ways, including through language, numbers, facts, regulations, reports, blog posts, emails, printed items like books and journals, digital assets, and policies, without the need for lengthy debates.

While he also explains tacit knowledge as when individuals have knowledge retained in their memory and serves as the knowledge they personally own. Researchers at an institution have this kind of knowledge deeply imprinted in their minds and consciousness. Tacit knowledge includes a variety of things, such as personal insights, opinions, professional viewpoints, strategies, and abilities. Tacit knowledge is essentially private, peculiar to particular professions, and frequently very challenging to record, converse verbally, or transfer to the general public in an efficient manner (Dhamdhere, 2015). Dhamdhere further states that tacit knowledge possesses unique qualities. It is challenging to formalise and transmit tacit knowledge in a consistent way since it is individualised and context-dependent. Although this type of knowledge, sometimes known as "know how," is extremely valuable, it is typically kept as a person's trade secret rather than being openly disseminated to the rest of the information society. Explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge differ in their fundamental characteristics.

Hence, Organisations are becoming more aware of how crucial it is to develop specific approaches for translating tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge that can then be codified, captured, saved, transmitted, used, and used by diverse stakeholders. KM is based on this conversion process, with the main goal being to effectively distribute tacit knowledge in an explicit format. This fundamental idea has sparked the development of KM approaches, tools, and applications that are all focused on successfully achieving this objective (Gupta, Iyer & Aronson, 2000).

Concept of Knowledge Management

Due to the increase in research efforts and its wider use as a managerial tool within corporate organisations, KM has gained legitimacy throughout time (Cranfield & Taylor, 2008). Researchers and academics have been debating whether or not KM is just a fleeting fad (Cranfield & Taylor, 2008). However, scholars like Stankosky emphasise that the longevity of the knowledge economy supports the idea that KM is not a fad, and this is why the consensus is that it is not (Stankosky, 2005). Duffy (2000) defines KM as a field of practice that enables people within of an organisation to cooperatively gather, share, and apply knowledge with the intention of attaining business objectives. Notably, KM incorporates elements from several fields, including management, information systems, business theory, organisational behaviour, and social psychology (Sallis & Jones, 2002).

Many organisations accept KM globally, the management paradigm is changing to reflect the shifting expectations of enterprises (Safa, Shakir, & Boon, 2006; Yeh & Ta, 2005). According to Choy (2006), 80% of the top or most renowned organisations in the world have used knowledge management. The author comes to the conclusion that the importance of knowledge management inside a company cannot be emphasised because it is for an organisation to maintain its growth and development.

Knowledge is the most priceless resource in today's world, which is known as the "information age." At the moment, the difficulty is in properly managing the information rather than finding it. Organisations' top priority is to effectively process knowledge and make the most of it in the context of the current knowledge-driven organisational landscape (Sallis & Jones, 2002). Haqani and Ahlan (2015) conclude that, in the present-day world, KM could

be accomplished by continuously using the knowledge that already exists and by continuously creating new knowledge. This is particularly important in a society that is rapidly developing and in which the information and insight landscape is always changing.

When viewed from an organisation's perspective, Davenport and Prusak (1998) define KM is a methodology that maximises the facilitation and enhancement of the sharing, distribution, creation, capture, and comprehension of knowledge within an organisation. Duffy (2000) characterises KM as a systematic method that involves a company's staff, methodology, and technology as part of a created remedy intended to capture knowledge and distribute it to the appropriate people at the proper time. In order to strengthen and improve an organisation's business performance, Gupta, Iyer, and Aronson (2000) define KM as a continuous process that comprises the production, storage, retrieval, and sharing of knowledge. According to Gates (2000), any organisation's ultimate goal is to increase the potential for collaborative work. This encompasses the sharing of concepts, the acceptance of effective ideas, and the coordination of efforts made to achieve common goals. According to Gates (2000) further assertion, KM, from an organisational perspective, revolves around an ability to absorb knowledge from its own experiences through the process of acquiring knowledge from outside sources and learning from others' experiences, then using that knowledge wisely to fulfil the organisation's mission.

KM is also defined as an organised project through which corporations have developed strategies to locate and catalogue knowledge assets already present within the organisation. These resources are frequently obtained from

staff members from other departments or faculties, while occasionally they might also come from outside organisations with similar fields of expertise or interests. (Firestone, 2001). Furthermore, according to Darroch and McNaughton (2002), knowledge management is the managerial process in charge of producing or discovering knowledge, coordinating its flow within the organisation, and ensuring its effective and efficient application for the organisation's long-term advantage. Rumizen (2002), however, claims that KM is a methodical procedure by which the crucial knowledge required for an organisation's success which depends on the development, capture, and utilisation of knowledge is achieved. Laudon & Laudon (2004), Contrarily, describe knowledge management as a group of practices established within a company to produce, collect, store, transfer, and use knowledge.

Indeed, as Kucza (2001) emphasises, making knowledge relevant and accessible to a wide range of individuals is knowledge management's major objective. The goal of KM should go beyond merely acquiring knowledge; it should include the abilities to create, consolidate, transfer, and better utilise knowledge to fulfil organisational goals (Dhamdhere, 2015). Dhamdhere (2015) further explains that KM continually discovers organisational tacit knowledge, which is helpful, knowledge management is crucial in promoting the growth of knowledge, supporting efficient problem-solving, and improving the decision-making process. Dawson (2000) expresses that KM is essential for organisations in its capacity to develop a pool of experts within a company. This is comparable to the idea that success on the basis of creation, application, and originality of the knowledge base. This idea is in line with higher education institutions' expert faculty members who enhance

knowledge. In order to increase productivity and profitability, effective knowledge management also requires keeping hold of knowledgeable personnel (Bergerson, 2003). In order to successfully adopt KM, management must be aware of the organisation's requirements, have a clear understanding of its future, and be knowledgeable about the technologies that can help the KM process be in line with the organisation's business requirements and previous experiences (Bergerson, 2003).

All employees are given access to the organisation's collective memory as part of KM's mission to support the development of learning organisations. The result encourages advancements on both an individual and organisational level. Utilising expertise is a crucial component of knowledge exchange and interaction, which is advantageous for those who seek out the counsel of more knowledgeable co-workers. The benefits of knowledge reuse are also long-lasting, highlighting the need for reliable systems to properly employ knowledge (Frappaolo, 2006).

Knowledge Management in Higher Education Institution

Higher education is still a relatively young field for knowledge management, and its potential applications are only now being investigated. However, higher education institutions have a tremendous opportunity to succeed in their operational goals and objectives by engaging in programmes that promote knowledge sharing (Aranganathan & Lakshmi, 2010; Kidwell, Vander Linde & Johnson, 2000). However, KM is a newly emerging area of study within the academic environment (Dhamdhere, 2015). Bhusry et al. (2011) previously suggest that KM is a strategy used by higher education institutions (HEIs) to turn learning into a resource that helps many people. The

necessity of adopting knowledge management strategies in higher education is on par with that of the corporate world. When carried out well, it can result in improved decision-making abilities, shorter development of products cycles, such as development of curricula and research, that enhances academic and administrative services, as well as lower costs (Rowley, 2000).

The main institutions in society for the ongoing quest of knowledge are universities. Sallis and Jones (2002) highlighted that KM in education can be considered as a tool that provides educational organisation managers and employees with insights into the expanding field of KM, enabling them to successfully answer the needs of the knowledge-driven era. Adhikari (2010) provides a definition of KM for educational institutes as "the organised and systematic process of generating and disseminating information, and selecting, distilling, and deploying explicit and tacit knowledge to create unique value that can be used to enhance and enrich the teaching-learning environment" (p. 99). KM, used in the educational field, is characterised as a collection of methodologies that help institutions improve their administrative, research, and teaching operations as well as using and sharing of data and information to speed up decision-making processes (Petrides & Nodine, 2003). In educational institutions, KM covers a variety of topics, such as fostering relationships between people like students, teachers, researchers, and outside parties from the business and industrial sectors while incorporating process technologies. Additionally, it is concerned with how firms develop strategies and put into practice routines that facilitate and support the management, application, and sharing of knowledge across various stakeholders (Yeh, 2005).

KM practices have a considerable impact on how institutions operate, communicate, and innovate, and the value of KM may differ depending on the size of the organisation (Mosoti & Masheka, 2010). KM practice is vital in increasing the quality of instruction and learning at all academic levels. Kim (1999) previously emphasised that rather than concentrating simply on explicit knowledge, the foundation of KM practices lay in collecting tacit knowledge that people possess, what they contribute, and what they acquire from their experiences. KM in higher education institutions can be distinguished from two perspectives (Yeh, 2011; Yeh, 2005). KM's perspectives are academic and organisational knowledge (Yeh, 2011; Kok, 2007; Coukos-Semmel, 2003). Kok (2007) explains that academic knowledge results from the educational and instructional activities that are central to universities' mission. Institutions can significantly improve sharing of academic knowledge, including explicit and implicit forms, by adopting a comprehensive approach to KM practices. Organisational knowledge, in contrast, refers to a more comprehensive comprehension of an institution's operations, including its strategies, key success factors, and partnerships with research centers.

According to Amin (2006), the increasingly competitive business environment has caused universities to develop a worldview that is comparable to that of commercial enterprises. Global educational marketplaces are also growing concurrently (Zwain, Teong, & Othman, 2012). Given this fact, academic institutions' capacity to adapt and manage changes and improvements is crucial to their ability to compete and maintain operations. (Zwain, Teong & Othman, 2012).

Nevertheless, effective KM involves the identification of knowledge sources in a centralised manner, facilitating its networking and sharing with others, thereby exponentially increasing its utility. Thus, the consistent practice of KM within an institution is essential to capture, document, and safeguard the generated knowledge for future utilisation.

Importance of Knowledge Management in Higher Education Institutions

KM assists educational organisations, recognising the value and significance of both knowledge creation and sharing, appreciating their inherent benefits and value to enhance teaching and learning (Zwain, Teong & Othman, 2012). In the HEIs context, Kidwell et al. (2000) recognised knowledge management as providing substantial advantages within a higher education setting, including curriculum development, student and alumni services, operational administration, and strategic business planning. They added that using KM in higher education will directly benefit academic achievements. Bhusry et al. (2011) forced educational institutions to acknowledge the necessity of implementing knowledge management initiatives, as they stand as pivotal assets for growth and advancement.

Kalkan (2017) in his study explains that Knowledge management activities are essential for helping HEIs develop and improve modern teaching materials while also amplifying and utilising the impact of scientific research and faculty members' innovation. Dhamdhere (2015) in his study also discusses some advantages of KM to HEIs. The researcher said with the use of KM, educational institutions may better acquire and share information and knowledge, which can then be used to solve problems and advance ongoing research for continuous improvement. Additionally, the educational system's

knowledge management incorporates and reflects information from all levels, from administrative to student, improving employee competence and encouraging excellence in teachers as well as students.

By creating a network as a dynamic platform for interaction, KM also provides the most effective mechanism for sharing effective methods, models, ideas, and practices. This ensures the seamless flow of knowledge and supports innovation and progress. Knowledge, ideas, and best practices can be transferred through the sharing of information and knowledge among networks, for example, through newsletters, gatherings, seminars, and symposiums. Researchers, faculty specialists, and students continually broaden the field of knowledge in educational institutions by developing fresh ideas. Additionally, faculty members might work together by investing in common resources together.

Processes of Knowledge management

Skyrme (1998) mentions that the activities of knowledge creation, discovery, sharing, learning, and organisation are all included in knowledge management. To identify the crucial facets or dimensions of KM processes, numerous research has probed these processes. According to Lee and Yang (2000), acquisition, invention, protection, integration, and distribution are included in these factors. Gold, Malhotra and Segars (2001) also identify the stages of KM: acquisition, conversion, usage and security. To Kalling (2003), the KM process comprises the development, utilisation, and capitalisation. The following four knowledge management processes were identified by Clark

(2004), knowledge creation, knowledge organisation, knowledge transfer, and knowledge utitlisation, whiles Lee, Lee and Kang (2005) also indicate that KM processes as creation, accumulation, sharing, utilisation, and internalisation. Kiessling, Richey, and MengandDabic (2009) also look at KM processes from identification, collection, organising, storage, sharing, and evaluation point of view.

As a structured process for the conception, acquisition, arrangement, retention, dissemination, and use of knowledge, Ramachandran, Siong, and Ismail (2009) discovered six typical KM procedures for HEIs. Sharma, Chia, Choo and Samuel (2010) also give six similar KM processes for HEIs: create, capture, organise, store, search, and transfer. Ojo (2016) likewise recognised five knowledge management procedures that apply to HEIs: identification, archiving, sharing, implementing, and evaluating. To Kumaravel and Vikkraman (2018), KM offers a methodical procedure to encourage acquisition, creation, transfer, and use of knowledge among HEIs.

According to Davenport and Prusak (2000), knowledge creation, codification, and knowledge sharing are the three core processes that must be successfully carried out by any business aiming to excel at KM. Davenport and Prusak (2000) offer the idea that there are five different ways to generate knowledge: through knowledge acquisition, resource allocation, information fusion, insight adaptation, and knowledge network construction. These authors go on to explain that the process of knowledge codification entails organising knowledge in a codified form that is, explicit, transferable, and simple to comprehend. Davenport and Prusak (2000) explain that informal dialogues are the primary medium via which knowledge is exchanged and sharing in terms

of the knowledge transfer procedure. As a result, places like open forums, discussion forums, and knowledge fairs all become significant as crucial forums for exchanging both organised and unstructured knowledge. Based on the literature reviewed and how these researchers have grouped KM processes, I have conceptualised my study to induce two main KM processes. They are sharing and utilisation of knowledge in HEI.

Knowledge Sharing

Given that knowledge is a crucial component in determining both individual and societal well-being, Knowledge Sharing (KS) has become very significant phenomena on a global scale (Kurti & onlagi, 2012). Knowledge is steadily transmitted from the earliest stages of life through their conclusion, whether through parental direction or contextual interactions being it verbal learning or the development of practical skills. This clearly illustrates that knowledge is a part of humanity's collective heritage (Adamseged & Hong, 2018). Srinivas (2016) highlights the fact that knowledge sharing is a crucial component of KM, encapsulating a complex lifecycle that includes several stages, from knowledge generation and organisation through the final stages of knowledge sharing and usage.

A quality of the intellect of people is knowledge, which is distinct from merely information and is fundamental to the development of personal identity. Knowledge sharing is defined by Davenport (1997) as an intentional action taken by a participant in the knowledge sharing process, even in the absence of any required commitment. Knowledge sharing is defined by Bock and Kim (2002) as a means of social contact that takes place between people. Ipe (2003) defined knowledge sharing as the proactive transfer of providing

knowledge to others within an organisation. Knowledge sharing is further defined by Turban, Mclean, and Wetherbe (2004) as the intentional conveyance of one person's concepts, understandings, solutions, and knowledge to another person or group of people, either through direct interaction or intermediaries like computer-based systems. According to Maponya (2005), knowledge sharing is the sharing of individual thoughts, experiences, and knowledge with others in order to increase accessibility through establishing connections or networks between various people or organisations operating inside a certain network, community, or organisation. This proves that knowledge sharing can be advantageous for both parties involved, whether directly or indirectly.

According to Frappaolo (2006), knowledge sharing is centred on the ways that people communicate and use the knowledge they have learned. Additionally, Tasmin and Woods (2007) state that the sociocultural environment created by knowledge sharing encourages fusion and cooperation and is frequently made possible by technology. Accordingly, knowledge sharing entails the transfer of information and knowledge from one source (an individual, a group, or an organisation) to another (Fugate, Theodore & Mentzer, 2009; Liao & Wu, 2009; Lee, Lee & Kang, 2005). Daud and Sohail, (2009) in addition state that, knowledge sharing can be referred to as the sharing of experiences, occasions, thoughts, or insights in an effort to get a more profound comprehension of a subject out of passing interest. Nevertheless, sharing of knowledge can occur in a variety of contexts, including meetings, training sessions, team-building activities, written reports,

performance reviews, and established programmes where staff members offer suggestions (Chigadal & Ngulube, 2015).

Chikono (2018) explains that the process by which one person transfers their knowledge to another and transforms it into a form that is understandable, assimilable, and usable by others is known as Knowledge Sharing (KS). The word "sharing" indicates that the process of converting a person's unique knowledge into a form that is understandable to others requires a conscious effort on the part of the knowledge possessor. The researchers further explained that this intentional behaviour implies that the person is driven by a compassionate desire to provide. Due to this, one could argue that the premise assumes knowledge sharing to be an activity that is always voluntary. Though knowledge sharing is rooted in voluntary intent, it is important to note that it is also influenced by a range of intrinsic and extrinsic elements, including knowledge, self-efficacy, trust, and the satisfaction that comes from helping others. These extrinsic factors include organisational rewards, codification initiatives, reputation, and reciprocity. Personality traits, intrinsic incentives, and social capital are just a few examples of the individual-level elements that work together to influence knowledge sharing at the organisational level (technical, creative, competition and fair).

However, according to Hussain, Lucas, and Ali (2004) and Davenport & Prusak (2000), KS assumes a dynamic between at least two entities, one of which has the knowledge and the other of which is acquiring it. According to Dalkir (2005), knowledge sharing happens when people voluntarily work together. This mutual KS could result in the development of fresh insights,

which could become a significant source of competitive advantage. Davenport and Klahr (1998) argue that if someone thinks their knowledge is useful and important, they could be reluctant to share it. Employees may decide to withhold or share knowledge, according to their assessment of the related advantages and costs, Samieh and Wahba (2007) concur, even in the absence of clearly stated organisational rules for doing so. Personal feelings and concerns, such as familiarity with the recipient, frequently have an effect on people's decisions to participate in knowledge sharing (Dignum & van Eijk, 2005).

Hence, a university provides a forum for scholars to discuss various viewpoints and ideas (Martin & Marion, 2005). Given that academic institutions serve as archives of knowledge sharing, many academics have emphasised that sharing knowledge is an inherent role of these organisations (Hussein & Nassuora, 2011). According to Jones and Sallis (2013), academics engage in university-centric activities including teaching and research, assuming the role of skilled knowledge workers. The knowledge of academics is viewed as a significant resource and a benefit for institutions in this approach. By doing research, educating students through educational activities, and working with businesses to develop practical applications, academics contribute to the landscape of knowledge (Fullwood & Rowley, 2017). For knowledge management initiatives to be effective and for teaching and research outcomes to be improved, lecturers' participation in knowledge sharing initiatives is crucial (Fullwood, Rowley, & McLean, 2018; Kim & Ju, 2008).

Simply said, if universities ignore their responsibility to share knowledge, they will be forced to close. It is essential for higher education sector to acknowledge this role and ensure that it is fully realised (Adamseged & Hong, 2018). According to Gbollie and David (2014), higher education is already largely acknowledged as a key accelerator for socioeconomic advancement, sustainable development, and competitive advantage. Adamseged and Hong (2018) assert that a university is not a monolithic entity. Instead, those who have benefited from knowledge sharing and are still doing so develop, run, and operate higher education institutions. However, university lecturers in higher education must be fully equipped, ready, and driven to impart knowledge if they are to properly fulfil their job of developing the intellect of others achieved through knowledge sharing.

Importance of Knowledge Sharing among University Lecturers

Hussein and Nassuora (2011) assert that KM integrates three essential organisational resources: individuals, systems and technologies. This combination enables organisation to effectively use and share knowledge. According to Adamseged and Hong (2018), higher education should understand the critical importance of giving its lecturers the tools they need to work more effectively since it serves as a catalyst for knowledge transfer. The reasons why sharing knowledge is of the utmost importance to university lecturers are clarified by the following considerations.

KS is a core responsibility of HEIs lecturers. It is crucial for higher education lecturers to engage in knowledge sharing since knowledge is intrinsically dynamic and constantly changing as a result of variables including technological improvements, evolutionary changes, climate changes,

and innovation. They are better able to keep up with new knowledge due to this collaborative approach, which also ensures that they are ready to share it with students, the local community, and the world. Secondly, KS is also a knowledge preserved. The reason being that systems must exist to protect new knowledge from becoming obsolete given the constantly changing nature of human conditions. Without such safeguards, knowledge can vanish into obscurity. Take into account, for example, the yearly practise of lecturers from various departments delivering papers that present new concepts or advance current knowledge, motivated by particular requirements. University lecturers have a responsibility to actively foster and preserve this knowledge in order to benefit society before it is lost. When a university lecturer retires, resigns, or passes away, the proactive strategy ensures seamless continuance.

Moreover, KS is an important driver to promote personal development. University instructors must engage in knowledge and experience sharing for their mutual benefit and the improvement of the institution, despite the fact that individuals may come from different backgrounds and have different talents. Therefore, it is essential for university lecturers to work together to share knowledge if they wish to advance their careers. Sharing of knowledge among coworkers is a powerful instrument for promoting personal growth. Teaching or sharing knowledge strengthens one's understanding while also advancing one's own knowledge.

Once more, KS is improving learning's accessibility and convenience. University lecturers should actively participate in sharing their experiences and working to increase collective efficacy in order to ensure a smooth experience of knowledge sharing. This strategy is crucial for creating a more

welcoming and cooperative working atmosphere that promotes cooperation and enjoyment. In essence, lecturer can easily rely on one another and utilise the existing knowledge base, supporting the overarching objective of tertiary education. The goal of making education convenient and approachable for students must come from those who are in charge of delivering it because the standard of education that students receive is directly influenced by how well-prepared they are.

Furthermore, speaking a common language among lecturers helps to promote unity and collaboration. When university lecturers work together, they are stronger, collaborate more effectively, and provide better results. They are far more likely to be able to align their viewpoints when they cooperate and work harmoniously, which will lessen differences in how knowledge is distributed to students and other stakeholders. The combination of various contributions and areas of knowledge can greatly help institutions advance, which will ultimately improve the general standard of higher education for students.

Last but not least, KS is also important in identifying gaps and opportunities. As university lecturers are willing to share their knowledge, the possibility of their development is greatly increased. Additionally, through these discussions, lecturers obtain a thorough understanding of study areas that have not yet been thoroughly investigated, revealing areas where additional research or new concepts are worthwhile exploring. Additionally, it is possible to avoid duplication of effort by identifying knowledge gaps among university lecturers. According to Dhamdhere (2015), it's critical to both create knowledge and put it in a place where it can be easily accessed.

Finally, sharing knowledge makes a substantial provision to the delivery of high-quality university and the advancement of a better world. According to Ogbodo, Efanga, and Ikpe (2013), higher education is crucial in balancing societal, economic, and environmental advancement while also improving people's quality of life. Effective knowledge sharing methods among university instructors, who serve as the executors of university aims, greatly assist in achieving this.

Knowledge Sharing Behaviour

Different researchers have defined knowledge sharing in several ways but in similar ways. In general, KS has been characterised as the proactive action taken by people to make their knowledge accessible to others within a company (Ipe, 2003). Similar to this, Bartol and Srivastava (2002) define knowledge sharing as the act of transferring information, concepts, advice, and specialised knowledge that is pertinent to an organisation. Accordingly, Ryu, Ho, and Han's (2003) definition of knowledge sharing as the practice of communicating one's acquired knowledge to others within an organisation is consistent with this. According to Evans (2012), to better understand KS in research, three important conditions must be considered for effective knowledge sharing behaviour. First, the knowledge provider must first show a willingness to share their knowledge for efficient sharing of knowledge to occur. Second, for knowledge sharing to be successful, the knowledge recipient must also be receptive to receiving and using the shared knowledge. Finally, for knowledge sharing to be effective and helpful for the recipient's job or the institution as a whole, they must acknowledge and understand the shared knowledge.

Since both sides must voluntarily participate for effective knowledge sharing to occur, these requirements are of the utmost significance. When someone is requested to offer their knowledge, they commit their time without any assurance of compensation or acknowledgement. Thus, the knowledge recipient may demonstrate the transformation of knowledge through their deeds (Duguid, 2005). It becomes difficult to determine if knowledge has really been imparted, if the receiver is not participating in specific behaviours. However, it may also be challenging to specify the precise behaviours needed (Wittgenstein, 1953).

The three knowledge sharing circumstances in this study will collectively represent productive knowledge sharing practices. However, strictly speaking, these conditions function as post-behavioural outcomes (such as perceived usefulness) and behavioural precursors (such as willingness or intents), not behaviours per se.

Knowledge Utilisation

Accordingly, employees do not share knowledge because they think that when knowledge is kept for one's own use, one feels empowered, but when knowledge is shared, one may feel powerless. However, “knowledge cannot be regarded as a source of power when left unused” (Murray, 2007, p.19). According to Chen and Mohamed (2007), the intensity of knowledge acquisition and utilisation activities has a direct bearing on the size of institutional knowledge. This encourages the development and usage of new tacit knowledge that boosts organisational effectiveness. Knowledge Utilisation (KU) is acknowledged to include a part that involves learning and to intersect with the process of knowledge growth (Kalling, 2003). This

utilisation process is further strengthened by using knowledge management tools and strategies to harness both tacit and explicit knowledge is significant for improving different industries' management (Lierni, 2004). Effective knowledge utilisation, according to Davenport and Klahr (1998), has the capacity to lower expenses while improving operational performance for a business. The enhancement and development of diverse activities as a result of knowledge application leads to increased work efficiency (Kalling, 2003). Utilising knowledge in real-world contexts involves applying it practically (Chen & Mohamed, 2010; Fong & Choi, 2009; Gold et al., 2001). Successful knowledge transformation is applied to improve organisational performance.

Institutions seeking to effectively utilise KM for achieving these benefits must have a dedicated KM leader. Strong KM strategies should be adaptive enough to work well in changing environments and should be able to evolve through time (Newman, 2006).

Benefits of Knowledge Utilisation

The utilisation of KM has a lot of benefits. As an innovation accelerator, it has the potential to significantly boost society's overall economic development (Jaime, Gardoni, Mosca, & Vinck, 2006). Furthermore, it enables the enhancement of the decision-making process, which enables more effective execution. Additionally, it equips workers with thorough knowledge of both their own and their coworkers' tasks, enabling them to suggest higher-quality initiatives based on greater awareness and experience. The connection between knowledge management activities and various stages of the decision-making process is examined by Jones (2006).

His research demonstrates that the relationship results in choices that reflected increased competitive ability with other institutions.

Empirical Review

This section reviews some of the previous studies relating to current research. The review is done in the sections relating to the objectives of the study.

Lecturers' Willingness to Share and Use Knowledge

Willingness to share and use knowledge among employees has gained attention in the literature. This is more particular for lecturers in higher education institutions. Some of the studies conducted on this subject are reviewed in this section. In Malaysia, Nordin, Daud and Osman (2012) examined the level of knowledge sharing behaviour among university lecturers (N = 400). The research used a survey approach, and the data was collected from 200 randomly sampled lecturers through a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. The mean scores indicated that lecturers' level of knowledge sharing was high. This was chiefly influenced by perceived behavioural control. Thus the high resources possessed by the lecturers impacted their willingness to share.

In a similar research in Malaysia, Skaik and Othman (2014) investigated the knowledge sharing behaviour of lecturers. A cross-sectional web-based survey was utilised to gather data from 321 lecturers using a questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale. The study discovered that the intention (willingness) to share knowledge with peers is significantly influenced by the knowledge sharing behaviours of lecturers. Lecturers were willing to tell colleagues new things learnt, ask colleagues about certain

knowledge needed and exchange knowledge and understanding acquired through teamwork with colleagues.

In Iraq, Abbas (2017) aims to assess lecturers' knowledge sharing behaviour. A survey design was used in gathering responses from 326 lecturers through a questionnaire with a four-point Likert scale. The mean scores were between 1.7 to 4.7, indicating that the level of lecturers sharing knowledge is high. In contrast, the range of the standard deviation was 0.64 to 1.72, confirming that lecturers agreed to the intention (willingness) influencing knowledge sharing behaviour. The study utilised a one-way ANOVA test to reveal differences in knowledge-sharing behaviour among age groups and positions of lecturers. An independent sample t-test used in comparing female and male lecturers' revealed an insignificant level for the group, confirming that there is no bias in knowledge sharing among lecturers.

In Toronto, Evans (2012) examined the knowledge sharing behaviour of employees in institutions. The research gathered quantitative data from 275 participants in a web-based survey with a five-point Likert scale questionnaire. Descriptive survey utilised indicated that the composite score for mean was high. At the same time, a group of respondents agreed on the willingness to share and utilise knowledge, as well as the perceived benefits of knowledge acquisition.

Another study in Malaysia by Abdur-Rafiu and Opesade (2015) investigated academics in all departments of the five faculties in the Polytechnic of Ibadan. A descriptive survey was conducted on 346 lecturers, of which 235questionnairese were returned, and the descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data collected. The results of the study

indicated a strong relationship between academics' intentions to share knowledge and their actual behavior of sharing knowledge. This highlights that academics within the Polytechnic demonstrated a willingness to share knowledge related to their work.

In Netherland, Hooff and Hendrix (2004) examined the willingness to actively engage in knowledge sharing. The research was based on a survey in which 488 respondents responded to questionnaire using a five-point Likert scale. Data were collected from 103 respondents and were analysed with descriptive statistics. The composite score for the mean was high, indicating that respondents were willing to learn from colleagues, help colleagues and share ideas they have with colleagues.

Given the importance of knowledge sharing in the academic setting, it is crucial to encourage this behaviour by inspiring people to willingly and actively share their expertise with others and contribute to the total knowledge repository of the organisation. In Malaysia, Omar and Adruce (2017) explored a collection of articles that evaluate how demographic characteristics affect academics' knowledge sharing behaviour. The study was conducted by thoroughly reviewing a compilation of published literature.

The study reveals that every individual's intention was subjected to their qualities, as well as the context or environment to which the person is attached or affiliated. The study prompted individuals to oblige to sharing of knowledge. Hence, academicians carried out their responsibilities as knowledge contributors, which included sharing and exchanging knowledge via written contributions, organisational communication, interpersonal interactions, and active participation in community of practice activities.

In Africa, there have been similar studies. For instance, Clement and Olatokun (2020) examined a group of academics in the University of Ibadan, in Oyo State, Nigeria, who practise tacit Knowledge Sharing (KS). A case study research design was used, and interview data were gathered from 31 lecturers at the University of Ibadan using purposive sampling. The data were analysed using Nvivo 12. From their results, it was shown that among lecturers, there was a tradition of knowledge sharing. Lecturers shared knowledge with their colleagues through conversations with others, personal contacts, and involvement in seminars. The knowledge sharing culture was generally influenced by their willingness to share.

Similarly, Eiriemiokhale and Idiedo (2020) investigated knowledge sharing practices among lecturers in Nigerian Universities. The study used the descriptive survey design and gathered data from 217 lecturers at Kwara State University using simple random sampling technique. A questionnaire was used to collect data, which was then examined using frequencies and percentages. The research showed lecturers perceived knowledge sharing to be positive with many benefits. Due to this, the study's lecturers showed great willingness to use the knowledge shared. The researchers recommended, among other things, that university authorities carry out knowledge-sharing campaigns (seminars and workshops) to get more and more lecturers enthused and interested in knowledge sharing.

Matins and Marion (2005) also revealed that universities are fundamental to the conduct of research, the facilitation of instruction, and the promotion of educational activities. Given that lecturers are essential members of the knowledge-based society; they therefore recognise the value of

continual knowledge sharing among their colleagues. Matins and Marion added that lecturers also used the knowledge shared with them by their colleagues.

Generally, it is evident in the literature that most lecturers have a way of life that encourages sharing and use of shared knowledge. The willingness to share frequently influences knowledge sharing behaviours.

Benefits of Knowledge Sharing among Lecturers

The benefits that result from knowledge being shared among lecturers in universities have been researched in the literature, albeit not much. Chinyere and Nwanosike (2018) examined knowledge synergy or creation process within a group of lecturers at Rivers State's public universities, Nigeria. The research was descriptive, sampling 746 lecturers using stratified random sampling procedure. Data were gathered using "Knowledge Synergy among Lecturers in Public Universities Questionnaire (KSLPUQ)" and analysed with the help of statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and z-test. The findings indicated that knowledge sharing and synergy were common among the lecturers and that most lecturers found knowledge creation and sharing beneficial in improving their knowledge and skills.

Similarly, Agbuigui (2014) investigated of academic staff's collaborative knowledge efforts to improve the standard of education delivery in universities located in the South-South region of Nigeria revealed that, effective cooperation, dialogue, coordination, and knowledge sharing among faculty members had a significant impact on the improvement of education quality. Lecturers understood that sharing knowledge not only helped them

personally but also increased their general competency by enhancing their already-existing knowledge base in performing their expected obligations.

In support of the view that knowledge sharing is beneficial, Yang (2007) reports when knowledge is shared, it is valued, which improves organisational efficiency, creativity, decision-making skills, and staff behavioural improvements. In the end, this approach results in the creation of new competencies, best practices, and general organisational progress. Joseph and Jacob (2011) also discovered the anticipation of receiving something in return encourages good attitudes towards knowledge sharing, promoting a sense of reciprocity relationships and advantages. Thus, the likelihood that lecturers will participate in sharing knowledge increases with perceived benefit and increases with comprehension level. Clement and Olatokun's (2020) study was conducted by a group of lecturers at the University of Ibadan, Oyo State, Nigeria, also showed that lecturers found knowledge sharing beneficial.

Further, Chaudhry and Sivakamasundari (2004) explored how school teachers share their knowledge, experiences and ideas. Data were gathered using an interview guide. The data revealed that the teachers perceived knowledge sharing as a means to expand and improve their knowledge. Most teachers shared their knowledge regardless of the challenges they encountered. By coordinating education and research efforts, universities act as the key centers for knowledge generation and management within each country, making contributions that are significant to the growth of a knowledge-based economy (Bock, Zmud, Kim & Lee, 2005). Therefore, knowledge sharing within universities comes along with several benefits. Also, universities

provide a platform for teamwork among these persons by establishing a setting that stimulates the cooperative knowledge sharing and skill bearers, increasing production through the sharing of information (Kim & Stanton, 2016).

From the evidence in the literature, it is evident that knowledge sharing is deemed beneficial in so many respects. The benefits are for the individual lecturers and the entire university.

Demographic Variables and Willingness to Share and Use Shared Knowledge

The demographic variables considered in this research include age, sex and ranking of employees. These variables are studied regarding their connection with lecturers' willingness to share and use shared knowledge. Regarding age, the study of Clement and Olatokun (2020) revealed that because knowledge sharing was important, all lecturers were willing to share knowledge whether they were old or young. This means that the age difference was insignificant regarding knowledge sharing among lecturers. Another study in Malaysia by Abdur-Rafiu and Opesade (2015) investigate academics in all departments of the five faculties in the Polytechnic of Ibadan. It reveals that the notable significance of academics' willingness to share knowledge significantly predicted their actual knowledge sharing behaviour, which did not vary based on age.

Srivastava and Pradhan (2019) conducted a descriptive study to investigate the relationship between age and KS behaviour among engineering lecturers in the five eastern states of India. Data were gathered using convenience sampling through an online survey. Descriptive and correlational analysis revealed that knowledge sharing and usage were unrelated to age.

Mogotsi et al. (2011) also shows that knowledge sharing and use did not vary based on age. Lou, Yang, Shih and Tseng (2007) examined knowledge sharing behaviours among management lecturers of Technological Universities in Southern Taiwan. It was discovered that all lecturers were willing to use the knowledge received and that their ages did not matter. Hasnain (2013) also adds that it is unclear how age affects knowledge use and sharing. For instance, age and knowledge sharing behaviours did not appear to be significantly correlated, according to Mogotsi (2009). Ismail and Yusof (2009) make a similar claim, claiming that demographic differences do not appear to have a substantial impact on sharing of knowledge behaviour.

Regarding sex, there have been a variety of findings. Marouf (2015) investigated whether employees' opinions of the organisational culture of sharing knowledge vary according to their demographic traits and whether there are interactions between various demographic traits. The researcher utilised a questionnaire in this survey and collected data from 500 respondents, with only 386 being usable data. The results showed that these organisations knowledge sharing cultures showed relationships with things including job role, tenure, age, and whether or not one works in the public or private sector. The study revealed, however, the attitudes towards knowledge sharing were virtually the same amongst male and female employees. Thus, no significant sex difference was discovered regarding the practice of KS.

The study of Mogotsi, Boon and Fletcher (2011) revealed no statistically significant relationship between knowledge sharing behaviour and sex. Badawy and Magdy (2015) also found that using knowledge did not depend on the sex of the lecturers involved. They believed that all lecturers

and academicians used the knowledge they received from their colleagues regardless of their sex.

Similarly, Darvish, Ahmadnia and Qryshan (2013) revealed that male and female employees utilised knowledge at the same level in the workplace. Their willingness toward, sharing and using were not significantly different. Hasnain (2013) also found that, there were no statistically significant differences in the participation of men and women in knowledge management activities, including knowledge sharing and utilisation. From all these studies and the current study, it is clear that sex difference does not exist in using shared knowledge in institutions.

Some previous studies have sex differences in knowledge sharing behaviour. For instance, Razi, Karim and Mohamed (2014) examined the moderating effects of demographic characteristics among an organisation's members on knowledge development, management, and sharing in Sri Lanka. Using a questionnaire, data were gathered from 313 staff members. The results revealed, among other things, that sex was a key factor in employees' willingness toward knowledge management, creation and sharing. Similarly, Ma and Yuen (2011) investigated the motivating factors, particularly sex, that motivate KS among individuals within academia in Hong Kong. The findings showed that sex differences existed in relation to knowledge sharing. Specifically, males were more willing to share knowledge than female participants.

In addition, Akosile and Olatokun (2019) examined at Bowen University in Nigeria the elements that affect academic sharing of knowledge. Using a questionnaire, the researchers gathered data from 151 participants.

Using descriptive statistics, Chi-square analysis and Logistic regression, the study revealed, within the group of other things, that sex significantly influences knowledge sharing and using. Lin (2006) also found that females demonstrated a higher likelihood of engaging in both sharing and using knowledge compared to males. In Ghana, Boateng, Dzandu, and Agyemang (2015) revealed that, demographic variables were not highlighted as influencing knowledge sharing. It did note, however, that attitudes towards knowledge sharing and utilisation among employees varied between the sexes. The study showed that, in comparison to their female counterparts, men lecturers were more active in utilising and sharing knowledge.

From the foregoing discussion, it appears that there are inconsistent findings regarding the place of sex in the use of shared knowledge. Tohidinia and Mosakhani (2010) report showed that knowledge management, sharing, and use are not reliably predicted by sex or other individual variables.

Finally, in terms of lecturers' ranking, some studies have assessed how their ranking is connected to KS and usage among lecturers. The research by Lawal, Oriogu, and Ogbuiyi (2017) investigated the effect of demographic characteristics on researchers' practices of sharing knowledge inside certain research organisations in Oyo state, Nigeria. Using a survey approach and the census technique, 440 researchers from the four chosen research institutes in Ibadan Nigeria, were involved in the study. The findings revealed that knowledge sharing was related to the rank of the respondents at the .05 significant level.

Pangil and Nasrudin (2008) examined how demographic variables influenced knowledge sharing and use in institutions and revealed that the

level of occupational rank and experience had no bearing on knowledge sharing and utilisation. Similarly, Keyes (2008) shows that the level or ranking of lecturers was not influential regarding the use of shared knowledge. Gumus (2007) also added that employees' tenure within the organisation did not affect knowledge sharing and usage.

In contrast to these studies, some studies found that the use of shared knowledge varied based on ranking. For instance, Shaari, Rajab and Rahman (2014) found that depending on their position or status, academics' attitudes on knowledge sharing and usage differ. The contradiction could be due to contextual differences among the various studies. Generally, however, in this study, it remains clear that lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge did not differ based on their ranks.

Conceptual Framework

The study's conceptual framework employs many factors taken from literature within the study. This framework examines the differences between lecturers' demographics and their knowledge sharing (knowledge sharing behaviour) within an institution.

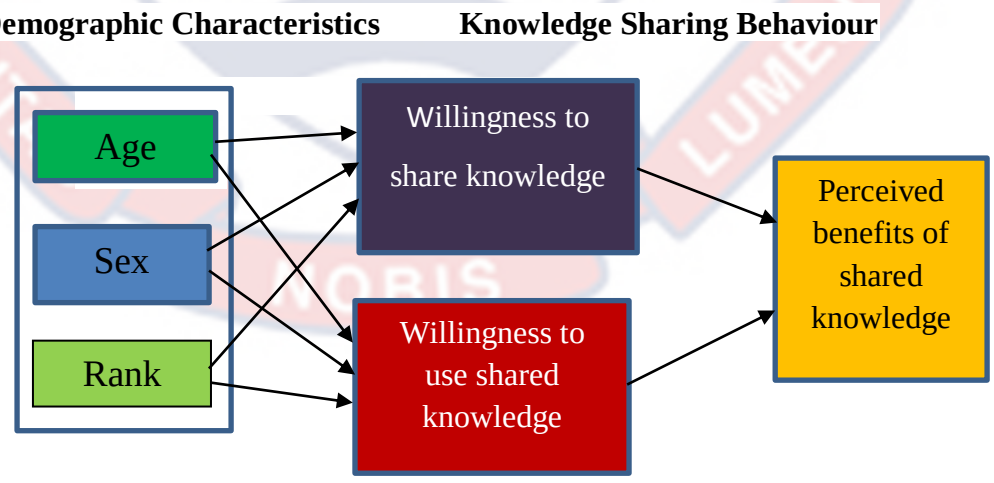

Figure 2: Conceptual Framework of the Study

Source: Fieldwork data (2020)

Knowledge sharing behaviour conceptual framework (Figure 2) underlines three essential behavioural requirements for encouraging efficient knowledge sharing behaviour. First and foremost, the knowledge provider needs be willing to share their knowledge (also known as "willingness to share knowledge"). Second, the recipient of the knowledge need to be receptive to receiving and using the shared knowledge (that is, "willingness to use knowledge"). Finally, the recipient need to view the shared knowledge as beneficial to their career goals, including work, research, teaching, and institutional concerns (the "perceived benefits of shared knowledge"). Additionally, the willingness to use and impart knowledge is further divided into categories that include explicit and tacit knowledge. However, the framework studies the difference between lecturers' demographic characteristics (age, sex and rank) and their KSB within an institution.

Firstly, from the demographic perspective, it appears that the age of lecturers within a particular group influences their KS in their willingness to share and use knowledge. Lecturers with experience in knowledge acquisition encounter challenges in sharing knowledge and do not use the shared knowledge with other lecturers from different age groups. Moreover, the aged lecturers also see it unnecessary to use some shared knowledge because they might not need it since they have experience and are grown enough to utilise such knowledge. However, Ojha (2005) and Riege (2005) research findings suggested the results back up a theoretical framework by showing that teams with more age compatibility are more likely to share knowledge effectively. Age differences therefore tend to prevent the transfer of knowledge. Additionally, elderly lecturers may exhibit technology aversion or experience

nervousness when working with younger lecturers who they view as rivals. Furthermore, both researchers established that it is conceivable that age differences may restrict the exchange of knowledge. According to Ojha (2005), disparities can be explained by the observation that people their own age naturally form groups and interact with one another more freely than persons from one age group to another.

However, the older lecturers who have enough knowledge about issues or information should be able to collaborate with the younger lecturers; this can be done through employing utilising platforms like social media, email, text messaging, and web portals has become crucial for efficiently sharing knowledge to various demand regions. Sharing of knowledge by lecturers among themselves can also be done through personal experiences, seminars, conferences, team-building exercises, motivation within the institution and appraisal of performance which elicits suggestions from colleagues within the institution.

Looking at the sex of lecturers in terms of their willingness to share knowledge, it appears primarily female lecturers are the ones that find it difficult to share knowledge acquired from them. According to Linek, Fecher, Friesike and Hebing (2017), regarding the willingness to share knowledge between sexes, it has been found that females are less willing than males. Connelly and Kelloway (2003) illustrations of this idea include the following: "If knowledge sharing tends to happen primarily among friends, and employees are more inclined to become friends with those who are similar to them (such as those of the same sex), it suggests that employees of a minority sex may be less inclined to freely share knowledge" (p. 300). Ojha (2005) also

discovered that those who have stronger sex compatibility with their group tend to engage in knowledge sharing activities more frequently.

Sex produces distinctive behaviour patterns and provides insights into both men's and women's social behaviours (Lin, 2008). According to Miller and Karakowsky (2005), men's organisational behaviour attributes are men's perspectives shaped by their tendencies towards individualism, competition, and self-promotion. Men frequently perceive peer learning and feedback as signs of reliance and a handing over of control. They consequently avoid situations requiring knowledge sharing unless they clearly benefit from them, like improved performance and success (Lin, 2006).

Altruism, which includes traits like kindness, empathy, and consideration, is typically displayed to a larger extent in women than in males (Lin, 2008). Given their unique perspective of its benefits, this tendency may lead women to be more willing to engage in knowledge sharing. The importance of knowledge sharing for women includes encouragement and close relationships with peers (Lin, 2006). In contrast to men, they are more inclined to actively seek out and share knowledge (Miller & Karakowsky, 2005). Sex appears to affect knowledge sharing behaviour in this way.

However, universities should set up a system or setting that encourages academics to share their knowledge. They can be inspired to actively participate in knowledge sharing by being encouraged to actively enhance the university's knowledge base with the anticipation of obtaining something as compensation, such as valuable insights (Cheng, Ho, & Lau, 2013). Hence, discrimination among lecturers in terms of sex should be avoided. Still,

lecturers of both sex should rather be encouraged to share knowledge among themselves no matter sex difference and effectively use shared knowledge.

The focus on the rank of lecturers within an institution and their willingness to share and use knowledge is next. Lecturers with similar ranks are mostly experienced and are more inclined to form cooperative relationships (Louch, 2000) and network linkage (Galaskiewicz & Shatin, 1981; Verbrugge, 1977; Laumann, Gagnon, Michael & Michaels, 1994). According to Ojha's (2005) research, those lecturers with greater differences in their hierarchical positions are less inclined to engage in sharing. According to Ojha's (2005) research, people who have greater differences in their hierarchical positions are less likely to share. Variations in educational levels were also mentioned as an obstacle to knowledge sharing.

Shaari, Rajab and Rahman (2014) found differences in academicians' attitudes depending on their hierarchical positions, people have different tendencies regarding sharing knowledge. Differential knowledge sharing behaviours result from differences in professional roles, such as those between professors and lecturers, and may even prevent such behaviours. Senior coworkers and scholars of higher stature are frequently uncomfortable to approach by junior staff. This suggests that the status quo triggers knowledge sharing behaviour difficulty. Additionally, it was found that senior academics exhibited a significant degree of complacency. Because of their gained status and the comfort that comes with it, they do not seem to understand that they have a responsibility to support academic advancement and set an example for knowledge sharing conduct. As a result, younger people prefer to hang out with their peers.

According to Riege's (2005) research, there is a considerable correlation between educational attainment and an individual's propensity to share knowledge. Senior professors frequently decide against sharing their knowledge with people they believe to be novices, possibly classifying them as opportunistic learners (Gammelgaard, Husted & Michailova, 2004). Hence, knowledge should be shared across ranks to promote effective utilisation of the shared knowledge and encourage other lecturers in other ranks to fancy the dissemination of knowledge, whether acquired or shared.

Conclusively, knowledge sharing, if implemented well, would be beneficial for effective KS and KU among university lecturers within an institution. Hence, depending on the demographic differences among lecturers, knowledge should be disseminated equally without discriminating, and the use of shared knowledge should be effective to derive benefits to lecturers within an institution. Knowledge sharing behaviour could elicit benefits especially when a culture is created in which lecturers share and use their knowledge, others will take notice and engage themselves, it could also promote innovation and growth of an institution and also improve decision-making and build on problem-solving in a better way. This proves that benefits of knowledge sharing and usage are seemingly endless. However, shared knowledge should not be hoarded by individual lectures but should rather be utilised and shared to promote personal development among themselves.

Chapter Summary

This chapter of the study focused on most studies that were conducted in other countries in which emphasis was placed on KS in HEIs, the essence of KS and its implementation of KS. However, very few of the literature touched

on lecturers within HEIs. This literature mainly focused on KSB among lecturers in HEIs. The literature's theoretical aspect emphasises the SECI model propounded by Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), that goes along with KM processes in improving KS practices in HEIs. The literature also touched regarding the concept of knowledge, the various classifications of knowledge, and the KM processes. The researcher focused on knowledge sharing and utilisation. The research also looked at the concept of KM in HEI and knowledge sharing among university lecturers. The study concentrated on the KSB and additionally examined at the empirical reviews from other researchers' research endeavours relating to the study. Finally, the researcher constructed a conceptual framework and explained it in detail about KSB.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Overview

This chapter describes the research methods and procedures used to obtain the data for the study. The chapter consists of research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, data collection instrument, test for validity and reliability, data collection procedure, data processing and analysis and the chapter summary.

Research Design

This quantitative research was undertaken using a descriptive cross-sectional survey. The descriptive cross-sectional survey is feasible, reasonably priced, and simple to administer. In descriptive survey, data is gathered to respond to questions about the present situation of a study topic (Gay, 1992). A descriptive cross- sectional survey describes phenomena as they exist: existing procedures, continuing ideas and procedures, observed results, and developing patterns (Best & Kahn, 2007). According to Aggarwal (2008), the descriptive cross- sectional survey aims to gather data regarding current circumstances or events to describe and interpret results. In addition to gathering and structuring data, it also entails analysis, interpretation, comparisons, and the spotting of patterns and connections.

The descriptive cross- sectional survey was employ because it helped determine university lecturers' views about their knowledge sharing behaviour. The descriptive cross- sectional survey assisted the researcher in describing

the present situation in terms of lecturers' willingness to share knowledge and willingness to utilise knowledge and the benefits to be derived.

The descriptive cross- sectional survey assisted in reporting issues the way they are. It is less time-consuming than quantitative experiments. However, the descriptive survey depends on how one understands each remark, one can conclude that anything that one person finds important or good might be seen as inadequate or undesirable by another. As a result, the degree of subjectivity is not acknowledged based on the comments provided by respondents. (Ackroyd & Hughes, 1981). Also, descriptive studies do not help identify the cause behind the described phenomenon. To deal with the weaknesses of the design, the researcher and the supervisors ensured that the instrument for data collection was well-crafted to obtain objective data from the respondents. This helped deal with the subjectivity bias. Also, since the study was not interested in gaining in-depth insight into the reasoning behind the phenomenon studied, the design was suitable.

Population

The population for this study is 117 lecturers at the College of Education Studies of the University of Cape (UCC, College of Education, 2020). The College of Education Studies was considered because studies conducted outside Ghana considered other colleges, such as nursing and business, and not Education related Colleges.

The population helped the researcher to assess KM practice, which is knowledge sharing behaviour among university lecturers. The study result gained from the population responses, helped in applying the KSB to other

colleges and public universities. The result will be used in educating other colleges and universities on the essence of KS.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The College of Education Studies has three faculties and a school. Each faculty has departments, and departments are made up of lecturers. All lecturers within the three faculties sum up to 99, and the school also has a population of 18 lecturers, which were used for the study.

The total of 117 lecturers in the College of Education Studies is not a large population and as such, using all of the 117 lecturers for the study was appropriate. This means that census was used for the study. Census is the method which involves using an entire population for a study without sampling a portion. Census was justified in the study mainly because census is preferred if the population is not large enough to warrant sampling. This approach provides a comprehensive and accurate picture of population, avoiding sampling errors that can occur in smaller sample-based studies.

Since the census method aims to cover the population, it minimises the risk of bias that may arise from selective sampling. Hence, census was used involving all lecturers within the college. Lecturers within the college are seen as knowledge expert in terms of their teaching and research works and as such involving all of them was appropriate.

Data Collection Instrument

To gather data for the study, a questionnaire was used (See Appendix A). The questionnaire was adapted from the instruments of Hooff and Hendrix (2004) and Abdur-Rafiu and Opesade (2015). Their instruments were on

willingness to share knowledge and the benefits of knowledge sharing. In adapting the instruments, the language used was the main thing that was changed. For example, all the statements on the questionnaire were structured in a personalised form to read: "I would…." This was not the case in the original instruments.

The questionnaire was developed in accordance with a review of the literature. A five-point Likert scale: Strongly Agree, Agree, Uncertain, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree was used to construct the questionnaire. The questionnaire instructed the respondents to know what to do, ticking the appropriate responses about the Likert scale statements. The questionnaire was organised into four divisions. Section A comprised the respondent's context data, which had four items: sex, age, department and rank; Section B elicited responses on lecturers' willingness to share knowledge. Section C obtained responses on lecturers' willingness to use the knowledge with five items. Finally, Section D elicited responses on the perceived benefits of shared knowledge to lecturers, which comprised eight items. The questionnaire in all had 22 items.

Out of the 117 questionnaires distributed, 114 completed surveys were submitted. A return rate of 97% was realised after administering the instrument.

Test for Validity and Reliability

The questionnaire was first given to lecturers from the University of Education, Winneba (UEW), for validity. After which, it was finally given to supervisors to determine content validity. The reliability was established

using Cronbach Alpha Co-efficient Alpha. The coefficients are displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: *Reliability Coefficients*

Sections of Questionnaire	Pilot	Actual
Willingness to Share Knowledge	.774	.710
Willingness to Use Knowledge	.899	.723
Perceived Benefits of Shared Knowledge	.794	.827
Composite	.864	.874

Source: Fieldwork (2020)

The reliability coefficients show that the instrument was reliable. This is because all the coefficients were above .70. According to Brown (2002), a Cronbach alpha calculates the percentage of test score variance that may be attributed to true score variance, which is systematic or constant throughout a collection of test results. The range between 00.0 and 1.00 is also conceivable. For instance, if the Cronbach alpha for a set of scores is.90, the test is 90% reliable and as a result, the results are 10% inaccurate (100% - 90% = 10%).

Data Collection Procedures

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the University of Cape Coast was contacted for ethical clearance. After the ethical clearance had been given, it was delivered to the department for an introductory letter (Appendix B)

from the Head of the Department of Business and Social Sciences Education (DoBSSE) at the University of Cape Coast.

In research, to collect information from any institution or social group without first seeking consent from the relevant authorities within the organisation is regarded as unethical (Creswell, 2005). The letter taken was presented to the Provost of the College of Education Studies of the University to get permission to distribute the questionnaire to the lecturers within the college. Moreover, permission was sought from each department's departmental heads and lecturers.

The researcher gained the respondents' consent for data collection by showing the consent form, which clearly explained the study's purpose and ethical issues. The questionnaire was given to the participants, and collected within three weeks because of their busy work schedules.

Data Processing and Analysis

The Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 23 was used to process the data after they had been collected, sorted, and coded. The data were analysed using descriptive (mean and standard deviation) and inferential (independent samples t-test and One-way ANOVA) statistics.

Research Questions One, Two and Three were analysed with mean and standard deviation. The statistical tools were appropriate because the use of the mean needed a composite score from the responses of respondents' to determine whether lecturers' willingness to share knowledge among themselves, desire to use shared knowledge and the viewed benefits among themselves were high, moderate or low. The use of standard deviation is

needed to track the level of homogeneity in the responses, that is, the level to which they agree or disagree.

Hypotheses One, Two, Five and Six were analysed using One-way ANOVA to compare the ages and ranks of university lecturers and to find out the difference between university lecturers' ages and ranks irrespective of their willingness to share knowledge and their willingness to utilise the shared knowledge. Hypotheses Three and Four were analysed through independent samples t-test to determine the distinctions in lecturers' desire to share knowledge and willingness to use shared knowledge at the University of Cape Coast based on sex.

Chapter Summary

This chapter outlines the methods used to carry out the study. The research employed a descriptive cross- sectional survey design. The research was executed at the University of Cape Coast. A population of 117 lecturers were used for the study through Census. Data collection for the study involved used a questionnaire. The reliability and validity of questionnaire were established. With the assistance of the Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 22 software, data were analysed descriptively and inferentially.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

The study's findings and analysis are presented in this chapter. The results were obtained by gathering data from 114 lecturers from the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast through the use of questionnaire. Out of 117 sampled lecturers, 114 of them provided valid data which gave a return rate of 97%. The data was processed into descriptive and inferential summaries using frequencies, percentages, means, and standard deviation for the descriptive analysis and independent samples t-test and ANOVA for the inferential analysis, respectively.

There are three parts to this chapter. The respondents' demographic findings are shown in the first section. In the second section, the findings related to the research questions and hypotheses are presented. The last section focuses on the discussion of findings to reach appropriate conclusions.

Demographic Results

The demographic results presented the sex, age, rank and department of the lecturers in Figure 3. The sex distribution results provide evidence of male lecturers' dominance (n = 80, 70%) during the study. Findings indicate that the College of Education Studies has most of its lecturers being males. This has been supported in the literature that in Ghana, there are more male lecturers than female lecturers in Ghana (Amos, Acquah, Antwi & Adzifome, 2015).

The majority (45.6%) of the lecturers aged 40 - 49, followed by the group aged 30 - 39 (27.2%). Also, about 9.6% of the lecturers were aged between 50 and 59 years.

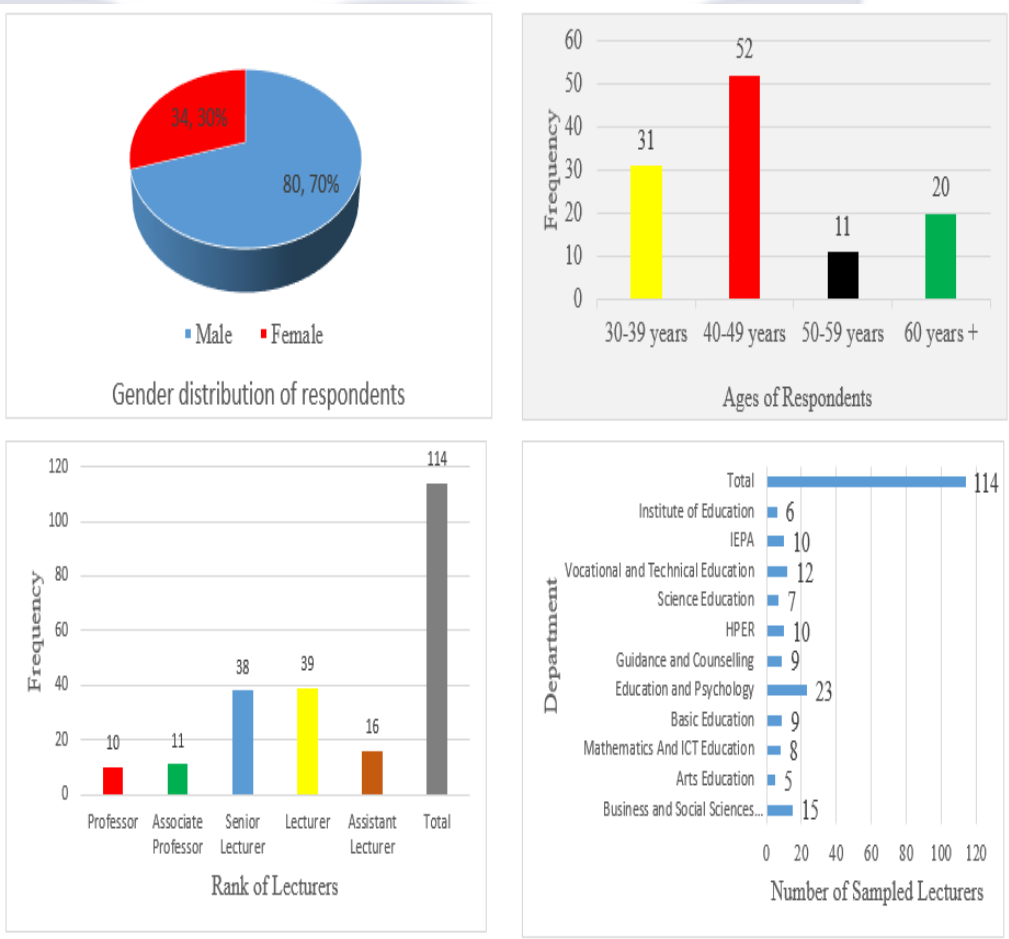

Figure 3: Demographic characteristics of lecturers

Source: Field work (2020)

According to the demographics, the majority (67.5%) of respondents are ranked as lecturers and senior lecturers whiles the least (8.8%) are ranked as professors. Since professors are considered as the highest rank within the institution, it is assumed that they have gained enough knowledge from being lecturers and understands the essence of sharing knowledge.

Figure 3 showed that there are 11 departments under the College of Education Studies. Among the departments, the majority (23) of lecturers are within the department of Education and Psychology. This was followed by lecturers in the department of Business and Social Sciences Education (15) and department of Vocational and Technical Education (12). The demographic data presented in the study are relevant in the study because the background characteristics of lecturers can impact on their willingness to share and utilise knowledge.

Lecturers' Willingness to Share Knowledge

The main objective of research question one was to measure lecturers level of willingness for knowledge sharing. This question was constructed with the motive that; lecturers find it difficult to share knowledge acquired with colleagues but those who share their knowledge do not share it on the basis of willingness unless they are ordered by authorities to do so. Hence, to be able to figure out how willing lecturers share their knowledge, a five-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Uncertain, Agree and Strongly Agree) was used to structure the questionnaire. The questionnaire was structured to assess the level to which they agree (M= 3.5 to 5.0) or disagree (M= 1.0 to 2.4) to a number of statements. Mean and Standard

Deviation were used in the descriptive analysis of the data. Table 2 contains answers from lecturers to the statements made.

Table 2*: Lecturers Willingness to Share Knowledge*

Statement	*M*	*SD*
I would willingly share with a colleague the important knowledge I have learned.	4.75	.46
In order to improve their understanding and learning, I would let coworkers spend a lot of time watching me work.	4.56	.55
I would willingly share with colleagues any trade secrets or other useful information I have learned from my work expertise.	4.53	.63
I would be willing to share my fresh ideas with a workmate.	4.61	.54
I would share the most recent organisational information with a colleague, if relevant.	4.42	.65
Weighted Average/Average Standard Deviation	4.57	.57

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 2 reveals that lecturers (M= 4.75, SD= .46) responded that they would willingly share with a colleague the important knowledge they have learned. This means that lecturers within the college agreed to initiate the willingness to make developed knowledge available to their colleagues.

Also, lecturers agree (M= 4.56, SD= .55) in order to improve their understanding and learning, they would let coworkers spend a lot of time watching me work. This shows that most lecturers after developing new ideas affirmed that they will give colleagues the opportunity to observe and learn from them whiles lecturing students or demonstrating some specific skills in work.

Lecturers (*M* = 4.53, *SD* = .63) of various departments also concur they would willingly share with colleagues any trade secrets or other useful information they have learned from my work expertise. Every work has a way of executing it according to skills or tricks. It could be that lecturers with the trick of trade when it comes to a particular course, agree that, they are willing to share with coworkers taking the same course with them every trade secrets and the competencies required to accomplish a task with, for the purpose to equip them in course area.

Sharing of new ideas with colleague lecturers was affirmed (M= 4.61, SD= .54) by lecturers from various departments. Lecturers are thus of the view that they would be willing to share their fresh ideas with their workmate. This implies that lecturing will be effective and will also develop the knowledge of other lecturers as well.

Lecturers also agree (M= 4.42, SD= .65) that they would share the most recent organisational information with a colleague, if relevant.

Information that comes from the institution are mostly assumed significant and useful to individual lecturers. Every lecturer believes in information coming from the authorities. Most lecturers agreed to sharing relevant organisational information to their colleagues in the institution.

With Table 2's data, it can be concluded that lecturers are ever willing to provide their colleagues with useful information they have developed to help their colleagues to also develop their skills and gain more knowledge. The lecturers are also willing to allow colleagues to spend significant time observing and learning from their work, would willingly share any tricks they have learnt in their work, and would share new ideas with colleagues. Thus, overall, all lecturers are active in bringing new knowledge and sharing with colleagues to develop the university.

The findings are supported by the results of other prior studies. In the present study, for instance, it was indicated that lecturers had the willingness to share knowledge among themselves. Nordin, Daud and Osman (2012) examined the level of knowledge sharing behaviour among university lecturers and noticed that lecturers' level of knowledge sharing was high. Nordin et al. reported that most lecturers were willing to share knowledge that they have acquired on their own with their colleagues. In a similar study, Skaik and Othman (2014) revealed that lecturers were willing to tell colleagues new things learnt, ask colleagues certain knowledge needed and exchange gained knowledge and insights from working with colleagues.

Also, the results in the recent study that lecturers had the willingness to share knowledge was confirmed in the study of Abbas (2017) which found willingness to share knowledge to be common among lecturers. For most of

the lecturers in the research of Abbas, their knowledge sharing behaviours were because of their genuine willingness. These were all confirmed in the results of the recent study. Findings related to the present research's results have been reported in Africa. For instance, Clement and Olatokun (2020) revealed that there was a culture in which professors actively shared their knowledge. The knowledge sharing culture was generally influenced by their willingness to share.

The agreement observed among the findings of different studies gives the indication that regardless of context, lecturers in higher institutions generally have positive disposition and willingness to share knowledge with their coworkers. In the long run, this aids in cultivating a culture where lecturers cordially share their knowledge with each other.

Lecturers' Willingness to Use Knowledge in the University of Cape Coast

The second research question was to identify lecturers' level of willingness to use shared knowledge. The question was based on the view that lecturers may struggle to use the knowledge which have been shared by their colleagues. A five-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Uncertain, Agree, and Strongly Agree) was used in the design of the questionnaire used to gather responses to this study. The questionnaire was structured to assess the level to which they agree (M= 3.5 to 5.0) or disagree (M= 1.0 to 2.4) to a number of statements. The results of the data analysis utilising Mean and Standard Deviation are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: *Lecturers Willingness to Use Knowledge*

Statement	*M*	*SD*
I would accept and use knowledge created by a colleague.	4.49	.67

I would be willing to devote a significant amount of time to watching a colleague in order to apply what I have learned.	4.43	.69
I would accept and include the tricks of trade and insight I have learnt.	4.48	.57
Any fresh ideas a colleague might have, I would gladly accept and take into consideration..	4.49	.59
I would generally be inclined to believe the organisational information presented by colleagues and would use such knowledge appropriately.	4.24	.74
Weighted Average/Average Standard Deviation	4.43	.65

Source: Field work (2020)

The results in Table 3 show willingness of lecturers to use shared knowledge. It is shown in Table 3 by the lecturers that they would gladly accept and take into consideration any fresh ideas a colleague might have (M=4.49, SD=.59). This is an indication that the lecturers would not downplay or disregard new ideas from their colleagues.

The lecturers also indicated that they would accept and use knowledge created by a colleague (M=4.49, SD=.67). This means that the lecturers are willing use knowledge generated and provided to them by their colleagues. In addition, the lecturers agree that they would accept and include the tricks of trade and insight they have learnt. (M=4.48, SD=.57). There are some tricks of trade and insight that lecturers have learnt over the years and in the current study, the lecturers were willing to welcome and use such knowledge.

Further, the respondents indicated that they would be willing to devote a significant amount of time watching a colleague in order to apply what they have learned (M=4.43, SD=.69). Learning by observation is a good means to

learning some new things and putting them into practice. It is thus a good indication that the respondents are willing to observe colleagues and use new stuff that they learn.

A significant part of knowledge that lecturers need in the course of their work is the information about their workplace. In line with this, the respondents revealed that they would generally be inclined to believe the organisational information presented by colleagues and would use such knowledge appropriately (M=4.24, SD=.74).

Overall, it can be realised that the respondents had the willingness to use knowledge shared by their coworkers as showed by the average scores (M=4.43, SD=.65). This was demonstrated in their eagerness to consider, welcome and use any knowledge shared by their colleagues. The findings in relation to willingness to use shared knowledge have strong backing in the literature. For instance, in Toronto, Evans (2012) revealed that the employees were willing to use shared knowledge. Hooff and Hendrix (2004) also found that in most institutions, the employees were willing to use the knowledge they received to further their course and the course of their organisation.

In some ways, the finding of the recent studies that lecturers would use shared knowledge confirmed the study of Eiriemiokhale and Idiedo (2020) which indicated that lecturers perceived knowledge sharing to be positive with a lot of benefits. Due to this, the lecturers in the study showed great willingness in using the knowledge shared. The researchers recommended among other things that university authorities carry out knowledge sharing campaigns (seminars and workshops) to get more and more lecturers enthused and interested in knowledge sharing. Matins and Marion (2005) also revealed

that the basis for research, instruction, and learning is offered by universities. Considering that educators are essential in a society that values knowledge, they realised the need for ongoing knowledge sharing among themselves. Matins and Marion added that lecturers also used the knowledge shared to them by their colleagues.

The various results show that lecturers applied knowledge that they receive in their course of their work. When knowledge is not used, it is of no relevance. This could explain why lecturers were willing to use knowledge that they have received.

Lecturers' Perceived Benefits of Shared Knowledge

The third research question of the study was designed to conduct lecturers' perceived benefits of shared knowledge. This question was considered necessary to find out if lecturers perceived that knowledge shared by their colleagues was beneficial. By finding out the lecturers' perspectives on the benefits of shared knowledge, the value attached to the shared knowledge can be known. A five-point Likert scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Uncertain, Agree, and Strongly Agree) was used to structure the questionnaire. The questionnaire was structured to assess the level to which they agree (M= 3.5 to 5.0) or disagree (M= 1.0 to 2.4) to a number of statements. The results of the data analysis utilising Mean and Standard Deviation are shown in Table 4.

Table 4: *Lecturers' Perceived Benefits of Shared Knowledge*

Statement	*M*	*SD*
Through knowledge sharing practices,		
I have learnt to instill a sense of creativity and innovation.	4.37	.67

I have satisfaction at work.	4.33	.78
I have been able to produce quality knowledge.	4.42	.64
I have been able to improve on my overall performance.	4.43	.70
I have updated my knowledge within my field of study.	4.51	.54
My teaching skills have been improved.	4.45	.61
My capacity for research has increased.	4.40	.62
I have been able to enhance on my curriculum development.	4.36	.65
Weighted Average/Average Standard Deviation	4.41	.65

Source: Field work (2020)

The outcomes in Table 4 show lecturers' perceived benefits of shared knowledge. It can be seen from the lecturers that they have updated their knowledge within their field of study through knowledge sharing practices (M=4.51, SD=.54). This means that the lecturers perceived knowledge sharing to be beneficial in updating their knowledge.

The respondents are also of the view that their teaching skills have been improved through knowledge sharing practices (M=4.45, SD=.61). Lecturers can learn new ways of teaching and by sharing these new ways with their colleagues there will be an overall improvement in teaching skills. This viewpoint might explain why the lecturers held on to their position

In addition, the respondents noted that through knowledge sharing practices, they have been able to improve on their overall performance (M=4.43, SD=.70). Knowledge sharing for lecturers covers not only what they need in their teaching but their overall work. Therefore, as lecturers improve on their knowledge by receiving from their colleagues, they are likely to improve their overall performance.

The work of lecturers in universities basically revolves around producing knowledge and impacting students and the general public with such knowledge. In this sense, as lecturers receive or acquire new knowledge from their colleagues, they tend to add to their repertoire of knowledge. Respondents in this study so disclosed that through knowledge sharing, they have been able to produce quality knowledge (M=4.42, SD=.64). By obtaining and adding up to their knowledge, the knowledge lecturers tend to produce is affected positively. In the end, lecturers teach and conduct research with quality knowledge.

Overall, the average mean score of 4.41 gives the indication that the participants generally concurred that sharing knowledge was beneficial. This is because shared knowledge helped lecturers update their knowledge, improve their teaching skills and overall performance and produce quality knowledge. The results are consistent with those of other earlier studies. The study of Clement and Olatokun (2020) showed that lecturers found knowledge sharing to be beneficial. Similarly, Chinyere and Nwanosike (2018) found that knowledge sharing and synergy was common among the lecturers and that most of the lecturers found knowledge creation and sharing to be beneficial in improving their knowledge and skills.

In the same way, the finding of the recent studies that lecturers would have improved knowledge in their field because knowledge sharing was in line with the finding of Agbuigui (2014) recognised the academic staff's effective teamwork, communication, collaboration, and knowledge exchange contributed to the delivery of high-quality education. In Agbuigui's research, lecturers came to understand that sharing knowledge benefits everyone

involved, and that growing one's own knowledge will increase one's own skills in carrying out their expected duties.

In support of the view that knowledge sharing was beneficial, Yang (2007) reports that sharing knowledge increases its value, which improves organisational efficiency, creativity, decision-making, and positive changes in employee behaviour. This results in the growth of of new skills and best practices. Joseph and Jacob (2011) also revealed that expectations of reciprocal partnerships influenced people's attitudes towards sharing knowledge and benefits. Thus, the possibility that lecturers will participate in knowledge sharing increases as it is regarded to be more useful.

The findings of the present studies concur with those of Chaudhry and Sivakamasundari (2004) that educators perceived knowledge sharing as a way to increase and improve their knowledge. Majority of the teachers therefore shared their knowledge regardless of the challenges they encountered. In any country, universities are the main centers for the creation and management of knowledge. developing a knowledge-driven economy by combining education and research. (Bock, Zmud, Kim & Lee, 2005). Therefore, knowledge sharing within universities comes along with several benefits. Also, universities offer an opportunity for cooperation among persons with knowledge and abilities by creating an environment that encourages collaboration, increasing productivity via the sharing of their views. (Kim & Stanton, 2016).

It was made obvious from the conversation that knowledge sharing and usage are beneficial not only for the lecturers but for the university community as a whole. As an extension, the more quality knowledge is shared, the more benefit is derived to improve work performance of lecturers, the university and

the country as a whole. This is because as the personnel within the country improve in terms of quality, the progress of the country is enhanced.

Differences in Lecturers' Willingness to Share Knowledge based on their Age

The research's first hypothesis examined whether there was a significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their age. Since the study contained four different age groups, one-way ANOVA was utilised to analyse the data at the 0.05 level of significance. Table 5 also displays the results of the Levene's test for homogeneity of variances.

Table 5: *Test of Homogeneity of Variances*

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.608	3	110	.192

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 5's data demonstrate that the significant level of.192 is greater than .05. This indicates it is possible to assume the homogeneity of variances. The descriptive results for the different age groups are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: *Descriptive Results for Different Age Groups*

Age (in years)	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
30-39	31	22.65	1.89
40-49	52	22.62	1.76
50-59	11	23.09	2.07
60 and above	20	23.70	1.26
Total	114	22.86	1.78

Source: Field work (2020)

The means and standard deviations for the various age groups are shown in Table 6. Table 6 shows that respondents who were 60 years and

above had the highest mean (M=23.70, SD=1.25). In contrast, the respondents in the age group of 40 and 49 years' individuals had the lowest mean scores. (M=22.62, SD=1.76). Based the mean scores, it can be seen that there is some minor differences amidst the various age groups.

However, there was the need to test whether the differences observed were significant. Table 7 displays the results of the ANOVA test used to ascertain the statistical significance of the differences between the different age groups at the .05 alpha level.

Table 7: *ANOVA Results Comparing Knowledge Sharing Based on Age*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19.241	3	6.414	2.084	.106
Within Groups	338.514	110	3.077		
Total	357.754	113			

Source: Field work (2020) not significant, p>.05

From Table 7, it is clear that there was no significant difference in the willingness of lecturers to share knowledge on the basis of age [F (3, 110) = 2.084, p>.05]. The probability value (p-value) of 0.106 is more than the.05 level of significance. As a result, it can be concluded that although there were differences in the mean scores for the different age groups, such differences were not statistically significant. The null hypothesis, which states that there is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge at the University of Cape Coast depending on age, was maintained.

From the results, it can be inferred that regardless of the ages of the lecturers, they had the willingness to impart the knowledge they have learned. The level of willingness to share knowledge was thus the same or similar for all lecturers, irrespective of their ages. This could be because all lecturers consider knowledge sharing as a good practice.

The results of this study support the outcomes of Clement and Olatokun (2020) that because knowledge sharing was considered important, all lecturers were willing to share knowledge whether they were old or young. This means that age difference was not significant in terms of knowledge sharing among lecturers. Another study in Malaysia by Abdur-Rafiu and Opesade (2015) revealed academics' knowledge sharing behaviour was significantly predicted by lecturers' desire to share their knowledge and this did not vary on the basis of their age. Mogotsi, Boon and Fletcher (2011) also discovered that there was no statistically significant correlation between age and knowledge sharing behaviours.

Other research has demonstrated that knowledge sharing behaviour is not affected by age (Mogotsi, 2009; Ismail & Yusof, 2009). There are however some previous studies which have shown that age difference exists in the knowledge sharing behaviour of lecturers and other academicians (Marouf, 2015; Ojha, 2005; Riege, 2005). The contradiction suggests that research studies are not conclusive on the age difference in knowledge sharing behaviour.

Differences in Lecturers' Willingness to Use Shared Knowledge based on their Age

The second hypothesis aimed to ascertain if there was a significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on age. Since there were four different age groups participating in the study, one-way ANOVA was utilised to analyse the data at the 0.05 level of significance. Table 8 displays the results of the Levene's test for homogeneity of variances.

Table 8*: Test of Homogeneity of Variances*

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.919	3	110	.131

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 8 demonstrates that.131 is a significant level, which is greater than.05. This suggests that it is possible to assume the homogeneity of variances. Therefore, One-Way ANOVA was carried out.

Table 9 presents the results derived from the descriptive statistics.

Table 9*: Descriptive Results for Different Age Groups*

Age (in years)	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
30-39	31	21.84	2.31
40-49	52	22.13	2.45
50-59	11	21.91	2.51
60 and above	20	22.70	1.45
Total	114	22.13	2.26

Source: Field work (2020)

For each age group, the means and standard deviations are shown in Table 9. Participants between the ages of 30 and 39 had the lowest mean score (M=21.84, SD=2.99). The last group (60 years and above) had the highest mean score (M=22.70, SD=1.45). From the mean scores, some differences can be observed among the different age groups with those aged 60 years and

above having the highest mean. However, the significance of the differences can only be confirmed in the ANOVA test.

The results of the ANOVA test, which was used to establish the statistically significant differences between the age groups at the.05 alpha level, are presented in Table 10.

Table 10*: ANOVA Results Comparing Use of Knowledge Based on Age*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.666	3	3.222	.622	.602
Within Groups	569.360	110	5.176		
Total	579.026	113			

Source: Field work (2020) not significant, p>.05

Table 10 indicates there is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their ages [F (3, 110) = .622, p>.05]. The probability value (p-value) of.602 is higher than the.05 level of significance. Consequently, the null hypothesis that states there was no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge depending on age was retained. In essence, lecturers of different ages had the same level of willingness to used shared knowledge.

Since the work of lecturers generally revolves around the usage of knowledge, age would not be a factor in lecturers deciding to use knowledge they have received. As long as the knowledge received is considered beneficial, age would not have an impact on the decision to use it or not. Therefore, lecturers of all ages in this study were willing to use knowledge that they have received in the course of their work. In the literature, Srivastava and Pradhan (2019) carried out a descriptive research to ascertain the

relationship of age with knowledge sharing behaviour of engineering lecturers in the eastern of India known as the 'Five Eastern states of India. Data were gathered using convenience sampling through online survey. Descriptive and correlational analysis proved that age had no impact on how people used and shared knowledge. However, the findings of this study supported the idea that age differences do not affect knowledge sharing behaviour.

The study of Mogotsi et al. (2011) additionally demonstrated that even though there was knowledge sharing and usage, this regardless of age, remained constant. Lou, Yang, Shih and Tseng (2007) found that all lecturers were willing to use knowledge received and that their ages did not matter. Hasnain (2013) also added that age effect on how knowledge is shared and utilise remains unsure.

From the results of the recent studies and earlier research, knowledge usage remained consistent irrespective of age. This was not surprising since knowledge sharing did not change according to age. Thus, lecturers shared knowledge with their colleagues, they were willing to also use the knowledge they receive from their colleagues irrespective of their ages.

Differences in Male and Female Lecturers' Willingness to Share Knowledge

The third hypothesis aimed to identify the significant difference in male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge in the University of Cape Coast. An independent samples t-test with a level of significance of 0.05 was used to test the hypothesis. The homogeneity of variance was evaluated using the Levene's test. The results of the Levene's test are summarised in Table 11.

Table 11: *Levene's Test for Equality of Variances*

	F	Sig
Equal variances assumed	.018	.894
Equal variances not assumed		

Source: Field work (2020)

The significant value of.894 is greater than the significant level of.05, as shown in Table 11. The result demonstrates that it is appropriate to assume equality of variance.

Table 12 displays the results of the independent t-test.

Table 12*: Results of t-Test Comparing Male and Female Lecturers' Willingness to Share Knowledge*

Sex	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Female	34	22.71	1.61	112	-.600	.550
Male	80	22.93	1.85			

Source: Field work (2020) not significant, p>.05

The results of the independent samples t-test are shown in Table 12. Table 12 shows that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge [t (112) = -.600, p>.05]. The null hypothesis claimed that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge was accepted. This suggests that University of Cape Coast lecturers both male and female had the same or similar levels of willingness to share knowledge. From the results, it is clear that sex has no bearing on whether lecturers would share knowledge or not.

The findings corroborate with the findings of Marouf (2015) who investigated if there are interactions between various demographic characteristics and how employees perceive the corporate culture with

reference to knowledge sharing. According to the study's results, both male and female workers had a remarkably similar viewpoint on the sharing of knowledge. In terms of knowledge sharing, no apparent sex difference was therefore discovered. In Iraq, Abbas (2017) revealed an insignificant difference between male and female lecturers in terms of knowledge sharing. Other studies found no significant sex difference in the utilisation of shared knowledge in higher education institutions (Ismail & Yusof, 2009; Mogotsi et al., 2011)

Contradicting all the above studies, some previous studies have sex differences in knowledge sharing behaviour. For instance, Razi, Karim and Mohamed (2014) revealed among other things that sex was a key factor in employees' willingness towards knowledge management, creation and sharing. Similarly, the results of the research of Ma and Yuen (2011) indicated that sex difference existed in terms of knowledge sharing. Specifically, males were more willing to disseminate knowledge than female participants.

The contrasting findings give the indication that sex difference in knowledge sharing is still inconclusive. Based on this, opinions regarding sex difference in knowledge sharing should be more contextual. Further studies would also be needed to comprehend something more deeply into knowledge sharing on the basis of sex.

Differences in Male and Female Lecturers' Willingness to Use Shared Knowledge

The fourth hypothesis examined if there was any significant difference between male and female lecturers at the University of Cape Coast

in terms of their willingness to use shared knowledge. An independent samples t-test with a significance level of 0.05 was used to test the hypothesis.

To determine the homogeneity of the variances, the Levene's test for equality of variance was applied. Hence, the significant value of .074 was obtained and is greater than .05 the significant level. This suggests that equality of variances can be assumed.

Table 13 displays the results of the independent t-test.

Table 13*: Results of t-Test Comparing Male and Female Lecturers' Willingness to Use Shared Knowledge*

Sex	N	Mean	SD	Df	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Female	34	22.24	2.00	112	.318	.751
Male	80	22.09	2.38			

Source: Field work (2020) not significant, p>.05

The results of Table 13 show that there was no statistically significant difference in the willingness of male and female lecturers to use shared knowledge [t (112) =318, p>.05]. Based on this, there was a null hypothesis that claimed there was no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge was retained. This gives the indication that in the University of Cape Coast, the willingness to use shared knowledge was similar among male and female lecturers.

From the results, it is clear that in deciding to use knowledge that has been received from colleagues, all the lecturers, regardless of their sex, indicated their willingness. Thus, sex has no bearing on whether lecturers would be willing to use shared knowledge or not. These results are consistent with those of Badawy and Magdy (2015) that using of knowledge did not depend on the sex of the lecturers involved. They were of the view that all

lecturers and academicians used knowledge they have received from their colleagues regardless of their sex.

In a similar vein, Darvish, Ahmadnia and Qryshan (2013) revealed that male and female employees utilised knowledge at the same level at the workplace. Their levels of use and sharing willingness did not differ much. Hasnain (2013) also concluded that there were no statistically significant differences in knowledge management activities, including knowledge sharing and utilising, between men and women. From all these studies and the current study, it is clear that sex difference does not exist in the use of shared knowledge in institutions.

Contrary to these, Akosile and Olatokun (2019) revealed among other things that sex has a major influence on the practice of sharing knowledge and using. Lin (2006) also discovered that women were more likely than men to share and apply knowledge. In Ghana, Boateng, Dzandu, and Agyemang (2015) however, identified attitudes towards knowledge sharing that varied between male and female staff members, despite the fact that demographic factors did not establish patterns of knowledge sharing and using. They specified that compared to their female colleagues, male educators engaged in more knowledge sharing and use.

From the forgoing discussion, it appears that there are inconsistent findings regarding the place of sex in the use of shared knowledge. Tohidinia and Mosakhani (2010) therefore showed that the sum of the individual variables like sex do not act as trustworthy indications for knowledge management, sharing and using.

Differences in Lecturers' Willingness to Share Knowledge based on their Ranks

This hypothesis aimed at determining whether there were any significant differences in lecturers' willingness to sharing knowledge based on their ranks. The ranks categorised the respondents into five groups. One-Way ANOVA was thus used in testing the hypothesis at the 0.05 level of significance. Table 14 first presents the results of the Levene's test for homogeneity of variances.

Table 14: *Test of Homogeneity of Variances*

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.851	4	109	.270

Source: Field work (2020)

Homogeneity of variances can be assumed from the results in Table 14. This is because the significant level of .270 is greater than .05. Therefore, the test's results using the ANOVA are displayed. Table 15 presents the descriptive results of the different ranks.

Table 15: *Descriptive Results for Different Ranks*

Rank	N	Mean	Std. Dev.
Professor	10	23.90	1.10
Associate Professor	11	23.73	0.79
Senior Lecturer	38	22.74	1.99
Lecturer	39	22.28	1.83
Assistant Lecturer	16	23.31	1.40
Total	114	22.86	1.77

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 15 displays the means and standard deviations of the various ranks. According to the Table, respondents with professor rank had the highest mean score (M=23.90, SD= 1.10) while respondents who had lecturer rank had the least mean score (M=22.28, SD= 1.83). From the results, it is can be

seen that variations exist in the mean scores of the various ranks. To determine the statistical significance of these differences, One-Way ANOVA test was carried out. The results are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: *ANOVA Results Comparing Knowledge Sharing Based on Ranks*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	35.969	4	8.992	3.046*	.020
Within Groups	321.785	109	2.952		
Total	357.754	113			

Source: Field work (2020) *Significant, p<.05

Table 16 demonstrates that there is a significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their ranks [F (4, 109) = 3.046, p<.05]. The probability value (p-value) of 0.020 is below the.05 level of significance. This indicates that the mean differences observed in the descriptive results were statistically significant. The null hypothesis, which states that there was no statistically significant difference between lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on ranks were rejected. Since a significant difference was discovered, a post-hoc analysis was required.

The post-hoc analysis utilised Tukey's Post-Hoc test. This is because Tukey's test aims to determine which groups within a particular sample differ from one another. Table 17 displays the results of the Tukey's test in summary.

Table 17*: Tukey HSD*[a,b]

		Subset for alpha = 0.05
Rank	N	**1**
Lecturer	39	22.2821
Senior Lecturer	38	22.7368

Assistant Lecturer	16	23.3125
Associate Professor	11	23.7273
Professor	10	23.9000
Sig.		.061

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 17 reveals that, lecturers with professorial rank achieved the highest mean score. This indicates that they were more willing than the other ranks to share knowledge. This was followed by associate professors with those having lecturer rank having the lowest mean score. The results could be because in universities, the highest rank is professor rank and usually at that rank, lecturers are required to be involved in a lot of mentorship and speaking at public lectures and engagements. Therefore, once lecturers get to the rank of professorship, they automatically develop the willingness to pass on the knowledge they have acquired over the years to upcoming lecturers and lecturers of lower ranks.

The results in this study are not isolated results since there are some studies in the literature with similar results. The study of Lawal, Oriogu and Ogbuiyi (2017) showed that knowledge sharing was related to rank of the respondents at the .05 significant level.

Ojha (2005) also researched on knowledge sharing among lecturers and revealed that ranking of lecturers was significant in relation to the knowledge sharing behaviour of lecturers. Specifically, Ojha revealed that lecturers with more significant differences in their rank positions make them less inclined to share. In this case, the rank of the lectures was an inhibitor for participating in knowledge sharing behaviour. Additional studies have confirmed that the practice of lecturers sharing knowledge varies on basis of

rank of the lecturers (Laumann, Gagnon, Michael & Michaels, 1994; Louch, 2000).

Based on the findings of the recent study and the earlier research, it can be seen that knowledge sharing among lecturers differs on the basis of ranking of the lecturers in their institutions. If a professor and a lecturer hold different rank positions, there will be a division in the manner of imparting knowledge, which could slow it down. Junior members frequently experience hesitation while contacting academics with greater rank and reputation. This suggests that the difficulty in sharing knowledge is brought on by the current system.

Differences in Lecturers' Willingness to Use Shared Knowledge based on their Ranks

This hypothesis explored to determine if there was significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge on the basis of their ranks. There were five different ranks of lecturers, indicating the presence of five groups. Therefore, the hypothesis was tested using one-way ANOVA at the 0.05 level of significance. Table 18 presents the results of the Levene's test for homogeneity of variances.

Table 18*: Test of Homogeneity of Variances*

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.033	4	109	.095

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 18 demonstrates that the.095 significant level is higher than.05. This interprets that there is a possibility of assuming the homogeneity of variances. Also, the descriptive results of the various ranks are shown in Table 19.

Table 19*: Descriptive Results for Different Ranks*

Rank	N	Mean	Std. Dev.

Professor	10	22.60	1.78
Associate Professor	11	23.00	1.34
Senior Lecturer	38	21.39	2.60
Lecturer	39	22.38	1.98
Assistant Lecturer	16	22.37	2.55
Total	114	22.13	2.26

Source: Field work (2020)

Table 19 displays the means and standard deviations of the various ranks. The greatest mean score was obtained from respondents who were associate professors (M=23.00, SD=1.34) while those who were senior lecturers had the lowest mean score (M=21.39, SD=2.60). The means scores of the various ranks were different with those being associate professors having the highest mean. However, there was the need to conduct one-way ANOVA test to determine the statistical significance differences. The results are shown in Table 20.

Table 20*: ANOVA Results Comparing Use of Shared Knowledge Based on Ranks*

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	34.567	4	8.64	1.730	.149
Within Groups	544.460	109	4.99		
Total	579.026	113			

Source: Field work (2020) not significant, p>.05

Table 20 shows there is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their ranks [F (4, 109)

=1.730, p>.05]. This finding indicates that lecturers of different ranks had similar levels of willingness to use shared knowledge. The null hypothesis, essentially states that there was no statistically significant difference between lecturers' willingness to utilise shared knowledge on ranks was retained.

From the results, it can be said that, regardless of the ranks of lecturers, they had the willingness to use shared knowledge that they have acquired with their colleagues. In the work of lecturers, using knowledge obtained is fundamental. Therefore, it did not matter the rank of a lecturer, once some specific knowledge is deemed relevant, he or she would use it to further the course of his or her work. In this perspective, the study's findings were not out of order. In the literature, there have been some studies with similar findings. For example, Pangil and Nasrudin (2008) examined how demographic variables influenced knowledge sharing and using in institutions and revealed that level of occupational rank and experience had no bearing on knowledge sharing and utilisation. Similarly, Keyes (2008) revealed that level or ranking of lecturers was not influential in terms of the use of shared knowledge. Gumus (2007) also added that employees' length of employment at the institution had no bearing knowledge sharing and usage.

In contrast to these studies, some studies found that use of shared knowledge varied on the basis of ranking. For instance, Shaari, Rajab and Rahman (2014) identified differences in instructors' perspectives on knowledge sharing and using behaviour determined by their destination or rank level. The contradiction could be due to contextual differences among the various studies. Generally, however, in this study, it remains clear that

lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge did not differ on the basis of their ranks.

Chapter Summary

The findings and discussion related to the research were covered in this chapter. The results of the analyses of three research questions and six hypotheses were presented and discussed. From the results, it was realised that lecturers were willing to share and use shared knowledge because they found knowledge sharing to be beneficial. Regarding demographic variables, no significant differences were found in lecturers' willingness to share and utilise shared knowledge on the basis of age and sex. In terms of ranks of lecturers, significant difference was observed when it had to do with knowledge sharing but not regarding use of shared knowledge. The results were discussed in relation to previous literature.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

The study's summary, conclusions, and recommendations are presented in the last chapter. There are also suggestions for further research offered.

Summary of the Research Process

The study examined lecturers at the University of Cape Coast knowledge sharing behaviour. The research was however led by the following research questions and hypotheses:

1. What is lecturers' level of willingness to share knowledge among themselves at the University of Cape Coast?
2. What is lecturers' level of willingness to use knowledge shared at the University of Cape Coast?
3. What are lecturers' perceived benefits of shared knowledge at the University of Cape Coast?
4. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their age.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their age.
5. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their age.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their age.
6. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge.
7. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference between male and female lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge.

8. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their ranks.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge based on their ranks.

9. H_0: There is no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their ranks.

   H_1: There is a statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their ranks.

The research employed a descriptive cross-sectional survey methodology, using a quantitative approach. Data was collected using a five-point Likert questionnaire. A population of 117 lecturers were used for the research through census. Data was analysed descriptively and inferentially using Statistically Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 22 software.

Summary of Major Findings

1. The research investigated that lecturers are ever willing to provide their colleagues with useful information they have developed to help their colleagues to also develop their skills and gain more knowledge. They were also willing to allow colleagues to spend significant time observing and learning from their work, would willingly share any tricks they have learnt in their work, and would share new ideas with colleagues. Thus, overall, all lecturers were active in bringing new knowledge and sharing with colleagues to develop the institution.
2. The research identified that lecturers were willing to consider any new ideas that a coworker may have, accept and use knowledge developed by a colleague, and welcome and use the tricks of trade and insight they have

learnt. The lecturers also welcomed the opportunity to spend a lot of time observing a coworker for the objective to make use of new things they have learnt and were willing to hold the belief of organisational information shared by colleagues and would apply such knowledge appropriately. All of these indicate that the lecturers were willing to use knowledge shared by their colleagues.

3. The study revealed that knowledge sharing was beneficial to the lecturers. This is because shared knowledge helped lecturers update their knowledge, improve their teaching skills and overall performance and produce quality knowledge.
4. In relation to age, it was demonstrated that there was no significant difference in lecturers' willingness to share knowledge. Even though the mean scores of the different age groups varied, the differences were not statistically significant.
5. There was no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge based on their respective age groups. In essence, lecturers of various ages had statistically the same level of willingness to used shared knowledge.
6. Regarding sex, the research revealed no statistically significant difference existed between male and female lecturers' willingness to share knowledge. Thus, male and female lecturers in the University of Cape Coast had statistically similar levels of willingness to share knowledge.
7. Similarly, there was no statistically significant difference in male and female lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge.

8. The research also indicated that there was a significant difference in the willingness of lecturers to share knowledge on the basis of their ranks. Specifically, lecturers with professorial rank had the highest mean score implying that they were more willing to share knowledge acquired than the other ranks.
9. Lastly, there was no statistically significant difference in lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge on the basis of their ranks. This finding indicates that lecturers of different ranks had similar levels of willingness to use shared knowledge.

Conclusions

This quantitative study focused on knowledge sharing behaviour among lecturers in the University of Cape Coast. The study aimed to achieve its goal through findings through which results are inferred.

The study's findings have the implications on how willing lecturers share their knowledge with their colleagues. Lecturers made it known that they are open to sharing their acquired knowledge with their coworkers. With regards to every trick of trade gained and every information gathered on their own, will definitely be shared. This willingness of sharing will ultimately benefit others lecturers and the University as a whole.

Lecturers again proved that shared knowledge is in good use to them. This indicates that they will utilise the knowledge shared to them till they become perfect in utilising them. Moreover, they claim it has benefited them in terms of lecturing and researching. The sharing and utilisation of knowledge has improve their work performance and the University as well.

From the findings, the study comes to the following conclusion that demographics characteristics have proven that lecturers are willing to share knowledge with their colleagues, whether it is on sex basis, age basis expect for rank basis. Lecturers of professorial rank who have gain more knowledge and experience in the University have the strong desire of sharing their knowledge with colleagues in other ranks but lecturers of other ranks do not have the willingness to share knowledge.

However, from the findings of lecturers' willingness to use shared knowledge irrespective of their age, sex and rank concluded that there is no significant difference in lecturers, willingness to use shared knowledge regardless of their sex, age and rank. This study has significantly contributed in the knowledge gap in the literature on knowledge sharing behaviour being filled among lecturers in University of Cape Coast.

Recommendations

Based on the study's findings, the following recommendations are made:

1. Administrators of the university should create an enabling environment such as forum, workshops and seminars for lecturers to share and use shared knowledge with their colleagues. This will advance our knowledge base to enhance lecturers in their field and emphasise the knowledge sharing and usage benefits it brings to individual lecturers and the entire university community.
2. Faculty heads should clearly communicate the benefits of sharing and using shared knowledge to all lecturers, regardless of their age. Faculty heads should highlight how collaborative learning and utilisation of

shared knowledge can enhance lecturing, effectiveness promote professional growth.

3. University management should address stereotypes and biases. Lecturers should be educated about the dangers of sex-related stereotypes and biases that may hinder knowledge sharing and usage of knowledge shared by their colleagues. Lecturers should be encouraged to challenge preconceived notions and embrace the unique strengths and contributions of lecturers across different sex.
4. All lecturers should be encouraged by departmental and faculty heads to facilitate mentoring relationship. They should encourage experienced lecturers to mentor their less experienced colleagues irrespective of their ranks. Mentoring provides a structured framework for knowledge sharing and foster professional development. Moreover, mentorships programs can be organised to help develop the next generation of knowledge and dedicated lecturers.

Suggestions for Further Research

For further research, the following suggestions are offered:

1. Additional studies can be done to determine the precise effects of sharing knowledge on the career progression of lecturers. This can help provide substantial evidence on the benefits of knowledge sharing.
2. More research can be done to ascertain the precise components that affect knowledge sharing among lecturers in academic institutions. This can help find out ways or means to improve knowledge disseminating among lecturers in academic institutions.

3. A similar study could be conducted on a large scale so as to include lecturers from other colleges or even universities. This can help enhance the degree to which the outcomes can be applied universally.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LECTURERS

Knowledge from the faculty is one of the most crucial aspects in determining success in the academic landscape. Hence, this questionnaire is structured to collect information regarding the knowledge sharing behaviour among lecturers at the University of Cape Coast. Please be honest and sincere in your responses. Your answers to the questionnaire will be handled with the utmost discretion. To accomplish the objectives of the study, your assistance is required. Thanks for your co-operation.

INSTRUCTIONS

PLEASE TICK [√] THE MOST APPROPRIATE RESPONSE WHEN ANSWERING THE QUESTIONS BELOW.

SECTION A: BACKGROUND OF THE RESPONDENT

1. Sex

   Female [ ] Male [ ]

2. Age

   30-39 years [ ] 40-49 years [ ] 50-59 years [ ]

   60years and above [ ]

3. Department

   Business and Social Sciences Education [ ] Arts Education [ ]

   Mathematics and ICT Education [ ] Basic Education [ ]

Education and Psychology [ ] Guidance and Counselling [ ]

HPER [ ] Science Education [ ]

Vocational and Technical Education [ ] IEPA [ ]

Institute of Education [ ]

4. Rank

Professor [ ] Associate Professor [ ]

Senior lecturer [ ] Lecturer [ ]

Assistant lecturer [ ]

SECTION B: WILLINGNESS TO SHARE KNOWLEDGE

SD-Strongly disagree, **D**-Disagree, **U**-Uncertain, **A**-Agree, **SA**-Strongly agree

No.	**Statement**	**SD**	**D**	**U**	**A**	**SA**
5	I would willingly share with a colleague the important knowledge I have learned.					
6	In order to improve their understanding and learning, I would let coworkers spend a lot of time watching me work.					
7	I would willingly share with colleagues any trade secrets or other useful information I have learned from my work expertise.					
8	I would be willing to share my fresh ideas with a workmate.					
9	I would share the most recent organisational information with a					

	colleague, if relevant.					

SECTION C: WILLINGNESS TO USE KNOWLEDGE

No.	Statement	SD	D	U	A	SA
10	I would accept and use knowledge created by a colleague.					
11	I would be willing to devote a significant amount of time to watching a colleague in order to apply what I have learned.					
12	I would accept and include the tricks of trade and insight I have learnt.					
13	Any fresh ideas a colleague might have, I would gladly accept and take into consideration..					
14	I would generally be inclined to believe the organisational information presented by colleagues and would use such knowledge appropriately.					

SECTION D: PERCEIVED BENEFITS OF SHARED KNOWLEDGE

No.	Statement	SD	D	U	A	SA

	Through knowledge sharing practices,					
15	I have learnt to instil a sense of creativity and innovation.					
16	I have satisfaction at work.					
17	I have been able to produce quality knowledge.					
18	I have been able to improve my overall performance.					
19	I have updated my knowledge within my field of study.					
20	My teaching skills have improved.					
21	My capacity for research has increased.					
22	I have been able to enhance my curriculum development.					

THANKS FOR YOUR RESPONSES

APPENDIX B

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT
TEL: 0558093143 / 0508878309
E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh
OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/843
YOUR REF:
OMB NO: 0990-0279
IORG #: IORG0009096

27TH NOVEMBER, 2020

Ms. Kafui Aku Kemevor
Department of Business and Social Sciences Education
University of Cape Coast

Dear Ms. Kemevor,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE – ID (UCCIRB/CES/2020/79)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research titled ***Knowledge Management Practices among University Lecturers in Higher Education Institution.*** This approval is valid from 27TH November, 2020 to 26th November, 2021. You may apply for a renewal subject to submission of all the required documents that will be prescribed by the UCCIRB.

Please note that any modification to the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation. You are required to submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATOR
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

APPENDIX C

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS & SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION

Telephone: +233-(0)3321 35411 / +233-(0)3321 32480 /3
EXT: (268), Direct: 35411
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Dept. Telephone: 0209408788
E-mail.: dbase@ucc.edu.gh

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COST
PRIVATE MAIL BAG

Date: 10th December, 2020

Our Ref:

Your Ref:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Ms. Kafui Aku Kemevor is an M.Phil Management Education student of this Department and as a requirement for the programme, she is working on the research topic: "**Knowledge Management Practices among University Lecturers in a Higher Education Institution".**

The study is to find out how to assess knowledge sharing behaviour among University Lecturers in University of Cape Coast. We would be grateful if you could give her the necessary assistance to enable her complete the research.

In case she flouts any ethical requirement as the study may necessitate, kindly get in touch with her supervisor, Alhaji Prof. M.B. Yidana, on 0542638860 or through e-mail myidana@ucc.edu.gh. You may also get in touch with the Department on 0209408788 or through dbsse@ucc.edu.gh.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. Bernard Yaw Sekyi Acquah
Head