PROBLEM AREAS OF KNOWLEDGE IN A KNOWLEDGE ORGANISATION

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Abstract: *A knowledge organisation should constantly expand and grow in order to survive in today's competitive environment. One of the key opportunities to do so is allowing employees to use the accumulated knowledge. Organisations should enable employees to share their knowledge, while employees should be able to communicate and collaborate voluntarily and immediately, create new knowledge and accumulate individual knowledge. Although the need for knowledge is clear, knowledge movement at all stages of the knowledge life cycle is characterised by leakage, depreciation, dependence and trust. The article aims to review scientific literature and analyse knowledge issues in a knowledge organisation. To achieve this aim the following objectives have been set: analysing the concept of knowledge as a key resource in an organisation, examining the concept of organisation using a systematic approach and giving a critical overview of the scientific literature on this issue, justifying the need for knowledge at different levels and identifying problematic aspects of knowledge in a knowledge management process. The research applies methods of logical analysis, abstraction and synthesis.*

Keywords: KNOWLEDGE, KNOWLEDGE ORGANISATION, KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT CYCLE

1. Introduction

Knowledge has been analysed and investigated by many scholars: Drucker and Peter (1969), Bell (1973), Toffler (1980), Ackoff (1989), Argyris (1993), Albrect *et al.* (1993), Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995), Eulgem (1998), Davenport, Prusak (1998), Ulrich (1998), Malhotra (1998), Stewart, Leopold (2002), Bornemann, Sammer (2003), Gudauskas, Ramanauskienė (2004), Atkočiūnienė (2005), Lukoševičius (2005), Probst, Raub, Romhardt (2006), Ley (2006), Čivilis (2006), Stonkienė (2007), Činčikaitė, Janeliūnienė (2010), Girdauskienė (2012). It has been viewed as a research object since the times of Socrates (469–399 BC), Plato (427–347 BC) and Aristotle (384–322 BC).

Based on the issues of knowledge research and knowledge management research, three generations are distinguished. Researchers from the first generation of knowledge management rely on a structural approach, whereby different expressions of knowledge management characteristics lead to different maturity levels of knowledge management systems. Researchers from the second generation have created a basis for tacit knowledge management. Knowledge management research has allowed looking at knowledge management through a procedural point of view, analysing knowledge activities and transformation, moving along the knowledge life cycle from acquisition to storage (Girdauskienė 2012). Researchers from the third generation have combined the previous approaches, suggesting complex knowledge management and evaluation (Table 1).

Table 1. *Generations of knowledge research (made by the author based on Girdauskienė 2012)*

Research generation	Authors, year	Approach	Research aspect
1st generation	Churchman, 1971; Applegate, 1988; Drucker, 1989; Anthies, 1991; Gopal and Gagnon, 1995; Maglitta, 1996; Bair, 1997; Albert, 1998; Malhotra, 1999; Goodman and Darr, 1999; Hansen *et al.*, 1999; Boisot, 1987; Pautzke, 1989; Hedlund and Nonaka, 1993; Blacker *et al.*, 1993; Oberschulte, 1994; Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995; Greshner, 1996; Spender, 1996; Polyani, 1996; Wilke, 1996; Güldenberg, 1997; Probst, Raub, Romhardt, 1997; Laim, 2000; Hahn and Subramani, 2000	Structural	Examines characteristics of knowledge. Presents understanding of the transfer, encoding and storage of organisational systemic knowledge through information systems. Created knowledge management systems. Built a foundation for a formalised concept of knowledge management.
2nd generation	Nonaka, 1994; Galagan, 1997; Earl and Scott, 1999; Nissen, 1993; Wiig, 1993; Probst, 1995; Schulanski, 1996; Choo, 1996; Andersen and APQC, 1996; Marquardt, 1996; Holsapple and Joshi, 1997; APQC, 1997; PWaterhouseCoopers, 1997; Ruggles, 1997; Van Der Spek and Spijkervet, 1997; Alavi, 1997; Van Heijst, Van Der Spek and Kruizinga, 1997; Van Der Spek and de Hoog, 1997; Davenport and Prusak, 1998; Wiig, 1998; Coombs and Hull, 1998; Tessun, 1998; Saint-Onge, 1998; Despres and Chauvel, 1999; Skyrme, 1999; Gartner group, 1999; Nissen combined model 2000; Accenture, 2000; Ernst and Young, 1999; Young, 1999; Liebowitz, 2000; Grant, 2000	Procedural	Analysed the transformation of knowledge when moving through the knowledge life cycle. Examined organisational learning as a tool to ensure knowledge management or organisational knowledge. Explains how learning transforms individual knowledge into organisational knowledge, corrects mistakes and improves work processes.
3rd generation	Swart, Harvey, 2012; Pinho, Rego, Cunha, 2012; Cyert and March, 1963; Argyris and Schon, 1978; Fyol and Lyles, 1985; Boisot, 1987; Levitt and March, 1988; Senge, 1990; Huber, 1991; Lave and Wenger, 1991; Brown and Duguid, 1991; Augustinaitis, 1992, Hedlund, 1993; Nonaka, 1994; Boland and Tenkasi, 1995; Snell and Chack, 1998, Crossan *et al.*, 1999; Harvey and Denton, 1999; Brennan, 2001; Hall, 2001; Nichani, 2001; Greenberg, 2002; Butler, 2002; Jucevičienė, 2004	Systematic	The focus is on knowledge creation, innovation and organisational learning in all business processes, from the strategy to the operational level. Integrated information technology into a solid organisational framework.

When dealing with today's problems and socio-cultural situations, the emphasis is put on the concept of a harmonious man. Management theories actualise a systematic approach focused on professionalism, i.e. professional performance and universal quality management (Katinienė, Skačkauskienė 2014). The most important role in the development of humanity so far played the ability to learn and use acquired knowledge (Kloudová, Chwaszcz 2011). Some of the knowledge used at work increases the organisation's competitiveness. The more competitive organisations exist, the more competitive the economic sector and the country itself become (Jurevičienė, Komarova 2010). Systematically and purposefully used knowledge gives an advantage to organisations, while employees' knowledge, ideas and skills are the driving force behind a successful organisation (Skačkauskienė, Katinienė 2015).

With the current social and economic developments and technological progress as well as the emerging knowledge society and knowledge economy, knowledge is becoming a crucial factor, ensuring the successful use of human resources integrated into all areas of a modern life and the effectiveness of all specialists (Melnikas, Smaliukienė 2007). The latter circumstance creates the need to look for new ways to ensure knowledge sharing and the ability to improve knowledge management in organisations in a

targeted and timely manner. The article therefore aims to review scientific literature and analyse knowledge issues in a knowledge organisation. To achieve this aim the following objectives have been set: analysing the concept of knowledge as a key resource in an organisation, examining the concept of organisation using a systematic approach and giving a critical overview of the scientific literature on this issue, justifying the need for knowledge at different levels and identifying problematic aspects of knowledge in a knowledge management process. The research applies methods of logical analysis, abstraction and synthesis.

2. Knowledge as a key resource

In the face of changing technologies and rapid market globalisation processes, business development, competitiveness, innovation and building as well as maintaining relations have become extremely relevant issues both theoretically and practically. Organisations are forced to respond and develop change their management skills to ensure their competitiveness and business development opportunities (Katinienė, Skačkauskienė 2014). Many researchers of modern organisation's operation claim that today and, in particular, in future knowledge about prospect technologies, changes in consumer needs, nature, environment, people's way of thinking and cultural processes will be the main resource for organisations' improvement and development (Morkvėnas 2010). Dave, Dave and Shishodia (2012) state that knowledge management brings together different types of knowledge and creates a system from two different sources: people and technology.

Management structures and organisational measures are increasingly determined by configurations of information flows, knowledge content, skills of different people to create new knowledge and thereby influence societal processes. Normally, transformations in a society take place in the following stages: agrarian (agricultural), industrial and knowledge (information) society (Table 2).

Table 2. Stages of transformation (made by the author)

Type of society	Description of economic activities	Limiting factor
Agrarian (agricultural)	Food production-related economic activities	Farmland area
Industrial	Economic activities focused on the production of goods	Available capital
Knowledge (information)	The basis of economic activities is knowledge creation and use in all activities	Quantity and content of the available knowledge

Agrarian (agricultural) society is a stage of economic development, where most income comes from agriculture and investments are made into the use of natural resources and land cultivation (crop production and animal husbandry).

Industrial society is a stage of economic development, where most income comes from industrial sectors and investments are made into the recycling of natural resources and production.
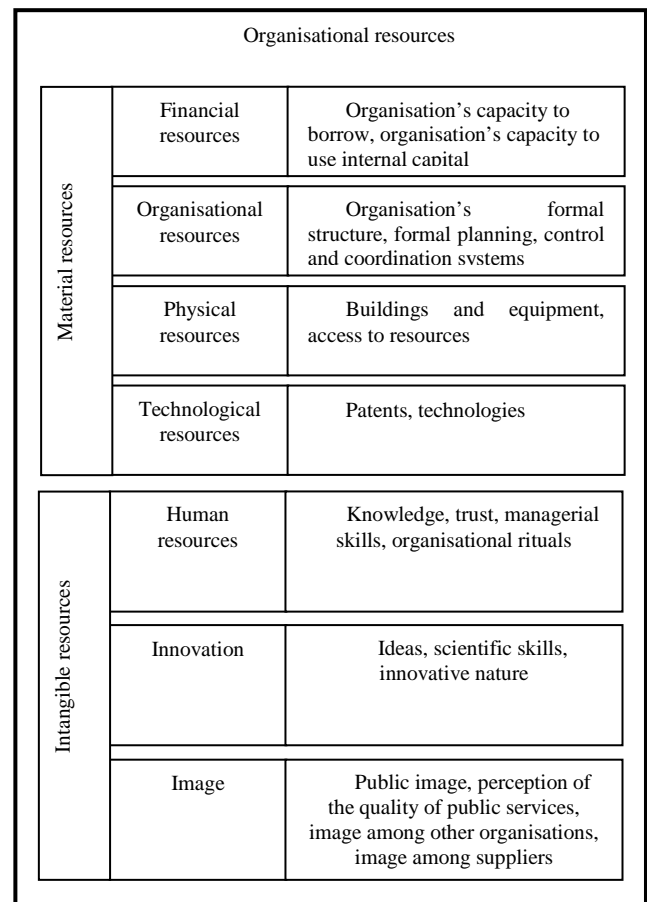
Knowledge (information) society is a society which is constantly collecting information in all sciences and industries. By processing this information at a later stage it is learning and creating new knowledge as well as adapting this knowledge in its life and work (Karazijienė, Sabonienė 2010).

Scholars suggest a fourth stage – a knowledge network society, where people with certain knowledge form a basis for economic activities. Organisations must respond to the dynamically changing environment. Innovative, new knowledge is becoming increasingly important, leading to the emergence of such concepts as knowledge organisation, knowledge economy and knowledge society. The importance of new knowledge is significantly growing. Creating it requires creative thinking, new management and administrative skills and innovative operational models. It is therefore hinted that such society should be called a creative society.

Being free to communicate, employees share necessary information and knowledge, which they can later improve and use

more often (Girnienė 2014). Means of communication are becoming more relevant since innovation requires skills to discover, understand, use, change and share knowledge and experiences. Information technologies enable fast communication and knowledge exchange by different video, audio and written means and techniques, thereby creating communication and cooperation relations. This type of society is therefore suggested being called a relations society. However, many researchers, public figures and heads of organisations unanimously agree that knowledge is a basis of economic activities in a modern society.

Transformation into a knowledge society changes consumer needs, structural units of organisations and priorities of resources. Resources are divided into two groups: material resources are resources that can be seen and measured (equipment, buildings and even official organisational structure), while intangible resources are assets forming organisational culture (knowledge, mutual trust between managers and subordinates, innovation and managerial skills (see Fig. 1).

Organisational resources		
Material resources	Financial resources	Organisation's capacity to borrow, organisation's capacity to use internal capital
	Organisational resources	Organisation's formal structure, formal planning, control and coordination systems
	Physical resources	Buildings and equipment, access to resources
	Technological resources	Patents, technologies
Intangible resources	Human resources	Knowledge, trust, managerial skills, organisational rituals
	Innovation	Ideas, scientific skills, innovative nature
	Image	Public image, perception of the quality of public services, image among other organisations, image among suppliers

Fig. 1. Organisational resources (designed by author with reference to Melnikas and Smaliukienė 2007)

Not only information and information management become an important asset, but knowledge and its effective management as well (Raudeliūnienė, Račinskaja 2014). Knowledge, in particular tacit knowledge, gives a competitive advantage to an employee in the organisation (Reychav, Weisberg 2009). Knowledge is a unique resource. It is expendable the same as material resources. Organisations have entered a stage where the value of intellectual capital is several times higher than the value of material tangible assets.

3. The concept of knowledge organisation: critical point of view

Every person has much content and various needs of different importance – constant and episodic, explicit and very vague. After the man understood that joint efforts allow them to meet certain needs more easily or better, it gave an important incentive to increase one's changes of forming certain structures where people

are one way or another related by common activities (Katinienė, Skačkauskienė 2014). To this day it is popular to call these structures organisations (Bivainis 2011). Organisations are systems, the management of which requires the following general conditions:

- a system must have a goal. It is set by the system itself, its environment, i.e. other systems, or by the system together with other systems;

- the controlling component of the system must be able to influence the controlled object (direct link) and accept information about the state of the controlled object's environment (feedback);

- the controlled object must be able to accept impacts of the controlling component and change its state accordingly.

According to the systematic approach, an organisation is considered an open system: different objects and forms of activity are connected into a whole based not only on the existence, but also on links, interrelations and operational schemes of objects in an organisation as well as patterns in changes of objects, thus helping to identify development patterns and find new sources of synergy (Skaržauskienė 2008). The aim of an organisation is to meet consumer needs and receive benefits (Bagdoniene, Zilione 2009). The success of an organisation depends on the environment, both external (macro-environment) and internal (micro-environment). An organisation can exist and develop, if the external environment is sufficiently favourable to its operation and the internal environment is being properly created and fostered, in conformity with requirements of rationality and optimality (Ginevičius, Sūdžius 2005). There are different kinds of organisations. Every one of them is unique and in different situation, even though they may carry out the same activities (Bivainis 2011). Among the names that are most commonly used by scholars and researchers today are learning organisations, network organisations, creative organisations and knowledge organisations. They all have been attributed key characteristics (Table 3).

Table 3. Types and key characteristics of different organisations (made by the author)

Authors	Type of organisation	Key characteristics	Expression of types of knowledge
Senge 1990, Augustinaitis 2001, Peleckienė 2015	Learning organisation	Personal mastery, systematic thinking, group learning, common vision, sharing new knowledge, analysing gained experience and anticipating operational perspectives	Explicit knowledge
Pelz and Andrews 1966, Stankiewicz 1980, Martin and Skea 1992, Hollingsworth and Hollingsworth 2000, Unsworth and Parker 2002, Fuchs 2009, Girdauskienė, Savanevičienė 2010	Creative organisation	Balance between production and creativity, trust, motivation, knowledge, skills talent, creating new knowledge	Tacit knowledge
Romme 1996, Castells 2005, La Rua 2008, Gotea 2010, Raeymaekers 2010	Network organisation	Communicating knowledge by networks, constant sharing of contacts and new knowledge	Explicit knowledge
Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995	Knowledge organisation	Creating new knowledge, sharing experiences, dynamic activities, external	Explicit knowledge Tacit knowledge

Authors	Type of organisation	Key characteristics	Expression of types of knowledge
		environment requiring radical changes Combining knowledge/information databases and people's skills to ensure benefits and effectiveness	

Lyly (2012) claims that the concept of *learning organisation* took a meaning in 1980, when business companies used learning to increase their growth, competitiveness and resistance to external factors. Senge (1990) described the concept of learning organisation as a process combining several essential elements, the so-called disciplines: personal mastery, changing opinion, common vision, team (group) learning, systematic thinking, analysing gained experience and anticipating operational perspectives. Organisational learning means creating and developing knowledge that is important to the organisation's goals and available to all members of the organisation. Knowledge is a basis of innovation (Girnienė 2014).

Creative organisations are those environments, contexts and surroundings, the characteristics of which are such that they exert a positive influence on human beings engaged in creative work aiming to produce new knowledge or innovations, whether they work individually or in teams, within a single organisation or in collaboration with others (Hemlin *et al.* 2004). The organisation's flexibility, organic quality and ability to adapt to constantly changing environment are supported by an open culture (Hemlin *et al.* 2004), encouraging to trust and act in teams, and by leaders who inspire to create, experiment and risk, enabling their employees – who can be relatively divided into administrators and creators – to act and make creative decisions (Girdauskienė, Savanevičienė 2010).

Globalisation processes and needs of knowledge society pose new challenges and requirements to be met in all areas of the socioeconomic development and scientific and technological progress of a modern society (Melnikas *et al.* 2014). Different networks, acting from family to society, facilitating the finding of solutions for knowledge management-related problems and assisting in knowledge dissemination are considered to be a promising and effective organisational form. According to Castells (2005), in a modern age of globalisation and information technology development, many functions and processes are implemented through networks. Moving from information society to knowledge society changes social needs of an individual, thereby creating conditions for networking. Lately, scholars from different fields (De La Rua 2008, Gotea 2010, Raeymaekers 2010) urge both practitioners and theorists to join into networks. Networks and communities should be created in organisations, where employees could examine issues they are interested in, learn and improve (Girnienė 2014). Forms of *network organisations* can promote learning and new synthesis of information which is qualitatively different from the one disposed by different actors. And it is not just a mere improvement of the transfer of information between two different actors, but more like regular constacts that can provide new knowledge (Podolny, Page 1998). In other words, a network becomes a place for innovation. After all, the most useful information is rarely the one transferred in an organisation in a formal chain of command or the one that may be anticipated from price signals (Ribišauskienė, Šalengaitė 2013).

The most important asset in a knowledge society is knowledge. When available and in use, it gives a competitive advantage to an organisation. Through communication and mutual cooperation employees create new knowledge and use it to innovate. The dynamism of activities, external environment requiring radical changes, employees' learning and knowledge play an important role in the success of an organisation. To ensure benefits and effectiveness, knowledge/information databases and people's skills are combined.

Summing up, it can be argued that a *knowledge organisation* has characteristics of learning, creative and network organisations. In general, to ensure successful development and competitiveness, modern organisations must constantly change, learn and create new knowledge in a challenging business environment (Girdauskienė 2012).

4. The need for knowledge

Different scholars, for instance Marshall, separate management from other factors of production (land, work and capital). Schumpeter also agrees with the statement that management is an individual economic activity related to the introduction and administration of innovation (Appleby 2009).

Management means a process where limited resources are combined to achieve goals. Brech gives a different definition of management: it is a social process, encompassing responsibility for effective and economic planning of a company's operation and leadership in implementation of the objective or task set (Appleby 2009). A process is a totality of interlinked or interacting actions of an organisation, which transform inputs into results (outputs). In the practice of organisations, a process is understood as a chain of actions (intermediate steps to achieve the result) with a defined beginning and ending (Ruževičius 2007). A process connects material, financial and human resources for the desired result. It is unique for every organisation. There are no identical organisations and therefore there is no uniform group of business processes. However, the following groups are the most common: management, key processes and supporting processes (Klimas, Ruževičius 2009) (see Fig. 2).
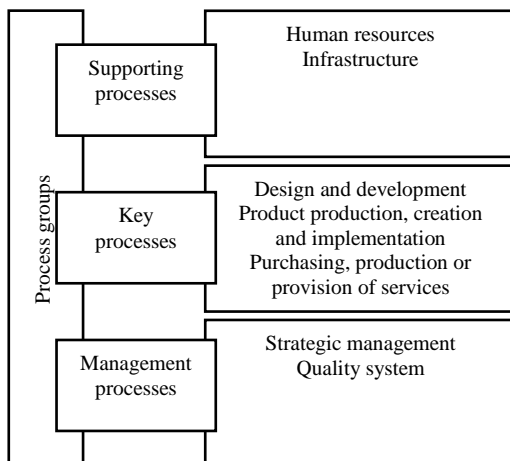
Fig. 2. Groups and content of processes (designed by the author based on Klimas and Ruževičius 2009)

Everything starts with a man – unique and distinctive personal knowledge forms a unique personal culture, allowing the man to express creativity and create new knowledge. Personal knowledge is the main driving force of operation, facilitating development, the achievement of new objectives, and communication and cooperation with other people. Using available knowledge at work a person can become more competitive, get a higher salary, create added value and acquire new knowledge. Dealing with simple, personal or complex, multifaceted and global tasks requires sharing knowledge between members of scientific, business or public sector organisations.

The biggest changes in an organisation are caused by knowledge dissemination and technological progress. Senge (1990) emphasised that only open and learning organisations would be able to generate a higher added value, acquire a competitive advantage, deal with difficulties and improve their management processes, systematically and purposefully manage and create environment which was favourable to effective knowledge management processes and organisational objectives. The modern society needs organisations that are ready for complex knowledge dissemination and management processes.

Drucker (1980) and Strassmann (1998) were among the first ones to talk about the importance of information and knowledge expressed in words – it is one of the most important and special resources, which, when in use, can bring significant benefits to the country's well-being (see Fig. 3). The need for knowledge arises primarily because of the public need and desire to create knowledge to ensure economic and social welfare and satisfy curiosity in this welfare, also because of the competitive advantage, ensuring necessary conditions for a stable economy, characterised by the implementation of effective national policies, a stable financial system and the maintenance of an effective market (Kriščiūnas, Daugėlienė 2006).
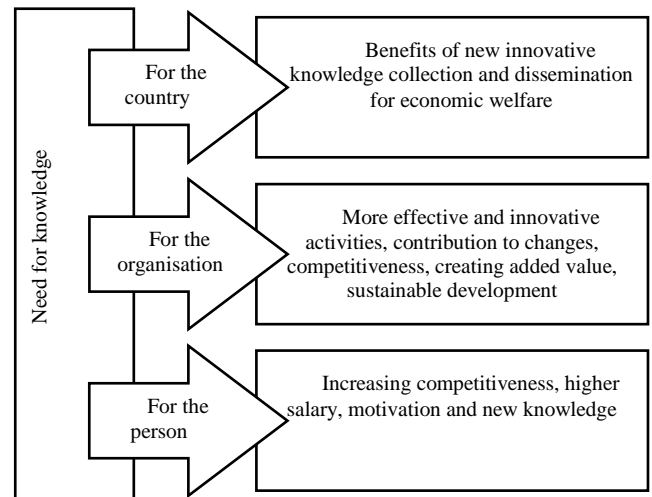
Fig. 3. Need for knowledge (designed by the author)

Summing up, it may be argued that the need for knowledge is very important at a personal, organisational and national level, and that effective knowledge management brings benefits to all market players. People are the key asset of an organisation, helping achieve its goals. It is one of the conditions necessary for the development of regular innovative activities.

With the constantly growing quantity of knowledge and possible loss of tacit knowledge, it is increasingly difficult to manage knowledge. To adapt knowledge in an organisation effectively, targeted technological solutions – knowledge management systems, i.e. information systems that structure knowledge management, are used (Girnienė 2014). Knowledge assessment is being increasingly improved. New knowledge management models enable further acquisition, dissemination and application of knowledge. Models are brought closer to the man – they facilitate not only knowledge management, but also the creation of motivation systems, revision of organisational strategies and focusing on career aspirations.

5. Models and problem areas of knowledge management

Speeding up effective work and operational processes, exchanging information and maintaining complex relations between members of an organisation require knowledge management. To manage knowledge, it is important to focus on knowledge sharing, examine synergy processes and analyse the speed of knowledge transfer through networks. The research on this subject is very limited or very episodic, covering only one area.

A successful organisation must store and develop knowledge as well as facilitate knowledge sharing among employees. Knowledge is cyclical in nature and must be updated. Knowledge management life cycles have been analysed by a number of scientists, including Wiig (1993), Bukowitz and Williams (1999), Dalkir (2005), Voehl and Harrington (2006), Conley and Zheng (2009). Andreeva, Kianto (2011). Nonaka *et al.* (2000) introduced a knowledge management model, where knowledge is divided into explicit and tacit (see Fig. 4).

Level of use / Type of knowledge	Group	Personal
Explicit knowledge	Systematic Systematised and grouped knowledge (documents, databases)	Conceptual Knowledge established in daily activities (concepts of product, value of a trade name)
Tacit knowledge	Routine Conventional and established knowledge in organisation's daily activities (organisational culture)	Experiential Tacit knowledge shared through joint activities (emotions, feelings)

Fig. 4. Knowledge management based on knowledge classification (made by the author based on Nonaka et al. 2000)

Beers, Boshuizen, Kirschner, Gijselaers (2005, 2007), Shum, Cannavacciuolo, Liddo, Iandoli, Quinto (2013) claim that various individual skills and group knowledge are required to deal with the abundance of knowledge and its increasing complexity in different areas, to have different approaches to issues and reveal alternative methods to solve these issues. There is no doubt that the emergence of information technology, growing data flows and the development of networks are related to knowledge management and the need to manage knowledge. In the model of Choo (1998), at the centre there is information which is collected and used for the organisation's operation, and in the model of Voehl and Harrington (2006) – knowledge. Many scholars (Voehl and Harrington 2006) agree that a knowledge management cycle is characterised by six stages: creation (people themselves develop new techniques and methods to do the job; it is also possible to develop methodologies and buy them from external sources), capturing (capturing of knowledge and its presentation in an understandable form), refinement (supplementing with tacit knowledge), storage (storage of knowledge in an understandable form so that it could be used by members of the organisation), update (knowledge must be updated, its accuracy and relevance verified), dissemination (new knowledge must be accessible to all members of the organisation) (Katinienė 2016). An integral knowledge management model presented by Girnienė (2014) distinguishes a strategic block, a knowledge management block and an innovation block (see Fig. 5). The knowledge management block includes five knowledge management stages: identification, acquisition, creation, sharing and storage.
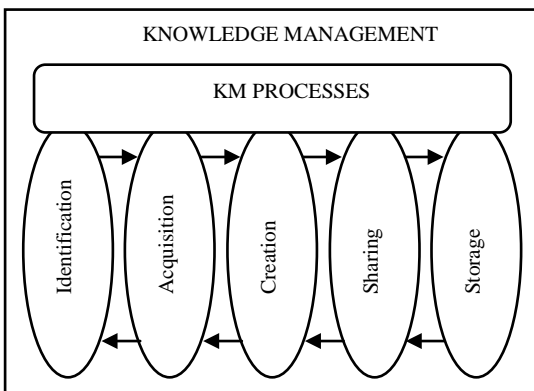

Fig. 5. Knowledge management block (adapted by the author based on Girnienė 2014)

Analysis of the knowledge management models presented by researchers raises some doubts about the sequence of processes. The first block in the knowledge management model cycle is identification. The available knowledge can help create and update other knowledge. Creation and updating are overlapping sets – when new knowledge is created, the existing knowledge is updated. Thus, it is appropriate to merge these blocks. Later knowledge is characterised by storage in an understandable manner so that it could be disseminated, reviewed and updated (see Fig. 6).
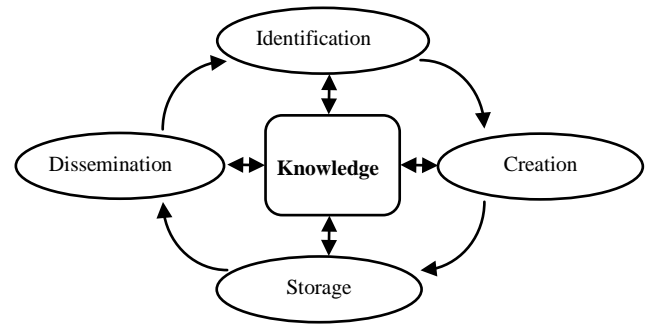

Fig. 6. Knowledge management cycle in an organisation (designed by the author)

At all stages of the model, knowledge movement is characterised by issues of leaking, depreciation, dependence and reliability (Table 5).

Table 5. Problem areas of knowledge by stage of the knowledge management cycle (made by the author)

Stage of the cycle	Knowledge processes	Problem area	Problem
Identification	Identified knowledge is in documents, videos and audio files, i.e. it is captured in an understandable form	Visibility	Not all knowledge is identified; some knowledge remains unnoticed
	Supplemented by tacit knowledge	Correctness	Depends on the subjective opinion and therefore knowledge may be false or correct
Creation	People create new techniques, methods and methodologies to do the job and create a new product or service	Leaking	Some ideas are rejected as unsuitable for the creation process and therefore such knowledge does not reach the appropriate subject
	The accuracy and relevance of knowledge should be verified	Reliability	Not always new knowledge is accurate. This is why there should be a certain time limit to check its suitability for the organisation and reliability
Storage	Storing knowledge in an understandable form so that it could be used by members of the organisation	Depreciation	Stored knowledge is getting old, i.e. it is replaced over the time
Dissemination	New knowledge must be accessible for all members of the organisation	Reliability, correctness, depreciation	When being disseminated, uniqueness is reducing and therefore knowledge can quickly lose its value.

Becerra, Lunnan, Huemer (2008) argue that the communication of explicit and tacit knowledge has different levels of trust and correctness. Many researchers (Dyer, Nobeoka 2000, Hall 2001, Kankanhalli *et al.* 2005, Wasko, Faraj 2005) claim that knowledge sharing affects the motivation of employees. Bock *et al.* (2005) and Lin (2007) empirically proved that mutual benefits had a positive effect on their attitude to knowledge sharing and influenced employees' intentions to engage into knowledge exchange. Chennamaneni *et al.* (2012) noticed that two-way communication promoted employees' desire to share knowledge. Dhanaraj *et al.* (2004) proved a significant impact of sharing tacit knowledge on sharing explicit knowledge. The employees' intention to share their tacit knowledge is perceived as a valuable resource which may have effect on their explicit knowledge. This is why the employees'

intention to share their tacit knowledge positively influences their intention to share their explicit knowledge. Thus, employees' intention to share tacit knowledge as know-how allows them to share explicit knowledge (Hau *et al.* 2013).

Nowadays, with technologies changing so rapidly, the issue of knowledge dissemination and ageing becomes more relevant, despite positive things that influence employees' attitude and desire to share knowledge and supplement the existing knowledge. When a man is an active participant and communicates knowledge to others, knowledge becomes known to all. Knowledge loses its value and uniqueness. It gets old as technology changes.

Conclusions

With the changing technologies and rapid market globalisation organisations are forced to respond and be able to manage changes, which requires knowledge – the most important resource of a knowledge society. It is a unique resource. It is expendable the same as material resources. Through communication and mutual cooperation employees use the existing knowledge and create new knowledge. The dynamism of activities, external environment requiring radical changes, employees' learning and knowledge play an important role in the success of an organisation.

There are different kinds of organisations. Every one of them has unique characteristics. However, the most popular concepts to describe the type of organisation are learning, creative, network and knowledge organisations. A learning organisation is prevailed by explicit knowledge as it promotes constant, uninterrupted teaching and learning. A creative organisation maintains a balance between production and creativity, trust, motivation, talent and creation of new knowledge. Regular contacts, sharing and communication of knowledge through networks are typical for a network organisation. To ensure benefits and effectiveness, a knowledge organisation combines knowledge/information databases and people's skills. Still, a knowledge organisation has characteristics of learning, creative and network organisations.

The need for knowledge starts with a man – unique and distinctive personal knowledge forms a unique personal culture, allowing the man to express creativity and create new knowledge. Personal knowledge is the main driving force of operation, facilitating development, the achievement of new objectives, and communication and cooperation with other people. Dealing with simple, personal or complex, multifaceted and global tasks requires sharing knowledge between scientific, business or public sector organisations and their members. Thus, knowledge is one of the most important and special resources, which, when in use, can bring significant benefits to a person, an organisation or the country's well-being.

A successful organisation must store and develop knowledge as well as facilitate knowledge sharing among employees. Knowledge has a cyclical nature, which makes it necessary to update it. A knowledge management model consists of four cycle stages: identification, creation, storage and dissemination. At stages of a knowledge management model, knowledge movement is characterised by issues of visibility, correctness, leaking, depreciation and reliability.

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