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Exploring the Global Community of Scholars – Lessons for Business and Economics

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ABSTRACT

The paper is concerned with deepening the understanding of how global communities of scholars or knowledge communities operate within a particular discipline, using philosophy – as the ‘Mother of all subjects’ - as the example. While there is an abundant body of literature on both social and organisational networks, and knowledge management, much less research has been undertaken on how academics develop and manage their own global networks.

This paper provides a new methodology for investigating the area, as well as empirical data on the scale and types of global activity within a specific subject area. This is in order to answer the question of how academics communicate with each other, using the example of philosophers and philosophy (RQ1).

Key influences are identified. Ways that academics use to communicate are identified and implications for academics and other professional groupings are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Knowledge, as the acquired and transferred learning of individuals and groups, is the key enabler toward social progress and economic success. It is of particular importance for academics and professionals because it allows for intellectual advances to be made in a cumulative (snowball) process.

The collection and distribution of knowledge has been a challenge throughout human history. Even the most primitive peoples have used methods such as story-telling to transfer knowledge from one generation to the next and studies of primates has shown that such transfer is not limited to human beings but exists in other life forms as well.

The importance of knowledge creation and dissemination has risen considerably since the development of the scientific method as an extension of natural philosophy, and this process has accelerated with the industrialization in the 19th century and the rise of post-industrial societies in the 20th century. Indeed, the creation of the World Wide Web may well be the single largest step in knowledge dissemination since the creation of the book or the invention of movable type printing press.

The meaning of ‘knowledge’ in the contemporary world is characterised as never before by the process of globalisation, where the transfer of goods, production, culture and ideas occurs at a rate hitherto unseen in human history, facilitated as it is by electronic communications.

In this time of accelerating social and environmental change, increasing competition, complexity and uncertainties, new ways arise to protect the survival of our very different societies. Developments in technology have forced a shift away from a manufacturing-based economy toward an information- or knowledge-based economy in the first world or in other words a shift from the 'industrial society' to a 'knowledge society' (Nonaka, Ikuji, & Takeuchi, 1995). New technologies enable global sharing of information and knowledge across platforms and continents (DiMattia & Oder, 1997). Today, knowledge is often assumed to be the key asset, which determines the success of an organization (Michailova & Nielsen, 2006). Knowledge Management (KM) – which can be considered to be the contemporary business equivalent of historical processes of academic discourse – can therefore be seen as a logical extension of the information society in which the developed world exists and far from the 'digital divide' which is increasing between the First and the Third World (DiMattia & Oder, 1997).

Global professional communities are rarely addressed in KM research which focuses on how proprietary knowledge - outside of free exchange within the public domain - can be exploited for financial gain and competitive advantage.

Little is known about how academics exchange information especially - if at all - on the interdisciplinary boundary with other subject specialisms. Traditional boundaries between different fields are lowering as can be seen by the rise of new fields such as biotechnology where two disciplines - biology and technology - meet each other. Indeed it is fruitful exercise to move away from the natural selection within subject areas in order to combine seeming strange subjects in a process of cross-breeding and imagine what the offspring might look like such as accountancy and zoology, or Pirsig's book on *'Zen and the art of motorcycle maintenance'*. In times where traditional disciplines are unable to provide explanations and solutions, it becomes more important to see what other disciplines can contribute.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A comprehensive literature review was a major part of this research, which covers the main aspects of knowledge, Knowledge Management (KM), the network literature, the literature on the global communities of scholars, and the idea of the university.

Databases, accessible through the university library, have been used in particular Business Source Premier, Web of Science, ERIC and JStor.

In addition to these databases the following search engines were used: Google Scholar, Google Book, Google, Yahoo and Amazon.

The following key words have been used for searches: academic research, research networks, knowledge, management, knowledge management, KM, philosophy, academics, global community of scholars, professional communities, interdisciplinary, and disciplines.

The literature review in this paper is organized in four main sections. It starts with the introduction of a broad area in quite general terms before focussing on more specific areas. The literature review begins with a discussion of knowledge in section one.

This is followed in section two by a focus on the creation and dissemination of knowledge regarding professionals and academics. In section three, professional bodies are discussed, and section four outlines academic networks and disciplines.

THE RESEARCH QUESTION (RQ)

The objective of this study was to answer a single research questions (RQ):

RQ (1): What is the scale of a global community of scholars and how do they organise themselves and their work, using the example of philosophy as such a community?

The study provides an overview of a global community of scholars using the example of the ‘Mother of all subjects’ namely philosophy.

The methodology used to undertake the research has been one of organizational information-gathering from primary and secondary sources, coupled with the qualitative approach of primary correspondence and indirect data collection.

Primary data analysis has been used to guarantee reliability of the raw data (Maylor & Blackmon, 2005). The secondary data is used to supplement the gathered primary data and for cross-checking reasons (Tharenou et al., 2007).

The research focuses on the global community of philosophers but the analysis is limited to philosophical societies in England due to the time and resource constraints of a preliminary study of this nature in terms of time and funding available. England was chosen because of both the dominance of English in international academic communities and the familiarity of the authors in it, however, this is not to say that its influence is greater than Greek, Italian (Latin), French, German or other languages.

This restriction to a single country is an obvious limitation of the study and can be rectified by researchers undertaking a global study or through comparative studies in other countries and languages, who may choose to use the same methodological tools of analysis as are found in the present study.

A standardized list of information has been collected about each society located. The list includes the following categories:

- year of foundation
- name of the society
- number of members
- membership
- dues
- publications
- issues (pa)
- circulation
- publisher
- gatherings
- affiliations
- web-site

DEFINING 'THE GLOBAL COMMUNITY OF SCHOLARS'

The subjects of the study can be defined as follows:

'Global' is understood to be all those engaged in a discipline throughout the world, irrespective of the language(s) in which they are working.

A 'Community' is understood as a body of individuals who share a common interest, whether or not they agree on the subject. Diversity of opinion is a mark of a robust community.

'Scholars' are understood as those engaged in the development of new knowledge in ways which are both valid and reliable, and which builds on what has come before. They can be regarded as being in the same intellectual (as opposed to physical) location, in other words the same 'mental space'. In addition, their work is freely available within the public domain. This is an important point as it excludes for example those scientists working on commercial contracts for private gain and who either exploit the work of scholars in the public domain or are prevented from publishing their work. Such staff are therefore not scholars – whether they work within educational institutions or not - but private contractors who have excluded themselves from the community of scholars through the nature of their chosen activities.

Therefore the 'global community of scholars' can be understood to mean "*All those individuals who engage in the development of their subject - irrespective of the language they work in - through the free exchange of ideas and research findings. Agreement is not a condition of community.*"

DEFINING 'KNOWLEDGE' AND EPISTEMOLOGY AS ITS STUDY

Ancient Eastern philosophers, such as Lao Tzu and Confucius, as well as more recent Western philosophers both have many traditions focusing on 'knowledge' as the subject matter and 'epistemology' as the study of knowledge.

"Discussions into the very essence and nature of knowledge, have occupied, since the time of pre-Socratic philosophers, the field of epistemology, especially with regards to its limit and validity" (Ariely, 2003, p. 1).

"From Heraclitus to Comte Western man relied on philosophy for the meaning of knowledge and for systematic explanations of its origin, nature, validity, organization, unity, and ways of knowing" (King & Brownwell, 1966, p. 38)

Since at least the time of the Ancient Greeks the study of human knowledge has been a central subject matter of philosophy (Kakabadse, Kakabadse, & Kouzmin, 2003).

Western scholars across various fields such as the economists Hayek (1945), Arrow (1962) and Marshall (1965) up to modern philosophers such as Polanyi (1998), have realised the central importance of knowledge acquisition, dissemination and use, to human development. Their writings have stimulated an ongoing discussion, which has led to an involvement of scholars and practitioners from other disciplines such as neurophysiologists.

Jakubik (2007) describes four views of knowledge:

- (1) the *ontological* view (a study of the nature of knowledge);
- (2) the *epistemological* view (a scientific, philosophical view of the nature of knowledge itself);
- (3) the *commodity* view (a managerial approach to knowledge as a static organizational resource); and
- (4) the *community* view (knowledge seen as dynamic concept, created in social interactions).

Knowledge can be understood as a complex concept, which therefore has been described in many different ways:

“Knowledge is a fluid mix of framed experience, values, contextual information, and expert insight that provides a framework for evaluating and incorporating new experiences and information. It originates and is applied in the minds of knowers.” (Davensport & Prusak, 1998, p. 5).

“... knowledge is defined as the cumulative stock of information and skills derived from use of information by the recipient. Where the recipient is a human being, knowledge thus reflects the processing (thinking or cognition) by the brain of the ‘raw material’ supplied in the form of information.” (Burton-Jones, 1999, p. 5).

The terms ‘knowledge’ and ‘information’ are often used inter-changeably in the literature (Kakabadse et al., 2003). However, the following distinction is made:

“Data represents observations or facts out of context that are, therefore, not directly meaningful. Information results from placing data within some meaningful content, often in the form of a message.” (Zack, 1999, p. 46).

Knowledge as Plato’s (1953) ‘justified true belief’ (‘what I know to be true’), is that which people *“believe and value on the basis of the meaningful and organized accumulation of information through experience, communication or inference.”* (Zack, 1999, p. 46).

“The knowledge debate is emerging from an individual-knowledge focus in the 1970s and 1980s to a group-knowledge focus in the 1990s and 2000s.” (Kakabadse et al., 2003, p. 87).

“The history of thought makes it clear that new species of knowledge emerge from time to time as a result of structural mutations that prove viable.” (King & Brownwell, 1966, p. 76).

THE CREATION AND DISSEMINATION OF KNOWLEDGE

At the start of the systematic knowledge-creating process in human history are the intellectual debates and dialogues that have occurred in scholarly settings in order to

map areas of understanding, provoke insights, challenge conventional thinking, as well as stimulate discovery (Watson,1994), all of which are key ingredients for the advancement of knowledge. Within this, a community of scholars can be seen as essential toward a systematic and cumulative process of research which finally leads to a creation of new knowledge as a step forward in understanding which is verifiable by others.

The first known communities of scholars emerged in ancient China, Greece, and Rome and resurfaced in the form of universities in the 11th and 12th centuries in medieval Europe (Watson, 1994).

Up to that time the exchange of ideas was limited to face-to-face conversations (dialogues), and disputations or debates (rhetoric) due to the widespread lack of other available tools such as printing, although hand written copies of texts were available. The spoken word dominated due to the lack and expense of the written word, including the scarcity or cost of paper and parchment.

Even though printing had already been invented at the beginning of the 8th century AD in China, it did not appear in Europe until the invention of the Gutenberg printing Press in 1448, thereby allowing multiple copies of a single text to be produced relatively cheaply as compared to the time-consuming hand-written method undertaken by scribes.

Prior to Gutenberg's invention, the systematic creation of knowledge through scholarly communication relied heavily on hand-copying of manuscripts, which was expensive and restrictive toward a wider circulation of knowledge.

To that time scholars travelled to locations with a high compression or 'cluster' of information sources such as libraries and universities with the library at Alexandria being the best example of this. In many libraries books were chained to the shelves to prevent their loss as they were extremely valuable objects in their own right comparable to paintings in art galleries today. With the development of the Gutenberg press, information distribution became less costly and also more widely accessible. Communities of scholars as groups within the same *physical location* gave way to groups of scholars within the same 'mental (head) space' or *intellectual location*.

Paper became the main medium for the storage and distribution of knowledge and the usage of books made knowledge accessible to a wider audience (as opposed to the electronic media today and the biological transmission methods of the future).

However two-way communication over larger distances was hardly possible due to the lack of an efficient and established postal system. With the emergence of the postal system in the 19th century (beginning in England in 1840) a new tool of exchanging information became available, which enabled reader and writer to exchange ideas in continuing - albeit delayed - conversations. Both mentioned tools - that of the printing press and the postal system - simplified the sharing, the creation and distribution of knowledge significantly (Watson, 1994).

The later invention of the telephone, followed decades later by further advances in telecommunications especially with the creation of the internet, led to further breathtaking improvements concerning the creation of high quality knowledge, its storage and high-speed distribution to an ever-larger audience. Probable strengths and limitations of the last two developments - especially the internet as a tool for the creation of knowledge and sharing of information - will be addressed in more detail in the following section.

THE BIRTH OF THE ELECTRONIC SCHOLAR

Up to the beginning of the 1990s, communities of scholars have largely depended on printed material such as books, journals, newsletters, bibliographies, the postal system for correspondence, distribution of articles for comment and reviews, and physical knowledge stores such as libraries and some devices such as abstracting services, as well as printed and electronic indexes (Watson, 1994).

This dependence on printed materials made the whole research process very time consuming, despite the fact that electronic indexes had become available. However a highly valuable electronic keyword search of an entire text was not possible up to that time (Watson, 1994). Furthermore, the dependence on the physical printing of 'hard copies' of texts coupled with the postal system made the whole process of distributing ideas and knowledge very time consuming and relatively expensive due to the costs of printing, postage and packing (for posting). Taking the need of scholars to communicate with their peers outside national or regional borders in consideration makes the problem quite obvious, hence the need for international gatherings of scholars at conferences, colloquia and other such events.

In addition to this, another problem is that knowledge, according to Watson (1994), is "*partially replicated in many physical locations, both public and personal libraries*" (p. 226), which requires large amounts of money to maintain such physical locations.

The rise of the internet equipped the knowledge-creation process with a new tool, which led to a quantum leap improvement in the quality and the speed of creating and distributing knowledge. "*The Internet tears at the tyrannies of time, distance, and the printed page*" (Watson, 1994, p. 226).

Owen (2002) argues that "*... technology developments in areas such as digitization and networking are changing scholarly communication in fundamental ways ... Its main argument is that the responsibility for scholarly communication is shifting from functional actors such as publishers and libraries to a more integral responsibility held by the academic community itself*" (Owen, 2002, p. 275). Owen describes a structural change in scholarly communication and knowledge dissemination away from printed information products to digitisation (electronic copies) and networks.

Evidence for such a shift can be seen in the focus of publishers on shareholder value (profits), which probably has its roots in increasing scales of the industry through industry convergence and a significant lack of contacts and identification of publishers with the academic community, which finally leads to rising costs of scholarly publishing (Owen, 2002). Furthermore, growing attempts at self-publishing are actually problematic in terms of quality control such as through personal or

institutional web-sites and the usage of open archives (Kling, McKim, & King, 2003). To this list of issues can be added the establishment of increasing numbers of global networks and the rise of digital libraries for creating and distributing knowledge (Chen, 2000; Fox, 1999).

Up to now, the majority of electronic media used by the academic community are simply parallel versions of traditional print journals (Nelson, 2001). While some see electronic publishing simply as a new medium of delivery, others (Odlyzko, 1995), believe in a change toward a permanent shift to electronic media which could revolutionise scholarly communication (Nelson, 2001) due to technological developments which simplify publishing processes and lead to shifts in power from libraries or the increasing power of functional actors such as publishers, to the academic community itself (Owen, 2002).

The speed of developments in information technology - as already described above - leads to high expectations toward improvements of scholarly communication, which enables rapidly and inexpensive movement of ever-increasing magnitudes of information, both in terms of the amount transmitted and the complexity of what is transmitted (for example, complex mathematical calculations which have hitherto been impossible to transmit in a paper-based form). A wide variety of new communication forums are available for scholars and academic communities and these are still increasing. Forums on the internet, such as blogs, conferences, electronic editions of paper journals, pure electronic journals, working article repositories, post-publication archives, pre-print servers, cross linked Webs of resources, gene databases, are just some examples of the wide variety of tools available for scholarly communication (Kling et al., 2003).

The internet made it possible “*to move us from a series of loosely connected regional communities of academics and practitioners into a fully interacting and participating society*” (Watson, 1994, p. 227). Old boundaries due to physical distance are disappearing more and more. Therefore the Internet as provider of a new infrastructure is invaluable for academics and practitioners. It enables new forms of collaboration around the world. “*The opportunity to use the Internet to collaborate with scholars outside regional boundaries lets us test the generalizability of our theories across cultures*” (Watson, 1994, p. 227). Due to time differences scholars are able to work on a project around the clock, the exchange of ideas will be in real time without any delay and the better accessibility of material through electronic databases will increase the quality of the generation of scientific research. The only real barrier which remains is language (Watson, 1994). However, the increasing dominance of English around the world (Ammon, 2001) and the continuing development of machine translation will make it likely that this barrier will be lowered significantly in the future. This new age of communication has also brought with it new problems of its own: a global profile of an individual has increased the correspondence to global proportions from all sorts of people from around the world – both welcome and unwelcome such as spam.

Further promising developments toward an easier exchange of scholarly information can be seen in the internationalization of higher education. Due to the adaptation of study systems worldwide (e.g. Germany has changed to the English system of Bachelor and Master studies), lower airfares, and increasing governmental support for

those academics going abroad (through Study Abroad Programmes etc) a wider spread of knowledge can be guaranteed. Universities will be more and more compared on an international standard, which forces a shift to become international “if they are to claim legitimacy for the knowledge they convey as being truly at the forefront of thinking” (Rudzki, 1995, p. 421). Growing demand of knowledge world wide will force a large number of universities to internationalize as defined by Rudzki (1991) as “a long-term strategic policy for the establishment of overseas links for the purposes of student mobility, staff development and curriculum innovation” (Rudzki, 1995, p. 421). These developments will increase the spread of knowledge around the world due to an increasing mobility of students, and university staff.

THE PLACE OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT (KM)

Knowledge Management (KM) is a relatively new field within management. It is a special emphasizing and reinterpretation of the traditional term ‘knowledge’ and is mainly used to describe the importance for practical uses of knowledge retention and transfer in both private sector businesses and public sector organizations.

According to DiMattia & Oder (1997), the growth of KM emerged during two fundamental shifts: downsizing and technology developments. Popular downsizing strategies resulted in a loss of important knowledge which led management to undertake a new strategy to store and keep employee knowledge in a process known as ‘knowledge management’ (Forbes, 1997). Forces of change, such as globalization, increasing complexity, high degrees of competition, changing demands, and new technology, led to a shift in organizational processes and resource strategies (Mårtensson, 2000). During the 1990’s more and more companies started to recognize the importance of their employees knowledge as a source of sustainable competitive advantage and a critical factor for the company’s survival (Black & Synan, 1997).

Technological developments (which increased the ability to record and store large amounts of information), accompanied by a flow of information resources (which led to easier transmission of such information), led to a need to manage the colossal and ever increasing amount of information in an organized matter. KM can therefore be seen as “an attempt to cope with the explosion of information and to capitalize on increased knowledge in the workplace” (DiMattia & Oder, 1997, p. 33).

The US Corporation Chaparral Steel was one of the first companies who started in the year 1975 to use elements of knowledge management. Among others, companies such as DEC, Skandia (famous for its extensive focus on intellectual capital) and GE readily joined the new field. More recently it has become a topic for serious study and academic knowledge transfer (Wiig, 1997).

Technology can be seen as important enabler in KM (DiMattia & Oder, 1997; O'Dell & Grayson, 1998; Ruggles, 1998). The internet, databases, portals, intranets, and other electronic networks are indispensable for the purpose of knowledge creation and knowledge sharing between individuals both within and outside organizations (Michailova & Nielsen, 2006). Nonetheless, managing knowledge does not rely solely on computer-based technology. Social patterns and processes need to be

addressed as well, which can have a strong impact on the knowledge creation and sharing process (Davensport & Prusak, 1998; Liebowitz, 1999; Renzl, 2007).

Since the 1980's a great deal of research has been undertaken in the field of KM (Day, 2001; Mårtensson, 2000; McCampbell, Clare, & Gitters, 1999). The majority of researchers focus on internal aspects of knowledge management mainly within domestic firms and Multinational Corporation's (MNC's). They examined extensively how MNC's transfer knowledge and developed instructions toward a higher performance through applying KM (Bjorkman, Barner-Rasmussen, & Li, 2004; Echeverri-Carroll, 1999; Joshi, Barrett, Walsham, & Cappleman, 2007; I. Nonaka, 2007; Ordóñez de Pablos, 2004; Riege, 2007).

The first book about knowledge management was published from Sveiby & Lloyd (1987) with the title *'Managing Knowhow'*. One of the first articles about KM appeared in the Sloan Management Review and was written by Stata (1989). Key writings in knowledge management are those from Nonaka (first article about KM in Harvard Business Review (1991)) and Stewart (first article about KM in Fortune (1991)) followed by the book *'The Knowledge Creating Company'*, regarded by many as the seminal work on KM, written by Nonaka, Ikuji, & Takeuchi (1995). They argue that *"knowledge will become the key to sustaining a competitive advantage in the future. Because the competitive environment and customer preferences changes constantly, knowledge perishes quickly"* (Nonaka et al., 1995, p. 298).

Even though the idea of 'intellectual capital' has been known since at least 1958, Stewart's (1991) article can be seen as an initial push toward a serious recognition of knowledge as a real asset and competitive advantage (T. A. Stewart, 2001). The proliferation of conferences, books, working papers, journal articles and the rapidly increasing number of consulting firms offering services centred on knowledge management bear testimony to its growth. Nowadays, there is broad acceptance of KM among both academics and practitioners.

The importance of KM has been put forward by, among others, (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989; DiMattia & Oder, 1997; Grant, 1996; Nonaka et al., 1995; Spender, 1996; T A Stewart, 1997).

Definition of 'Knowledge Management (KM)'

The term 'knowledge management' is often accompanied by the term 'intellectual capital'. The distinction between both terms is often misleading and seems unclear at times. A definition from Guthrie & Petty (2000) makes the differences between both terms clearer:

"Knowledge management is about the management of the intellectual capital controlled by a company. Knowledge management, as a function, describes the act of managing the object, intellectual capital" (Guthrie & Petty, 2000, p. 159).

Knowledge management is according to Wiig (1997) a broad multidimensional subject and covers most aspect of the company's activities. However, there is still no complete consensus on definitions and perceptions of the term 'knowledge management'. Due to its emergent practice many interpretations of what KM means

and how to define it are present (Blake, 1998; Malhotra, 1998; McCampbell et al., 1999; Nonaka et al., 1995; Wiig, 1997).

“Knowledge management caters to the critical issues of organizational adaption, survival, and competence in face of increasingly discontinuous environmental change. Essentially, it embodies organizational processes that seek synergistic combination of data and information-processing capacity of information technologies, and the creative and innovative capacity of human beings” (Malhotra, 1998, p. 59).

The American Productivity & Quality Centre (APQC) defines knowledge management as:

“strategies and processes to create, identify, capture, and leverage vital skills, information, and knowledge to enable people to best accomplish the organization missions” (Ariely, 2003, p. 3).

“KM is the process of capturing a company's collective expertise wherever it resides—in databases, on paper, or in people's heads—and distributing it to wherever it can help produce the biggest payoffs” (Blake, 1998, p. 12).

In addition to these definitions Wiig's doctrine of KM says that *“KM is the need to arrange our affairs to avoid rediscovering what earlier thinkers have created but maximize the reuse of valid knowledge and practices”* (Despres & Chauvel, 2000, p. 25).

The key concept of KM is that developed by Nonaka who emphasizes a distinction between *tacit* (hidden, highly personal) and *explicit* (formal, systematic) knowledge which is widely accepted among KM practitioners (Nonaka, 1991). They argue that it is essential to convert internalized tacit knowledge into explicit codified knowledge in order to enable knowledge sharing (Nonaka et al., 1995). However, critics argue that Nonaka's distinction is oversimplified and that the notion of explicit knowledge is self-contradictory.

Why is knowledge management important?

“In an economy where the only certainty is uncertainty, the one sure source of lasting competitive advantage is knowledge” (Nonaka, 1991, p. 96).

It has been widely recognized that KM is a key managerial function essential for achieving competitive advantages (Michailova & Nielsen, 2006). KM creates competitive advantages, enhances organizational capacities, facilitates output, and lowers costs (Mårtensson, 2000; K. M. Wiig, 1997). Capturing knowledge of a company in a database helps organizations to *‘know what they actually know’* and enables them to marshal and exploit this knowledge in a systematic way (Blake, 1998). The usage of databases to store information (knowledge) is an essential tool to make knowledge accessible to the workforce which can be seen as a way to improve the performance of a firm (Ostro, 1997).

Knowledge management can contribute significantly to become a more innovative organization (Hibbard, 1997). Furthermore it can improve productivity, competitiveness, and reduce costs and delays (Maglitta, 1995).

However, despite all the advantages KM provides the following quotation should be kept in mind when working on KM: *“KM is not a result of people having become smarter, only more knowledgeable by building on powerful concepts inherited from prior generations”* (Despres & Chauvel, 2000, p. 25).

This has direct application to the understanding off how global communities of scholars have ‘managed’ knowledge (as understood from the perspective of KM) in the past and how they are likely to do so in the future.

Problems and limitations of KM

Even though technology can be seen as a key enabler for the implementation of knowledge, billions of dollars has been wasted through extensive investments in information technology by overseeing that knowledge, unlike information, is embedded in people and therefore just occurs in the process of interactions (K. Sveiby, 1997).

More research concerning a better understanding of the dynamic processes of knowledge transfers across organizations and people is necessary especially in order to understand why some knowledge transfers are more or less effective than others (Riege, 2007).

The ability to share knowledge and to collaborate is often missing in organizations (Mayo, 1998). Employees are likely to be competitive by nature and may tend to hoard knowledge rather than to share it (Forbes, 1997). Employers are to a certain extent unwilling to trust employees and to provide them with all necessary information (Mayo, 1998). This raises the question of how an organisational culture can be created that encourages sharing of knowledge such as is used by the global community of scholars with a belief in the principle of the ‘free’ (in the sense of no-payment required) and ‘open exchange of information’ (as knowledge). However, this lies outside the scope of the present research .

Furthermore a poor level of shared knowledge could also appear because of a lack of awareness that experiences would be valuable for others. A study of 33 organisations conducted by the American Productivity and Quality Centre found evidence for this. They also found that an intelligent process in sharing knowledge benefits a company (Alter, 1997). However, according to Martensson (2000), knowledge will not have much value for the organization in building its competitive advantages since only relevant knowledge can function in such a capacity.

According to Michailova & Nielson (2006), nowadays knowledge is leveraged in a far more networked way due to the fact that important knowledge as a source of competitive advantage is often found outside the individual firm. Nevertheless, a few, if any information on how to manage knowledge in a network environment can be found which bears testimony that managing networks is a rather new and poorly explored field (von Krogh, Back, Seufert, & Enkel, 2004).

In summary, what the history of KM research reveals is, the importance of KM on organizational performance is significant as long as it is used properly. Notwithstanding, the majority of research on KM has been done on firms and MNC’s

and little can be said about KM of communities (of scholars) or the management of external networks in general.

FUTURE TRENDS IN KNOWLEDGE

It looks promising that technological improvements will continue to simplify communication in the near future. The ever increasing speed of the Internet and the increasing coverage of low populated regions with fast Internet access will contribute to global collaborations among the evolved form of the electronic scholars.

A development toward fully digital, networked scholarly communication is expected and the recent stage of a kind of hybrid system (incorporating both printed and digital information) is believed to be of a temporary nature (Owen, 2002).

It can be expected that the importance of libraries in physical locations as large buildings housing books will decrease due to the above described digitalization of printed material (Tennant, 2006). An increasingly large number of books is already available online (e.g. Google book), freely accessible for everybody, especially texts which are out of copyright. A growing number of online sources such as journals and magazines will contribute to a lower demand of the services provided by libraries operating in the traditional way as well. Libraries have therefore been repositioning themselves in this new environment in order to meet the new needs for accessing information through, for example, providing training in searching electronic databases and the creation of virtual (electronic) libraries (see for example our public access Export Library & Information Service (ELIS) at www.export.ac.nz).

The old and often criticized disadvantage of digitalized sources because of long upload times will not be maintained for long. The growing availability of a faster Internet (Broadband) will (and in many regions already does) enable the download of articles in fractions of a second and support video downloads as well. Accompanied by this higher speed of the internet, new tools are available such as internet telephony, online conferences, and web-cam (audio-visual) conferences in real-time. Boundaries of a financial nature such as high international telephone calling fees are disappearing. Already today it is possible to have conversations with peers all over the world at marginal or even no expense (e.g. Skype). Those developments will contribute to easier networking world-wide and allow an increasing intercultural exchange of ideas. In such a world, knowledge of who is in your subject community will be a key determinant of knowledge exchange and development.

It is likely that new ways of publishing work emerge parallel to the old ones such as submitting work to paper-based journals. A first serious development in this direction could be the establishment of SciVee, a platform described as ‘YouTube for scholars’:

“The initial premise behind SciVee is to provide a form of scientific communication that's intermediate between abstracts (which take a few minutes to read) and a full reading of a paper (which can take hours). The primary type of video presentation that SciVee intends to host could be called a "pubcast," in which a researcher provides a short video description of their work that's synchronized to the display of text from the paper” (Timmer, 2007).

Scholars would get the opportunity to get their work published much easier, due to lower barriers of entry, and faster compared to the traditional ways which require peer-review and editorial time. SciVee is expected to reach a wider audience through this way of publication (Timmer, 2007). However, it is questionable if the quality of those publications will be of the previous appropriate academic standard.

“Initial efforts have been focused on the Open Access PLoS journals, which allow the use of the text, to stay clear of copyright issues” (Timmer, 2007).

It will be inadequate in the near future (at least in the countries of the First World) to present a lack of communication tools as a real obstacle to a world-wide exchange of ideas. Rather, the lack of knowledge of how to use - or simply to be aware of - those tools, may be a barrier especially for older generations of academics and professional who grew up before the arrival of computers and the new information technologies.

Perhaps the greatest obstacle to maintaining the global community of scholars in terms of the free exchange of information within the public domain, will be the increasing commercialisation of academic publishing, where payment is required in order to gain access to published work. Libraries especially are faced by rising charges for journal databases which mean that paradoxically as more scholarly work is available, access to it is becoming more difficult and more expensive.

FINDINGS ON THE GLOBAL COMMUNITY OF PHILOSOPHERS

The Research Question asked:

RQ1: What is the scale of a global community of scholars and how do they organise themselves and their work, using the example of philosophy as such a community?

A global analysis of philosophical communities was therefore undertaken. The global analysis included an evaluation of a ranking of philosophical journals according to the European Reference Index of the Humanities (ERIH).

According to the *International Directory of Philosophy and Philosophers* (2005) there are 303 philosophical societies, academies and associations; 696 journals, publishing scholarly work in philosophy and related disciplines; 255 centres, councils, institutes; 1,217 universities with philosophical departments and programmes; and 584 publishers, publishing philosophical material, present worldwide (PDC, 2005).

305 philosophical journals (worldwide) have been ranked by the European Reference Index of Humanities (ERIH, 2007).

14.4% of the journals (44 journals) are classified as category ‘A’ journals which are the highest ranked international level publications, with very strong reputation among researchers, and regularly cited worldwide. Please see Appendix H for a list of all these category ‘A’ journals.

42.6% of the journals (130 in total) are classified as category ‘B’ journals which are international level publications, with a good reputation among researchers in different countries.

43% of those journals (131 journals) are category 'C' journals which are important local or regional level publications with a mainly local readership, occasionally cited outside the publishing country. Only European publications (ESF* member organizations) have been considered for category 'C' journals (ERIH, 2007).

It is noticeable that there are just a few philosophical societies and journals from Asian countries. One explanation for this could be a barrier of communication because of language differences. Another reason could be that the political system in Asian countries does not support scholarly research in the field of philosophy or even prevent it at all.

"The European Science Foundation (ESF) provides a platform for its Member Organizations to advance European research and explore new directions for research at the European level. Established in 1974 as an independent non-governmental organization, the ESF currently serves 75 Member Organizations across 30 countries" ("European reference index for the humanities (ERIH)," 2005, p. a).

The frequency of the emergence of philosophical societies in the United Kingdom until 2002 bears testimony to the high importance of philosophical thinking around the world. A drop of establishments in the UK after 2002 could be explained by a saturated UK market in this field. Evidence that those societies established in times of lower frequency of foundations contain more members due to fewer alternatives could not be found.

Concerning the status of membership (open or restricted) and its influence on the number of members, no evidence for a positive or negative correlation could be identified. Therefore the kind of membership does not have any influence on the number of members per society. The study shows that people who are interested to join a society are usually qualified through their profession anyway and therefore restrictions concerning membership are not seen as real boundaries.

An unusual positive correlation between dues and the number of members per society has been identified. One reason for this could be that higher fees include benefits such as subscriptions to journals, newsletters etc. A deeper investigation of this has been suggested for future research. Besides, the data shows that it is not advisable for societies with a few members to charge membership dues due to the small amount of income raised from such fees compared to the high cost of administration expenditures. Instead income can be gained from the sale of publications or from attendance at the annual conference or other gatherings.

Publications are up to day the most important source for distributing knowledge to a wider audience. The research shows that the majority (55%) of societies distribute publications to a wider audience than just to their members. However, there are societies present without any publications (20%) or a circulation which is lower than their number of members (10%). Those societies do not use the tool of publication or use it just partly to communicate probably just inside their own society.

The growing usage of tools such as e-publishing and the availability of information on societies web-pages support Watson's (1994) and Owen's (2002) beliefs that technological developments changes scholarly communication, which becomes faster

and digitized. Nelson's (2001) statement that the majority of electronic media used by the academic community are simply parallel versions of traditional print journals is - six years after this statement - still the reality. Furthermore Owen's (2002) postulation of a shift of power to the academic community itself cannot be fully supported as many societies have outsourced their management of publications to publishers. However, the increasing power of societies due to new tools such as e-publishing cannot be fully neglected but to the present stage it might be just marginal.

The research shows that the wide majority of societies (98%) use gatherings of their members and others as a tool to distribute knowledge with 'annual conferences' and 'small meetings' being by far the most popular tools among the societies followed by 'annual meetings' and 'lectures'. This is by far the most popular method of disseminating knowledge with all societies except one having at least one kind of gathering per year.

CONCLUSION

In considering the findings of this research, it is clear that a much deeper understanding has been achieved. In part this is due to the literature review but also to the quantitative and qualitative work undertaken.

The authors would welcome the opportunity to communicate with researchers in other subject areas and in other countries in order to develop a greater understanding of the subject.

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ABER

Appendices

Appendix A: *Table I:* Philosophical Societies UK

Excel Sheet: Philosophical Societies UK: A3 Format (4 pages)

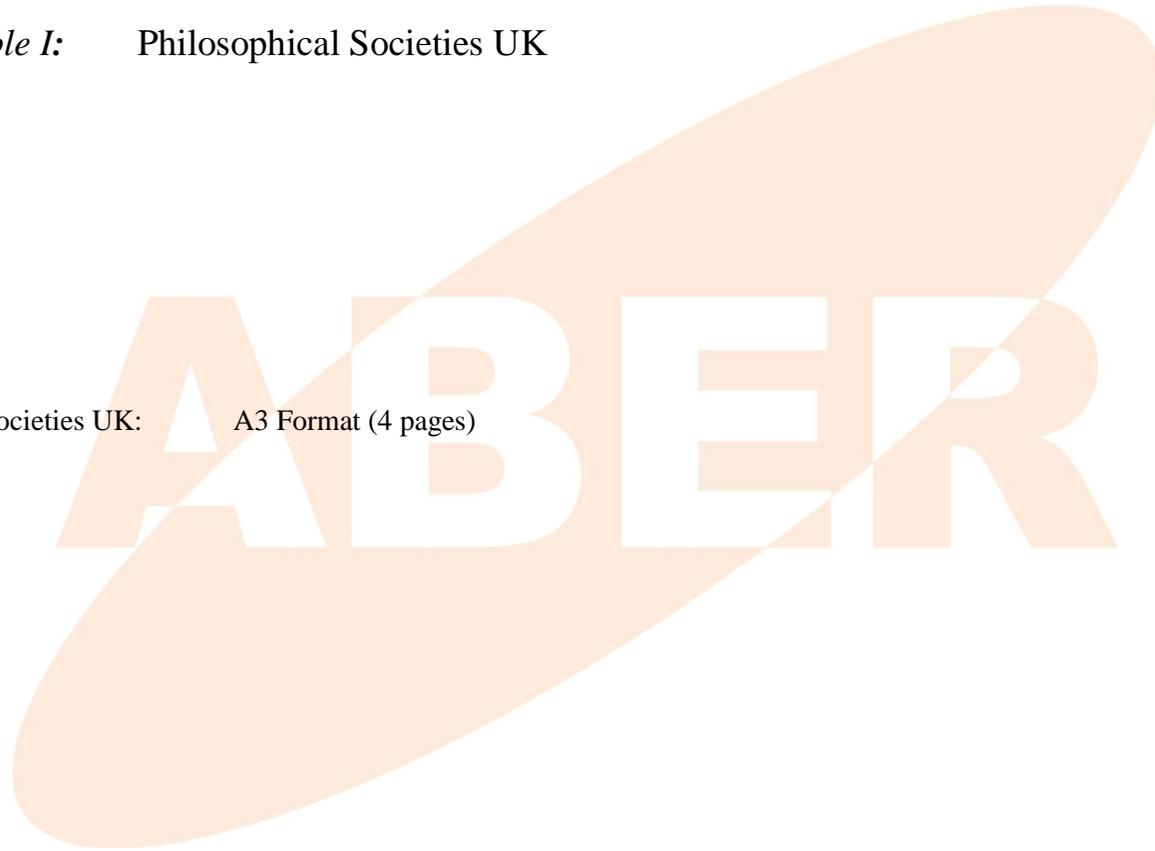


Table 1: UK Community Analysis

Year	Name	Country	Members	Membership	Dues (Sta.)	Publications	Issues (pa)	Circulation	Publisher	Gatherings
1793*	South Place Ethical Society*	UK	400	Open	£10	Ethical Record; Conway Memorial Lecture; pamphlets	monthly annual		In-house	Sunday meetings
1802	Royal Philosophical Society of Glasgow	UK	645 (a 50 years high)	Open	£25					Fortnightly lectures October to March
1810*	The Swedenborg Society*	UK	900	Open	£5	The Writings of Emanuel Swedenborg; catalogue and annual report; biographies of Swedenborg; magazine			The Swedenborg Foundation	Annual meeting; lectures; irregular conferences;
1819	Leeds Philosophical and Literary Society	UK	156	Open	£18	Proceedings of the Leeds Philosophical and Literary Society (ceased in 1999); annual reports; monographs			In-house	Lectures; annual meeting; annual science fair;
1821	Belfast Natural History and Philosophical Society	UK	90	Restricted (seems to be open)	£10	books				meetings; annual conference; Lectures
1823	Whitby Literary and Philosophical Society	UK	770	Restricted	£15 (from Oct. 1)	Fire over Fylingdales which is not considered o/o/p				Monthly lectures
1875*	Theosophical Society of England*	UK	900	Open	£34	Insight	4		In-house	Workshops; lectures
1877	Mind Association	UK	642	Open	£31	Mind	4	3,200	Oxford University Press	Annual conference (Joint session) each July at a University
1879	Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies	UK	3,200	Open	£41 (2008)	Journal of Hellenic Studies; Archaeological Reports; supplementary papers	Annual Occasion.	3,000	In-house	Four lecture meetings a year in London and other throughout the UK
1880	Aristotelian Society for the systematic study of philosophy	UK	700	Open	£3-30	Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society; Supplementary Volume (containing papers delivered at the Joint Session); book series	3 (Online) 1 hardback yearly; Annual	1,500	Blackwell Publishing; Oxford University Press	Meetings fortnightly in London (open for non-members), annual conference (joint session with the Mind Association)
1886	Francis Bacon Society	UK	100	Open	£7,50	Baconiana (relaunched as electronic journal); now as free e-journal available at their web-page	variable			Annual general meeting; around four social meetings, lecture and discussion
1901	Scots	UK	112	Restricted		The Philosophical Quarterly	4	1,300	Blackwell	Twice a year meetings

1944	Society of Metaphysicians	UK	2,500	Restricted	£50	Neometaphysical newsletters; Borderline Science Series; Esoteric Series; Metaphysical Series; Current Affairs Series; reprints of rare books (1983 titles)			In-house	Annual meeting; small research meetings: : e-mail. Messenger / Metaphysical Research Group/ Holistic Centre, Bexhill on Sea , Energy Center, Trieste, Italy/ etc
1948*	Irish Philosophical Club*	UK	50	Open	£5	Papers read are occasionally published				Once a year meeting
1950	British Society for the Philosophy of Science (BSPS)	UK	320	Open	£7	British Journal for the Philosophy of Science	4	1,700	Oxford University Press and In-house	Regular speaker meeting; annual general meeting; annual conference
1952	International Humanist and Ethical Union (IHEU)	UK	100 orga. (3-4 million)	Open	£33	International Humanist News Quarterly	4			Congresses every three years
1953*	Northern Association for Ancient Philosophy*	UK		Open	None					Annual conference
1957*	Birkbeck College Philosophy Society*	UK	45	Open	£10	ITIA (a journal that includes student contributions)				Six to eight formal meetings during the academic year
1960	British Society of Aesthetics	UK	250	Open	£30	British Journal of Aesthetics	4	3,000	Oxford University Press	Annual conferences plus various colloquia
1964	Philosophy of Education Society of Great Britain (PESGB)	UK	500	Open	£24	Journal of Philosophy of Education IMPACT (booklet since 1999) Newsletter	4	1,900	Blackwell Publisher In-house*	Annual international three day conference; regular meetings
1972	Association for Legal and Social Philosophy (ALSP)	UK	200	Open	£30	Res Publica	4	250	Springer	Annual Conference; ; other occasional one-day meetings
1972	International Association for	UK	83	Open	£36	Journal of Philosophy of Sport; PSSS Newsletter	2 3		Human Kinetics	Annual meeting

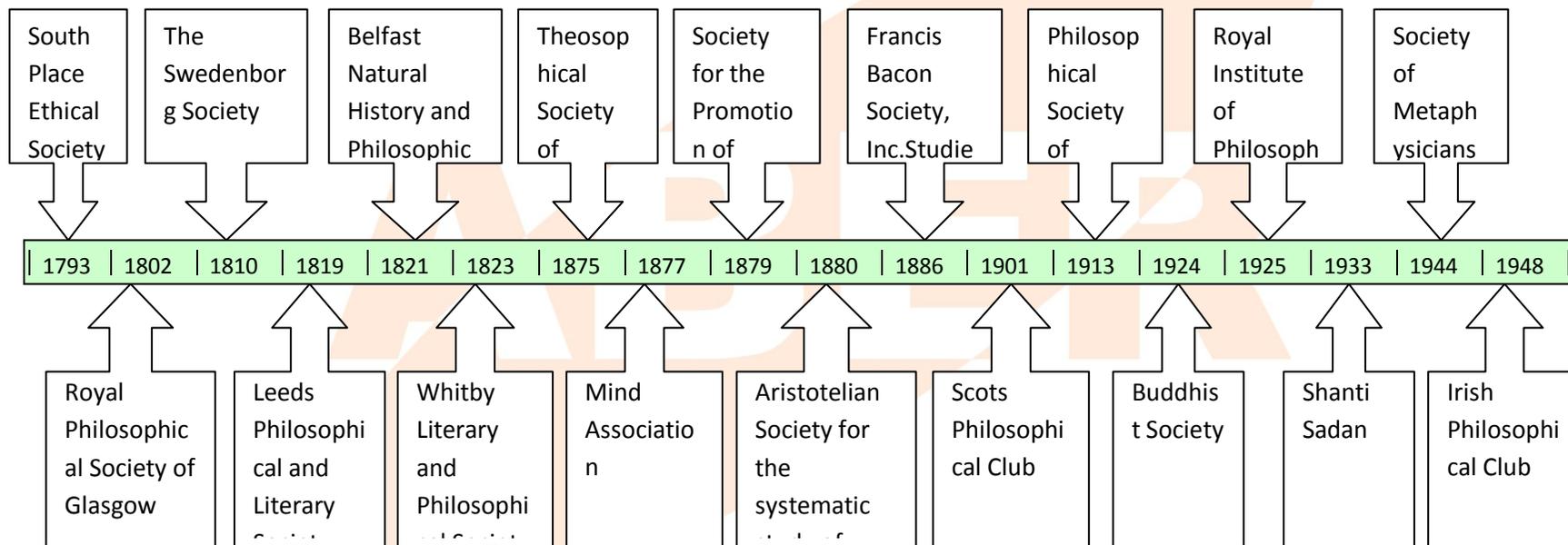
1987	International Development Ethics Association (IDEA)	UK	100	Open	£35-68	Newsletter (accessible via Web site) (Membership now include a subscription to Journal of Global Ethics)				International conference every 2-3 years, held at various locations throughout the world
1989*	Society for Woman in Philosophy* (SWIP UK)	UK	150	Restricted	£20	Woman's Philosophy Review	3		In-house	One or two meeting per year and a number of small workshops
1992*	United Kingdom Society for Sartrean Studies*	UK		Open	£25-45	Sartre Studies International	2		Berghahn Books	Annual conference
1992	SAPERE: The Society for Advancing Philosophical Enquiry & Reflection in Education	UK	1000	Open	£30	Newsletter	4	1000	In-house*	Meetings; conferences
1994*	R G Collingwood Society*	UK	304	Open	£12	Collingwood and British Idealism Studies: Incorporating Bradley Studies	2		Imprint Academic	meet at least twice per year; Conference every three years
1994	United Kingdom Kant Society	UK	70	Open	£15	Kantian Review	2	200	University of Wales Press	Annual conferences; additional meetings
1996*	British Society for Ethical Theory*	UK	100	Open	£8	Ethical Theory and Moral Practice(selected conference proceedings)(Netherlands)	4		Springer Dordrecht	Annual meetings
1996	Forum for European Philosophy	UK		Open	£30	Public Programs	3	1000		Annual conference; 4 dialogs; 8 provocations; book forums; European Events 4-6; annual lecture series; 4 public lectures;
1998*	Anglo-American Society for Philosophical Practice* (AASPP)	UK		Open	£25					Six meetings each year; lectures; annual field trip

2002	International Society for Philosophers(ISFP)	UK	1354 (at 09.09.07)	Open	£15 (Life)	Philosophy for Business Philosophy & Wirtschaft Philosophy Pathways (E-Journals)	irregular - normally monthly	1000+	In-house	Online Conference
	Glasgow University Philosophy Society*	UK		Restricted	None	The Philosophy Magazine				Fortnightly during school terms
	The Bradley Society*	UK			£10	Collingwood and British Idealism Studies, Incorporating Bradley Studies	2		Imprint Academic (since 2005)	Meetings
	Data which is not confirmed from the societies is marked with an asterisk(*)									
	not in PDC directory		Not available/accessible							

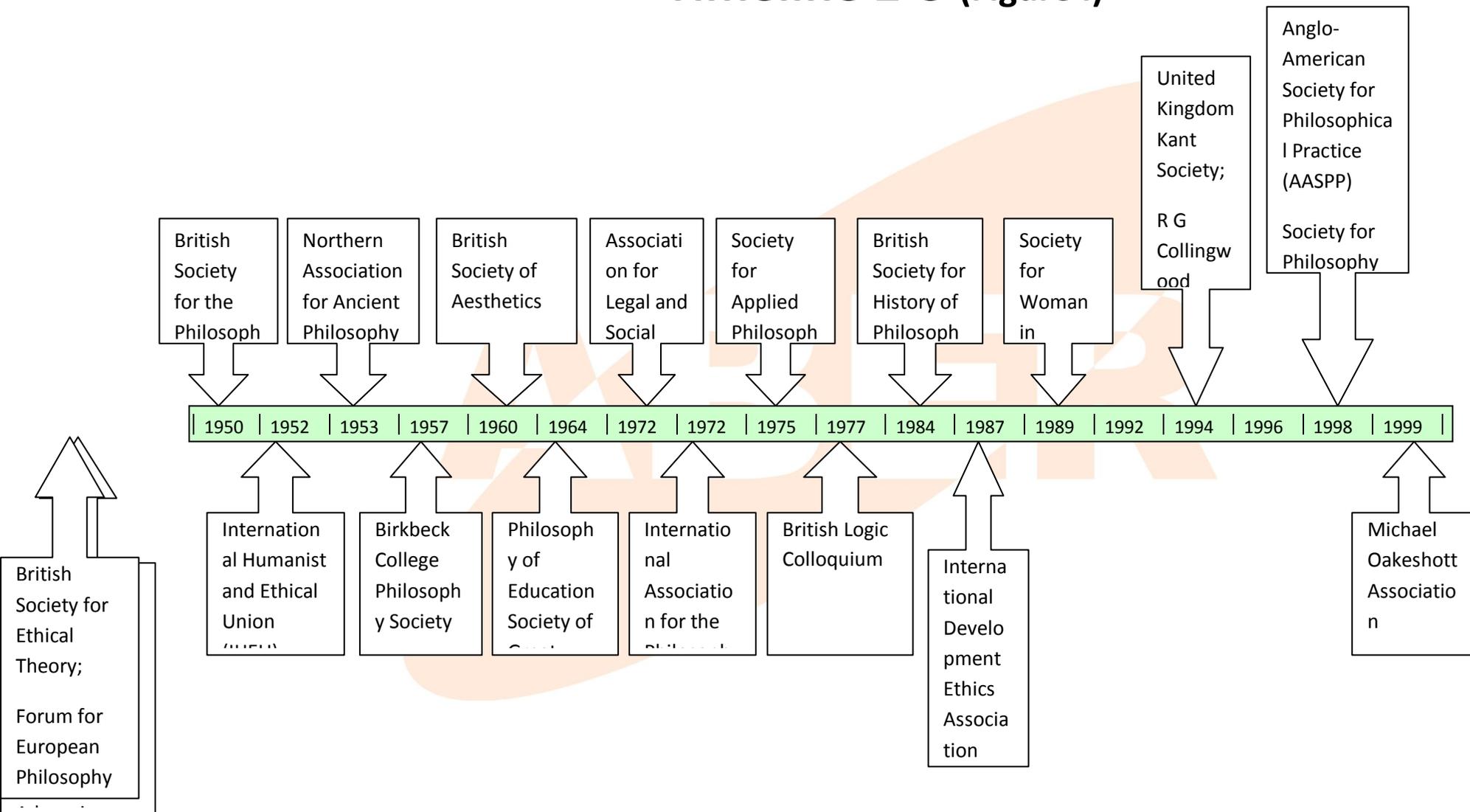


Appendix B: Figure I: Timeline 1-3

Timeline 1-3 (Figure I)



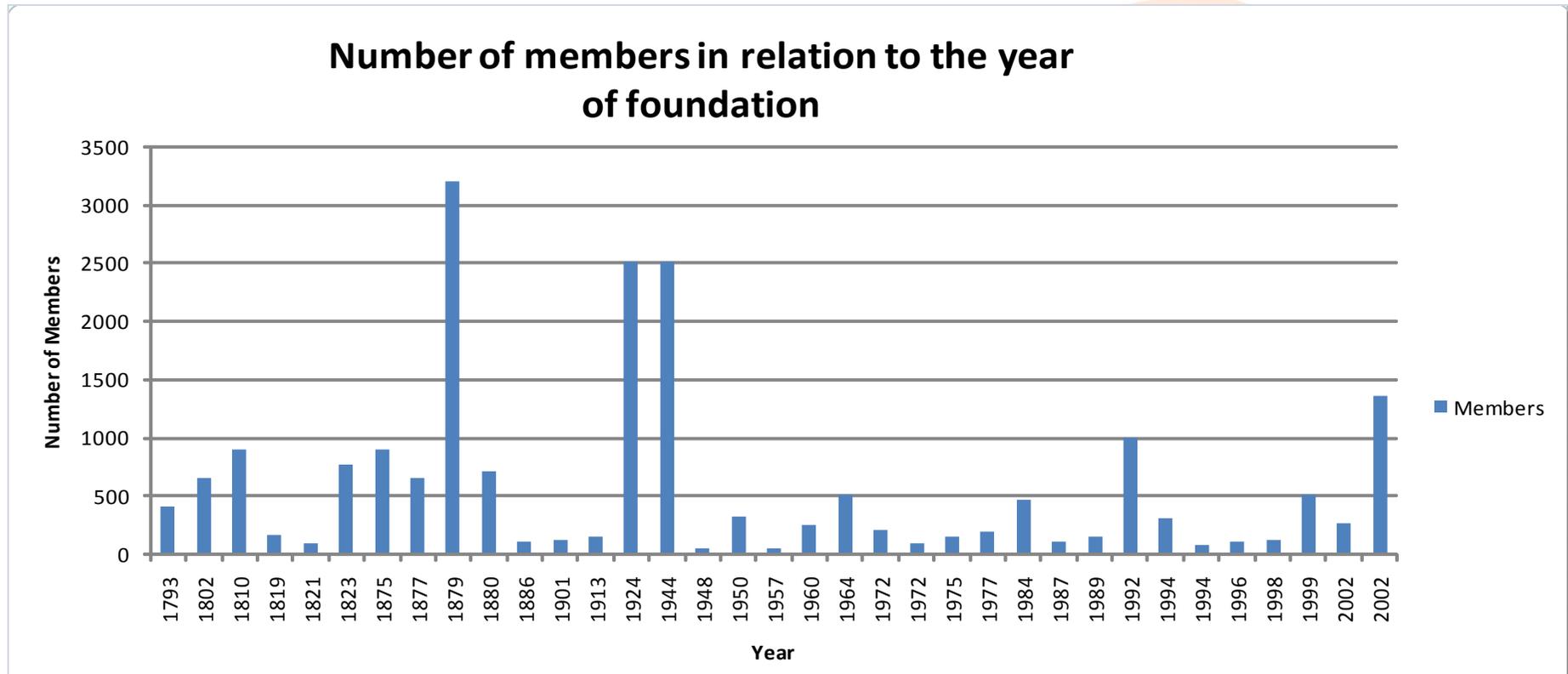
Timeline 2-3 (Figure I)



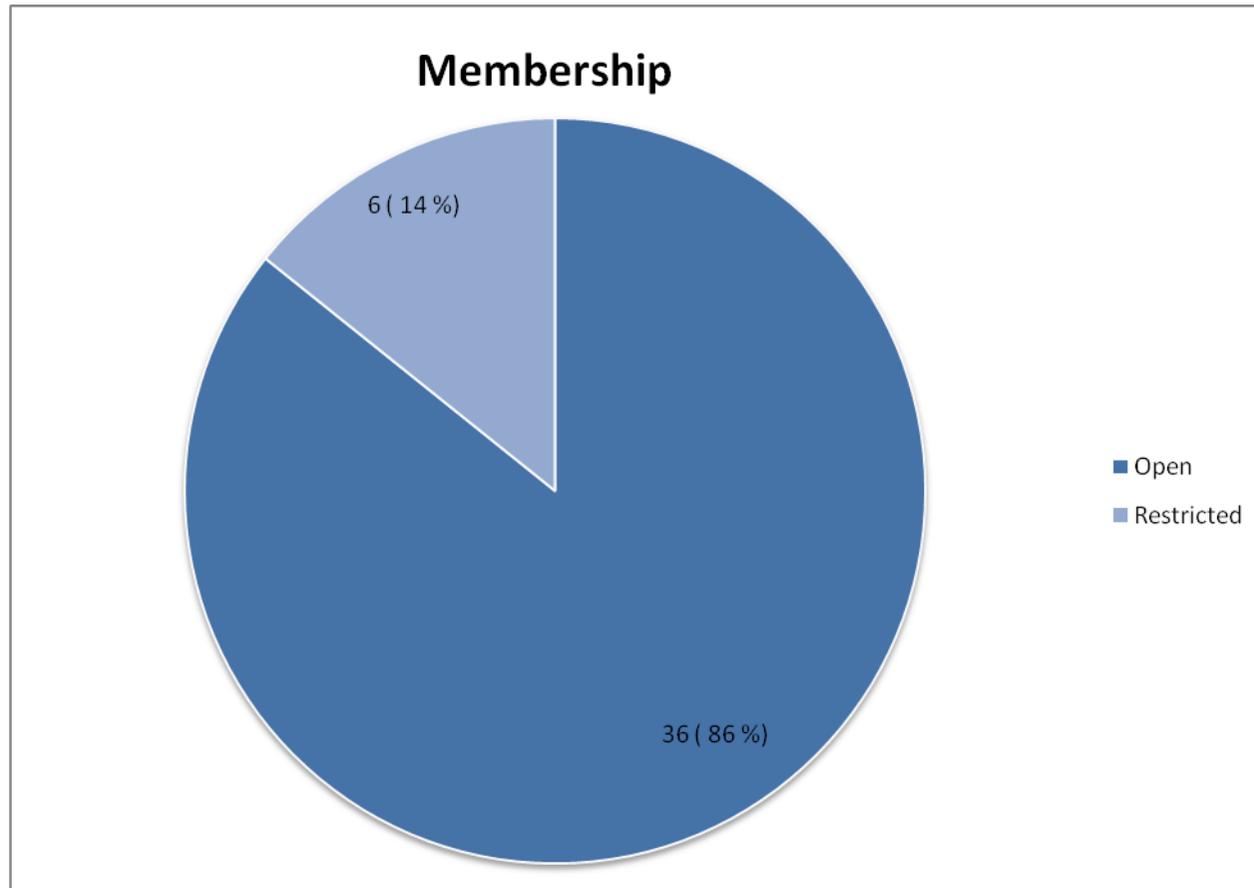
Timeline 3-3 (Figure I)



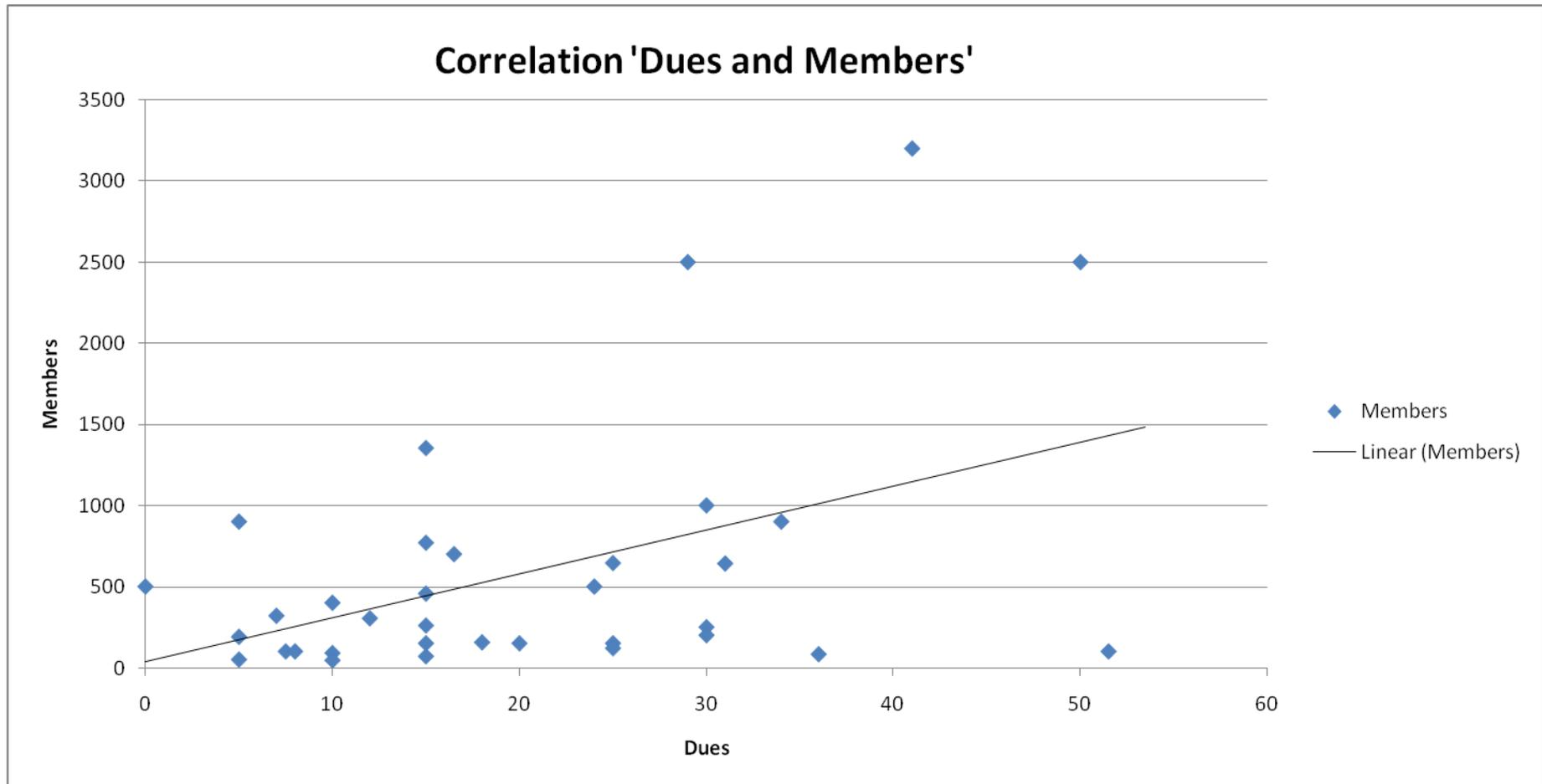
Appendix C: Figure II: Number of members



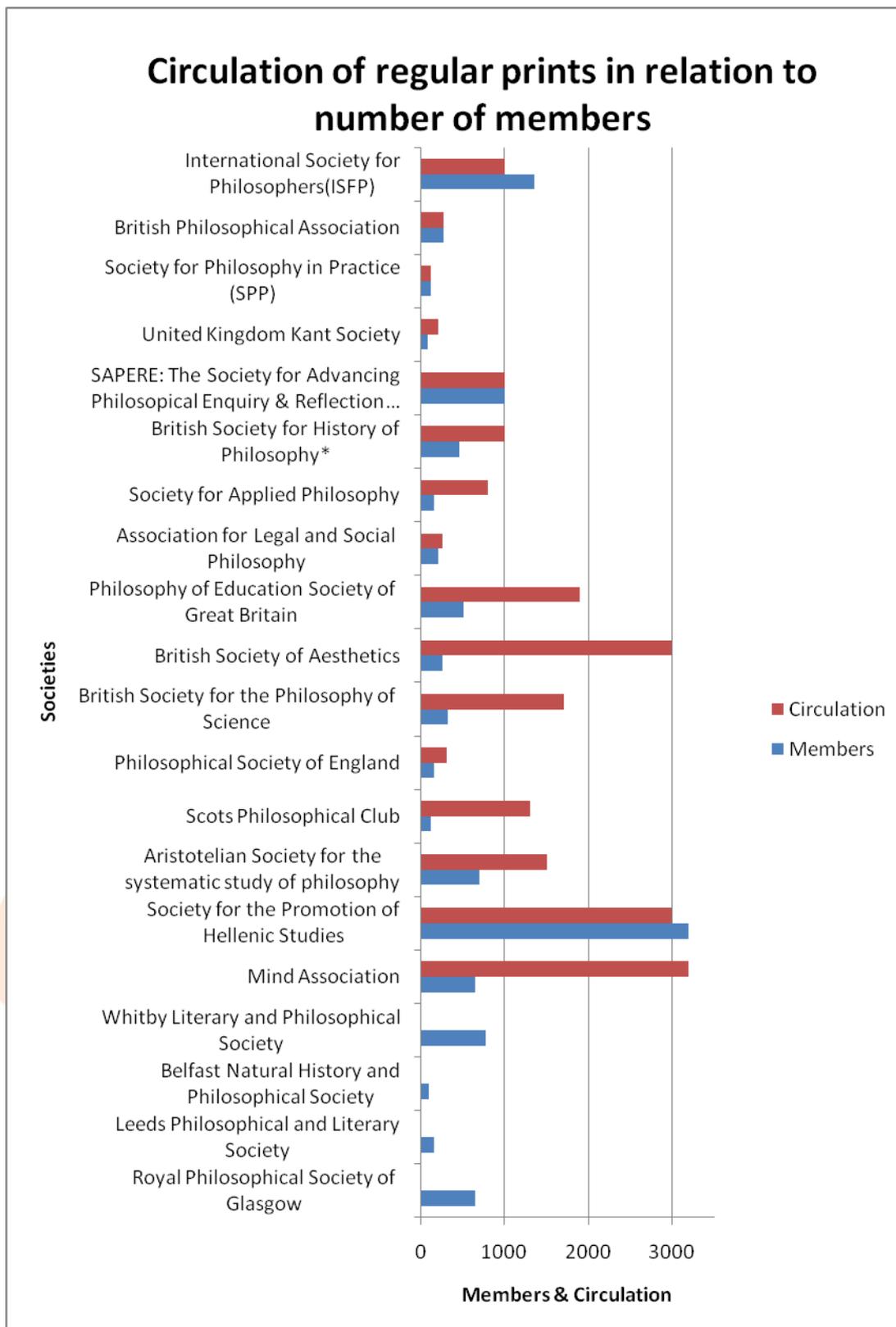
Appendix D: Figure III: Membership



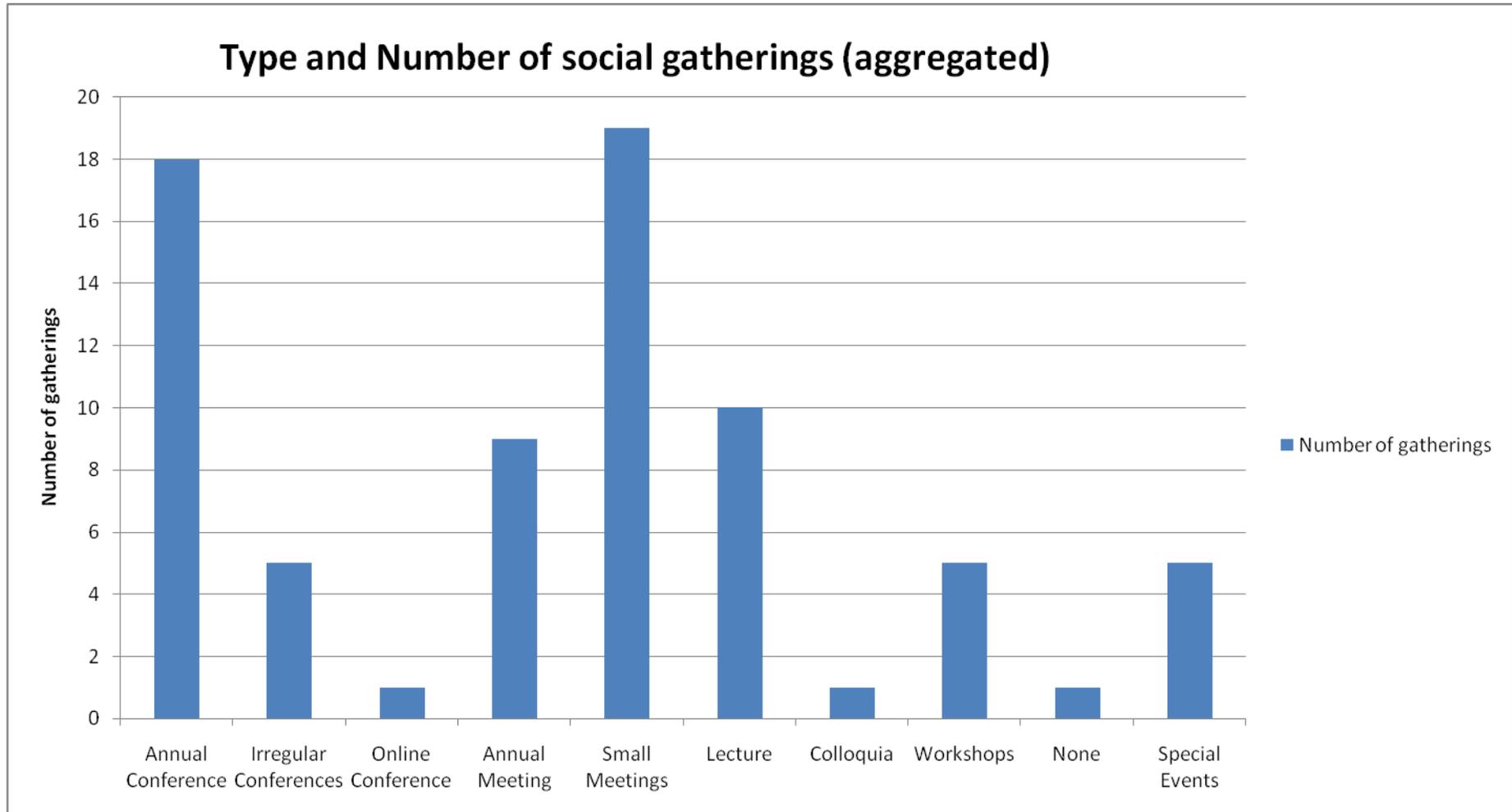
Appendix E: Figure IV: Correlation Dues and Members



Appendix F: Figure V: Circulation of regular prints



Appendix G: *Figure VI:* Type and number of social gatherings



Appendix H: Table II: Ranking of Philosophical Journals

Ranking of Philosophical Journals

*According to the European Reference Index (2007)***List of all category A journals:** (date, number of issues and circulation according to the International Directory 2005/06 published by the Philosophy Documentation Center and websites)

Name	Founded	Issues (pa)	Circulation
American Philosophical Quarterly	1964	4	
Analysis	1933	4	1,500
Australasian Journal of Philosophy	1923	4	1,200
Biology and Philosophy	1986*	5	
British Journal for the History of Philosophy	1993	4	1,000
British Journal for the Philosophy of Science	1950	4	1,700
Bulletin of Symbolic Logic	1995	4	
Economics and Philosophy	1985	2	1,000
Erkenntnis. An International Journal of Analytic Philosophy	1930	6	600
Ethics	1890	4	
Hastings Centre Report (The)			
Journal of Aesthetics and Art Criticism	1942	4	
Journal of Philosophical Logic	1936	4	
Journal of Philosophy	1904	12	
Journal of Symbolic Logic	1936	4	
Journal of the History of Philosophy	1957	4	
Kantian Review	1997	1	200
Kant-Studien	1896	4	921
Law and Philosophy	1982*	6	
Linguistics and Philosophy	1977*	6	
Midwest Studies in Philosophy	1976*	1	
Mind	1876	4	3,200
Mind and Language	1986	5	700
Monist (The)	1888	4	
Notre Dame Journal of Formal Logic			
Noûs	1967*	4	
Noûs-Supplement: Philosophical Perspectives	1987*	1	
Oxford Studies in Ancient Philosophy	1987*	1	
Pacific Philosophical Quarterly		4	
Philosophical Quarterly (The)	1950	4	1,300
Philosophical Review (The)	1892*	4	
Philosophical Studies	1975		
Philosophy and Phenomenological Research	1940	3	
Philosophy and Public Affairs	1971*	4	
Philosophy of Science	1996	2	
Phronesis	1955	4	1,100
Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society	1880	3	1,500
Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society, Supp. Vol.			
Social Philosophy and Policy	1983*	2	
Studia Leibnitiana	1966	2	450
Studia Logica	1953	9	
Synthese			
Theory and Decision	1971	8	900
Vivarium. An International Journal for the Philosophy and Intellectual Life of the Middle Ages and Renaissance	1963	2	900

Source: (ERIH, 2007)

Appendix I: Table III: Analysis of Papers (POM)

Philosophy of Management: Analysis of Papers (raw data)

Volume/name	Authors	Pages	Themes	Country	Position	Discipline of Author(s)
V1 No. 1 2001 n=7 (2 Reviews)						
Laurie & Cherry	2	12	Philosophy of mgt.	UK UK	1. Mgt consultant 2. Reader /Director of p/g	1. Philosophy 2. Moral Phil.
Downie & Mac.	2	8	Business self-interest	UK UK	1. Research Professor 2. Director of Centre	1. Moral Phil. 2. Arts & Humanities
Bray	1	6	History	UK	Honorary Research fellow	History
Elliott	1	2	Land mgt	US	Policy Analyst	Conservation
O'Reilly	1	12	Philosophical diary	Vietnam	Natural Resources Adviser	Rural Development
Attfield	1	8	Work + Employment	UK	Professor of Phil.	Philosophy
Kessels	1	24	Socrates	NL	Partner	Consultant
Reviews - Charvet	1	3	Book review	UK	Professor	Political Science
Review - Attfield	1	3	Book review	UK	Professor of Phil*	Philosophy

Appendix J: Table IV – IX: POM Analysis of Papers**Philosophy of Management Analysis of Papers**

1. Issues Total of 14; from 2001 (V1 No.1) to 2005 (V5 No.2) – 3 issues per year (except 2005 when there were two)

2. Table IV a: Authors and pages

	Σ Sole authors Pages (Authors)	Σ Co-authors Pages (Authors)	Σ three authors Pages (Authors)	Σ Total Pages (Authors)
V1 No.1:	58 (7)	20 (2)	0	78 (9)
V1 No.2:	68 (9)	22 (2)	0	90 (11)
V1 No.3:	66 (7)	10 (1)	0	76 (8)
V2 No.1:	64 (7)	10 (1)	0	74 (8)
V2 No.2:	31 (5)	36 (3)	0	67 (8)
V2 No.3:	57 (5)	22 (1)	0	79 (6)
V3 No.1:	41 (6)	24 (2)	0	65 (8)
V3 No.2:	38 (6)	34 (3)	0	72 (9)
V3 No.3:	34 (3)	40 (3)	0	74 (6)
V4 No.1:	60 (4)	12 (1)	10 (1)	82 (6)
V4 No.2:	50 (5)	22 (2)	0	72 (7)
V4 No.3:	53 (4)	28 (3)	0	81 (7)
V5 No.1:	69 (8)	20 (1)	12 (1)	101 (10)
V5 No.2:	94 (9)	0	0	94 (9)
Σ	783 (85)	300 (25)	22 (2)	1,105 (112)

Table IV b: Authors and pages in % (summarized)

Authors	Number	%	Pages
Sole authors:	85	76%	71% of pages from sole authors
Co-authors:	25	22%	27% of pages from co-authors
Multiple authors (3):	2	2%	2% of pages from multiple authors (3)
Total	112	100%	

3. Table V a: Joint authorship & discipline of authors

Co & Multiple Authorship	Discipline of Authors	Same(1) Not Same(0)
--------------------------	-----------------------	---------------------

Laurie & Cherry	1. Philosophy 2. Moral Phil.	1
Downie & Mac.	1. Moral Phil. 2. Arts & Humanities	0
Blackman & Connelly	1. Business 2. Human Sciences + Communication	1
O'Reilly	Rural development	1
McKenna & Tsahuridu	1. Management 2. Business Ethics	1
Catley & Jones	1. Violence 2. Org. behaviour & ethics	1
Fontrodona & Mele	Business Ethics	1
Johnson & Smith	1. Organ. Behavi. 2. Organ. Behavi.	1
Collins & Latemore	1. Strategic Planning 2. Organisations + Mgt.	1
Dixon & Dogan	1. International Social Policy 2. Politics	1
Cornelius & Laurie	2. Philosophy 1. Human Resource Management	0
Bartlett & Preston	1. Management + Ethics 2. Ethics of technology	1
Hall & Martin	1. Business Strategy & Sustainable Development 2. Technology Mgt.	1
Cowton & Zecha	1. Accounting 2. Philosophy	0
Mele & Rosanas	1. Business Ethics 2. Accounting	1
Charlton & Andras	1. Evolutionary Psychiatry 2. Computing Science	1
Macaulay & Lawton	1. Political Philosophy 2. Political Philosophy	1
Bos & Kaulingfreks	1. Philosophy & Organisation Theory 2. Art & Sociology	0
Harris, Carapiet & Provis	1. Ethics 2. Self-organization 3. International Business	0
Sice & French	1. Information Systems 2. Dynamic Systems	1
LeBon & Arnaud	1. Philosophy 2. Decision-making	0
Kakkuri-Knuuttila & Trezise (Report)	1. unknown 2. unknown	-
Pinnington & Lafferty	1. Management 2. Human Resource Mgt.	1
Boyle & Roan	Organisational Behaviour & HRM	1

Prior-Jonson & Nyland	1. Ethics & Corporate Governance 2. International Business	1
Brewer, Cheung & Tao	1. Public + Social Administration 2. Public + Social Administration 3. Public + Social Administration	1
Krentz & Malloy	1. Philosophy 2. Philosophy + Ethics	1

A difference is made just between the discipline of 'philosophy' and 'management' (business). All other disciplines which are not related to philosophy are simply counted to the discipline of 'management'.

Analysis

Table V b: Joint authorship & discipline of authors (summary)

20 times from the same discipline	→ 74%
6 times from different disciplines (philosophy and management)	→ 22%
1 time not given	→ 4%

4. Table VI a: Origin of Authors

	UK	US	AU S	Fr an ce	V i e t n a m	A u s t r i a	NL	NZ	S p a I n	C a n a d a	S w e d e n	HK	T u r k e y	A r g e n t i n a	N o r w a y	No t K n o w n	Σ
V1 No.1	8	1			1		1										11
V1 No.2	7	1	1	1	1		1										12
V1 No.3	5		3				1										9
V2 No.1	4	1			1	1		1								1	9
V2 No.2	5	1	2			1			1								10
V2 No.3	5				1				1								7
V3 No.1	8									1					1		10
V3 No.2	5		1		1	1			2	2							12

V3 No.3	6*	1					2										9
V4 No.1	5		3					1									9
V4 No.2	2				1						2					4	9
V4 No.3	1		7					1									9
V5 No.1	4						1			3	1	3	1				13
V5 No.2	5	1						1		1				1			9
Σ	70	6	17	1	6	3	6	4	4	7	3	3	1	1	1	5	Σ138
%	51	4	12	1	4	2	4	3	3	5	2	2	1	1	1	4	Σ100

Table VI b: Origin of Authors (summary)**Authors from:**

Country	n	%
UK	70	51
AUS	17	12
Canada	7	5
NL, US, Vietnam, Unknown	6 6 6 5	4 4 4 4
Spain, NZ	4 4	3 3
Austria, HK, Sweden	3 3 3	2 2
Argentina, France, Norway, Turkey	1 1 1 1	≤1 ≤1 ≤1 ≤1

5.**5.1 Three categories (excluding those which are unknown)****Table VII a: Position of Authors**

	V1 (2001)	V2 (2002)	V3 (2003)	V4 (2004)	V5 (2005)	Σ	%
Academic	25	22	24	21	20	112	77
Student	1	2	1	2	0	6	4
Professional	7	4	6	4	3	24	17
Unknown	0	1	0	2	0	3	2
Σ	33	29	31	29	23	Σ145	Σ100

Academic: Professor, Research Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, Emeritus Professor, Senior Lecturer, Principal Lecturer, Teacher, Director, Head of School, honorary research fellow, researcher, Reader, Retired

Student: Graduate student, Postgrad student, PhD student

Professional*: Analyst, Facilitator, Manager, Professional fellow, Project leader, Therapist, Consultant, Adviser, Partner

Key: * Non-academic

Analysis

77% of all paper contributors are academics

17% are professionals

4% are students

5.2 Eleven categories

Table VII b: Position of Authors (more categories)

	V1 (2001)	V2 (2002)	V3 (2003)	V4 (2004)	V5 (2005)	Σ	%
Professor	9	8	14	5	12	48	33
Lecturer	7	7	5	11	6	36	25
Reader	4	2	2	2	1	11	7.5
Director	4	4	1	2	0	11	7.5
Student	1	2	1	2	0	6	4
Researcher	1	1	1	1	1	5	3
Professional	6	4	6	4	3	23	16
Partner	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Retired	0	0	1	0	0	1	1
Unknown	0	1	0	11	0	3	2
Σ	33	29	31	29	23	Σ145	Σ100

Professor incl. Research Professor, Associate Professor, Assistant Professor, Emeritus Professor

Lecturer incl. Senior Lecturer, Principal Lecturer, Teacher

Director incl. Head of School

Student incl. Graduate student, Postgrad student, PhD student

Researcher incl. honorary research fellow

Professional incl. Analyst, Facilitator, Manager, Professional fellow, Project leader, Therapist, consultant, adviser

Analysis

32% of all authors are Professors

25% Lecturer

16% Professional

7.5% Reader

7.5% Director

5% Student

3% Researcher

1% Partner

1% Retired

2% Unknown

6. Table VIII: Discipline of author(s)

	V1 (2001)	V2 (2002)	V3 (2003)	V4 (2004)	V5 (2005)	Σ	%
Philosophy	13	6	16	6	5	46	31
Arts & Humanities	5	5	3	1	3	17	11.5
History	1				2	3	2
Education	1				1	2	1

Business/Management	13	11	12	17	9	62	42
Politics		3			4	7	5
Computing Science			2	3		5	3.5
Law	1	1				2	1
Others		1	1	2		4	3
Σ	34	27	34	29	24	Σ 148	100

Philosophy incl. moral philosophy, Socratic dialogue, social & political philosophy, applied philosophy, ethics, management ethics, business ethics, ethics of technology

Arts & Humanities incl. political science, human science & communication, art & sociology, applied social science, political theory, social policy, social & organizational theory

History incl. marketing history

Education incl. management ideas & learning

Business/Management incl. conservation, rural development, consultant, international business, leadership, manufacturing, organization, business research, Info management, organizational behavior, accounting, HRM, strategic planning, marketing, sustainable development, technology management, enterprise & entrepreneurship, self-organization, social responsibility, strategy & change, consumer choice, decision making, knowledge – intensive work, corporate governance, business administration, complexity theory, interpersonal relations

Politics incl. Public Health, Local government, politics, public & social administration, governance

Computing Science incl. information systems, dynamic systems,

Law incl. violence

Others: culture of freedom, video production, evolutionary psychiatry, systems studies

Analysis

42% of the disciplines are related to business/ management & economics

31% to philosophy

11.5% to arts & the humanities

5% Politics

And the remaining disciplines share the other 10.5%

7. Table IX: Themes of articles

	V1 (2001)	V2 (2002)	V3 (2003)	V4 (2004)	V5 (2005)	Σ	%
Philosophy	11	7	6	7	6	37	34
Business/Management/Economics	7	11	7	11	8	44	40
History	1			1		2	2
Education	1					1	1

Book Review	5	4	6		2	17	16
Others	1	1	4		2	8	7
Σ	26	23	23	19	18	109	100

Philosophy

Subjects: incl. philosophical diary, creativity, knowledge, autopoiesis, feminism, reality, rationality, reason, equity, Marx's public choice theory, ethics, business self-interest, trust, business ethics, defining business, collective responsibility, professional ethics, knowing, philosophy at work

Philosophers: Socrates, Charles Taylor, Aristotle, Alasdair MacIntyre, Martha Nussbaum, Mary Parker Follett, N. Machiavelli, Karl Popper, A.N. Whitehead, S. Kierkegaard, M. Heidegger, Karl Max, Antonio Gramsci

**Business,
Management &
Economics**

incl. land management, work & employment, economics, wealth, knowledge in action, company, managerialism, decision-making, management thought, communication, economic decisions, corporations, organizational writing, agreements, consumer choice, projective constructivist account, global management integrity, report of event, organization, privatization, value chain, management texts, neo-liberalism, corporate governance, corporate social responsibility, management as a moral art, Marxism + management, Marx's labour value theory

History incl. myth,

Education incl. learning organization, learning, job qualifications, management ideas

Book Reviews n= 17

Others violence, global warming, systems theory, Ragin's fuzzy-set methods, time, Argentina, rights, precautionary principle, technology

Analysis

40% of all themes are about Business/Management/ Economics

34% of all themes are about philosophy

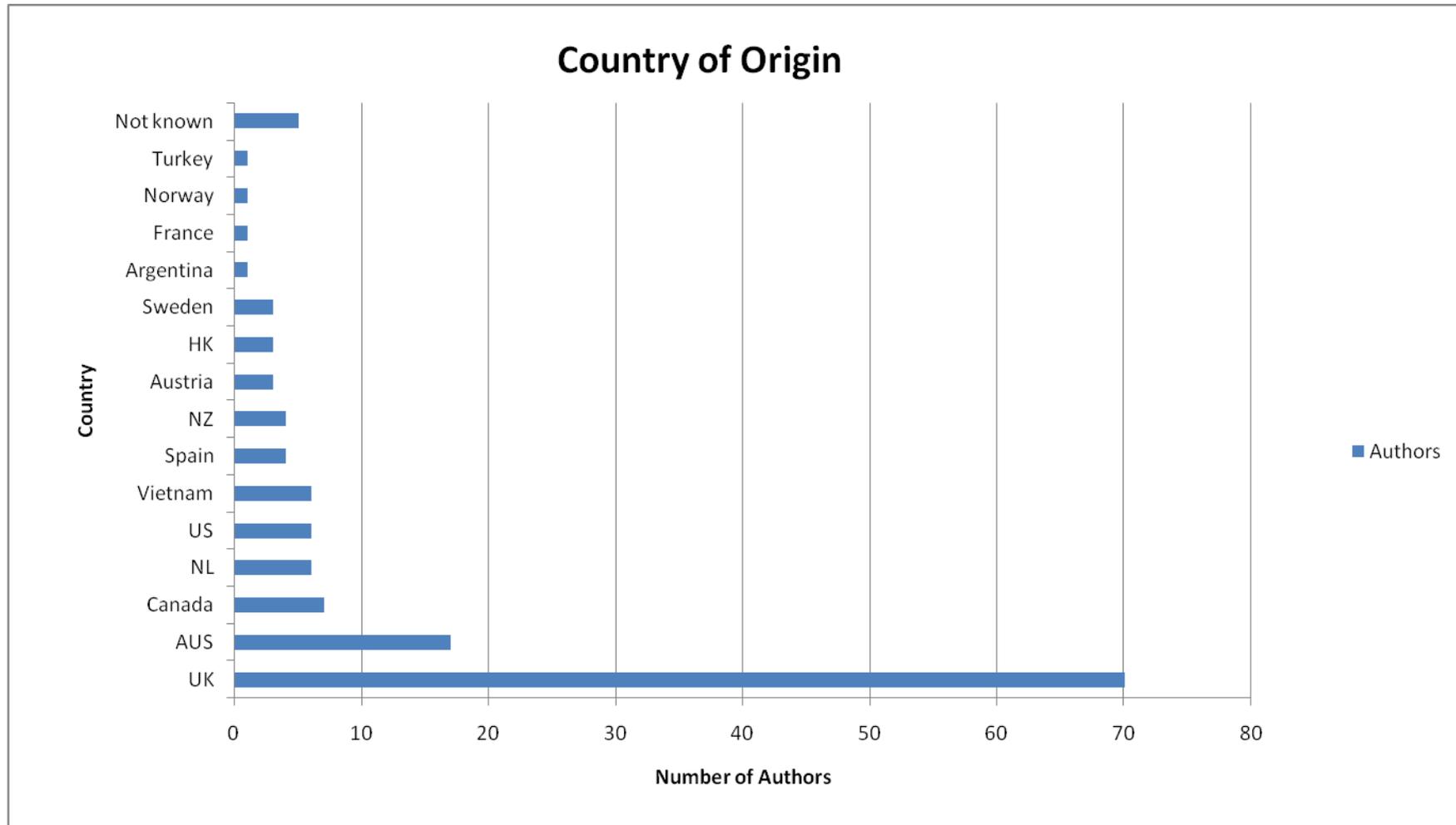
16% are book reviews

7% others

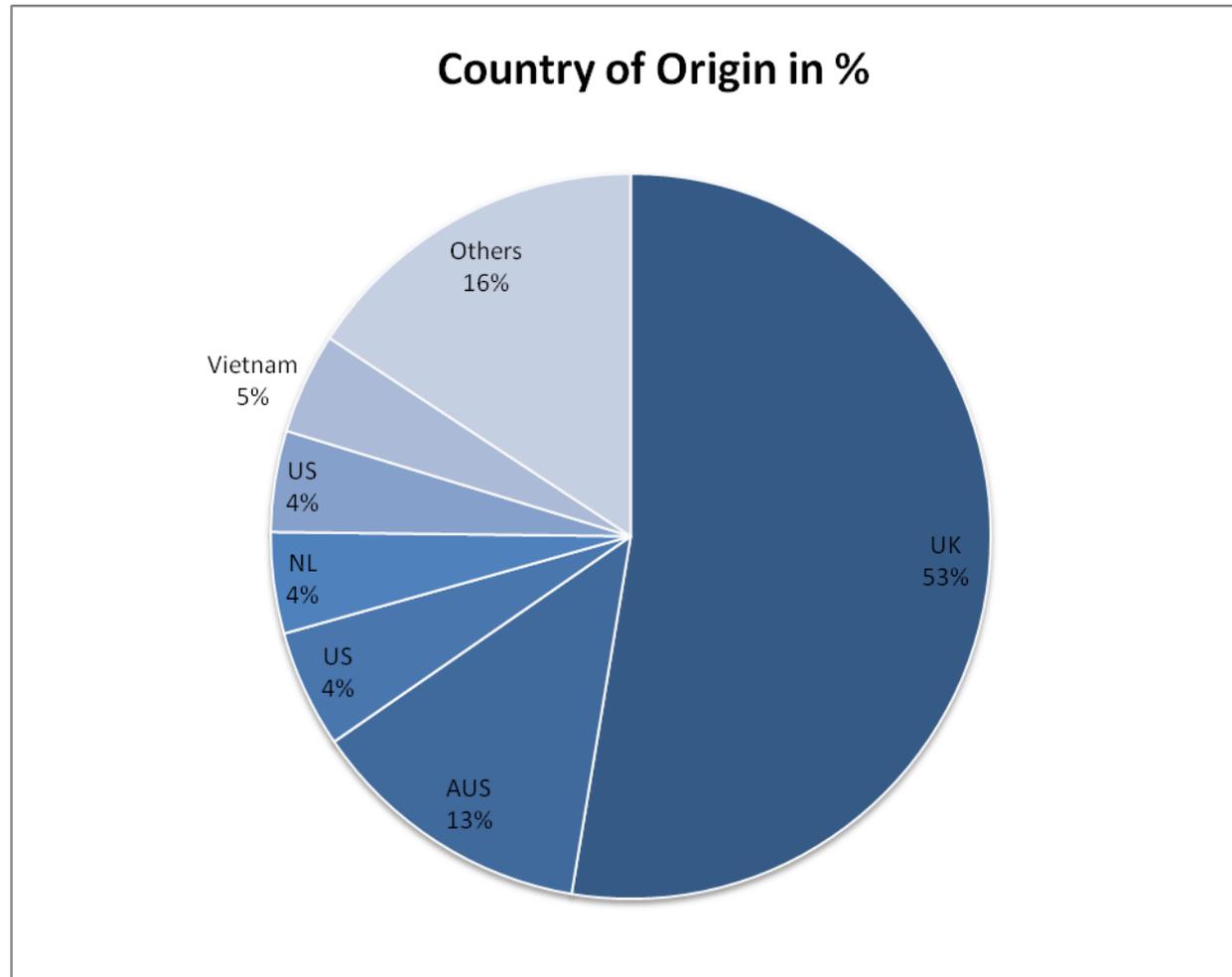
2% history

1% education

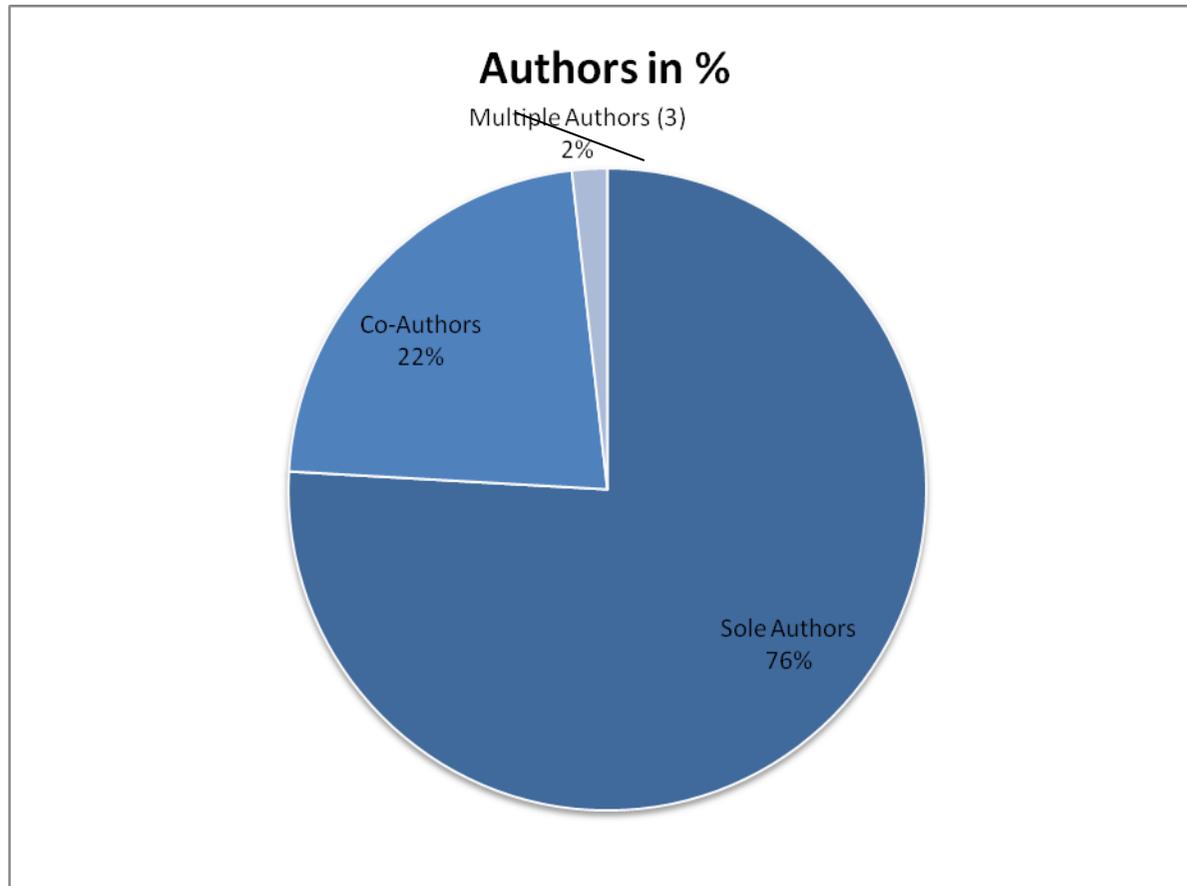
Appendix K: Figure VII a: Country of Origin



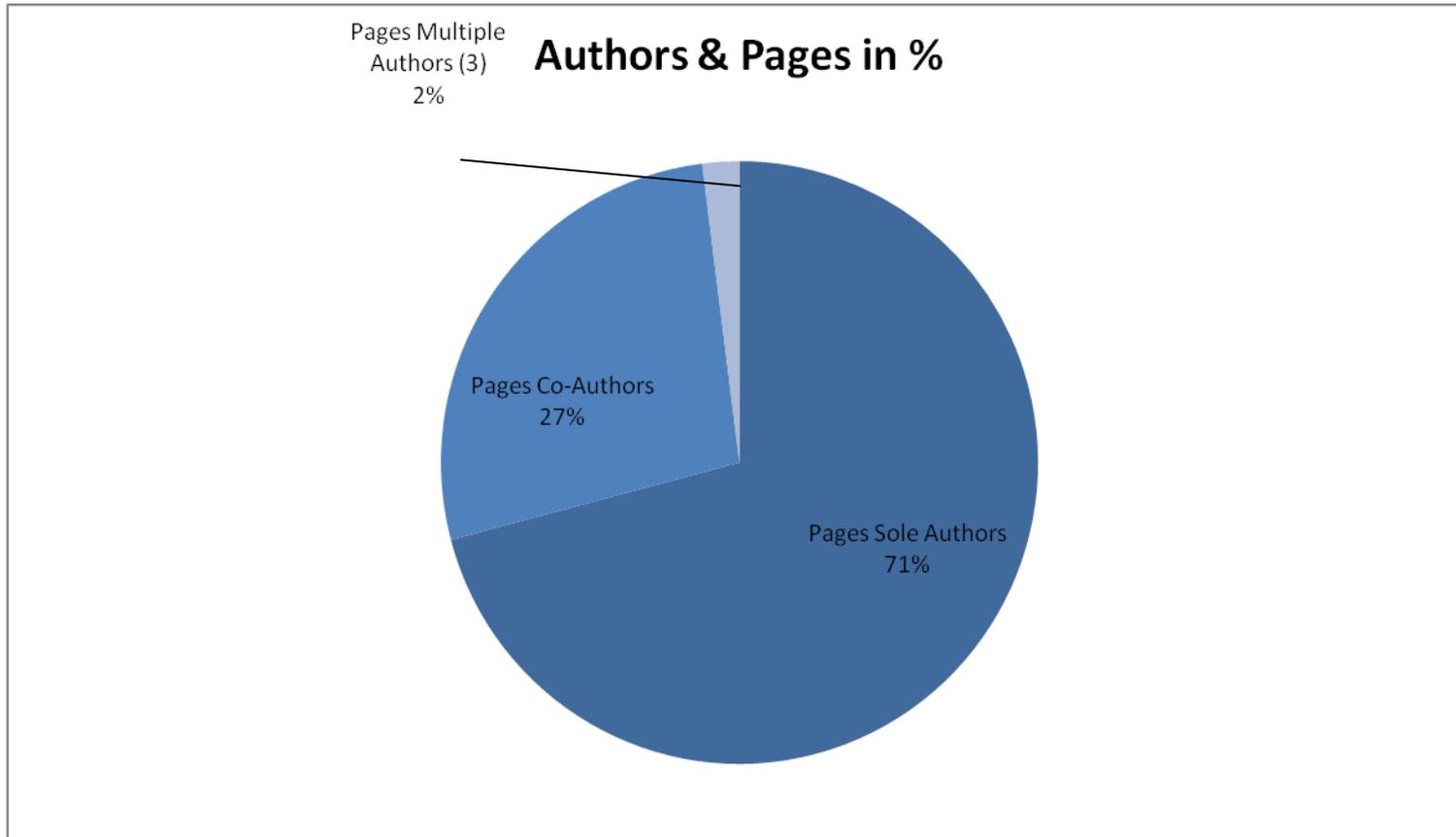
Appendix K: Figure VII b: Country of Origin



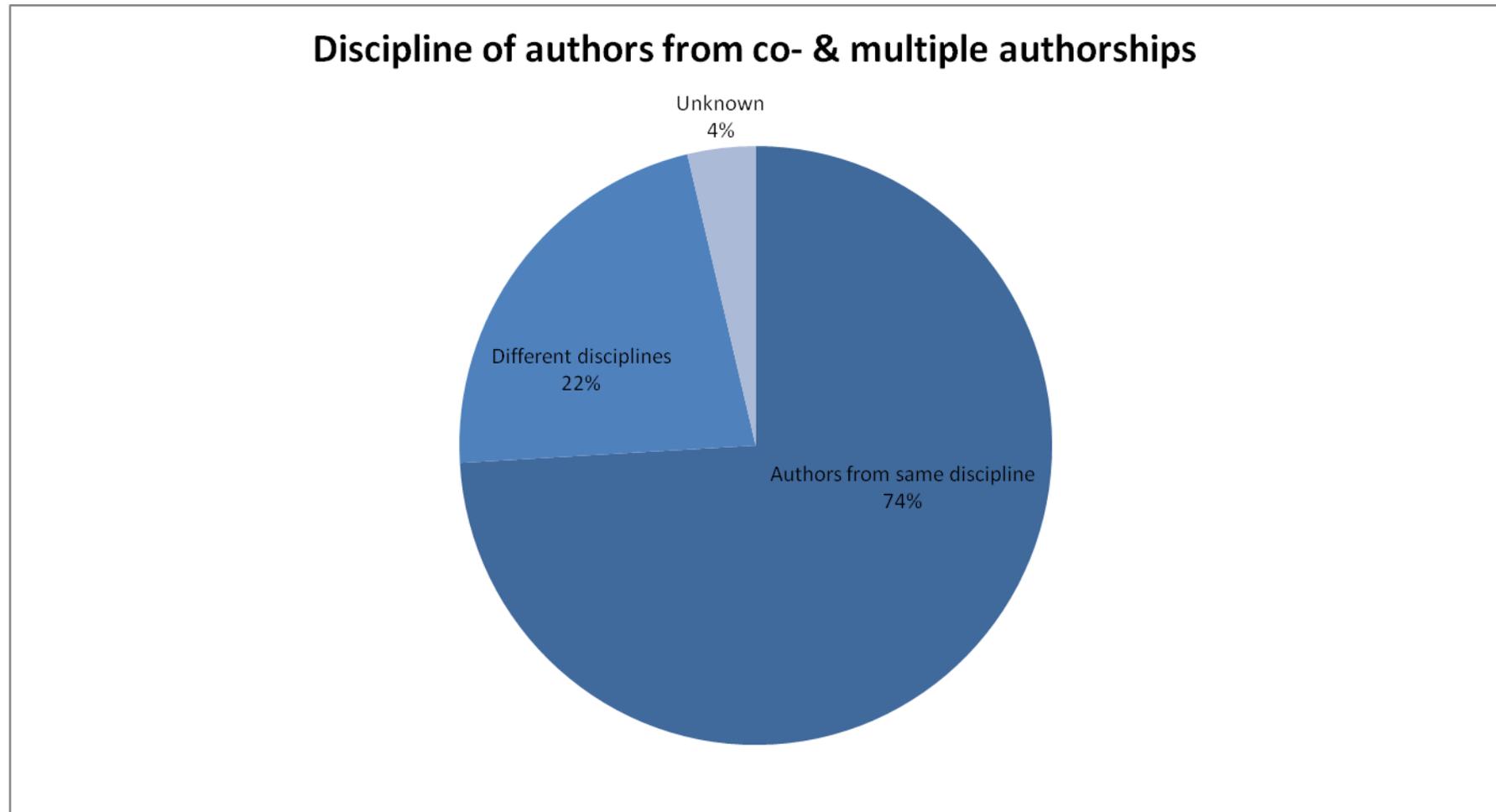
Appendix L:Figure VIII a: Authors in %



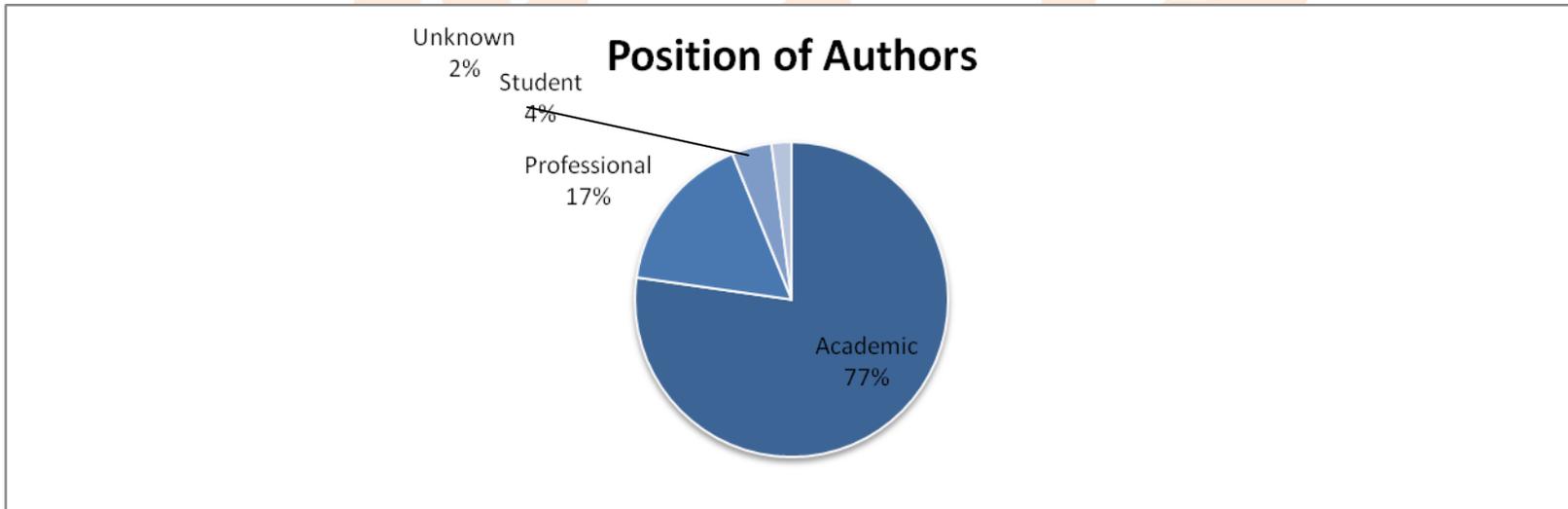
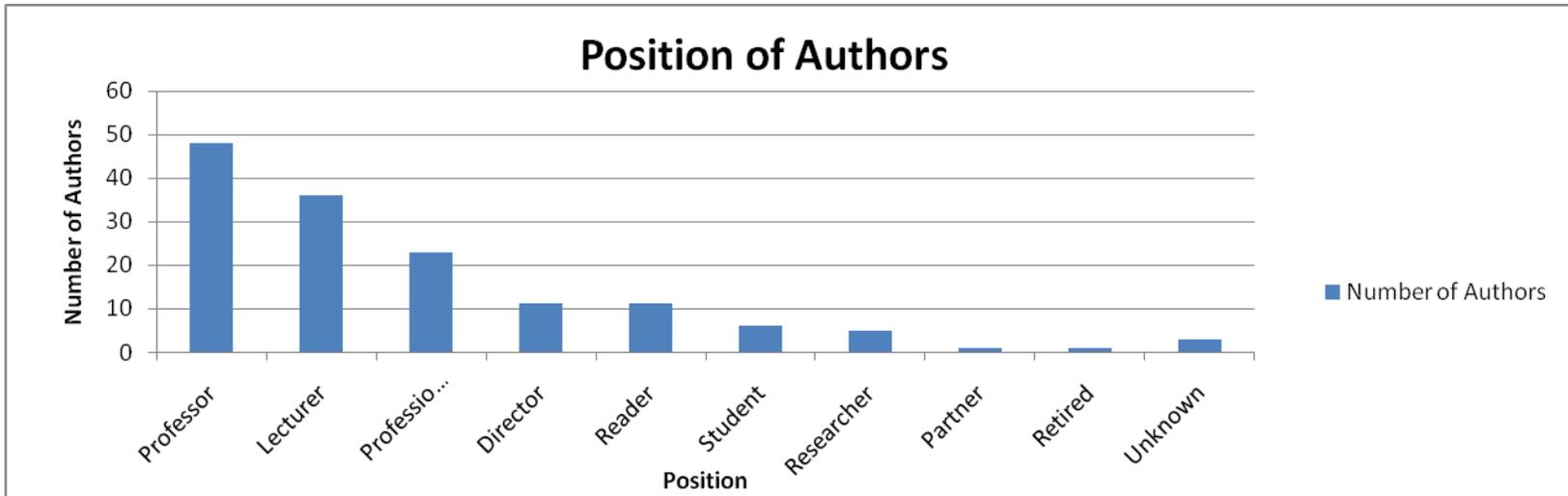
Appendix L:Figure VIII b: Authors % Pages in %



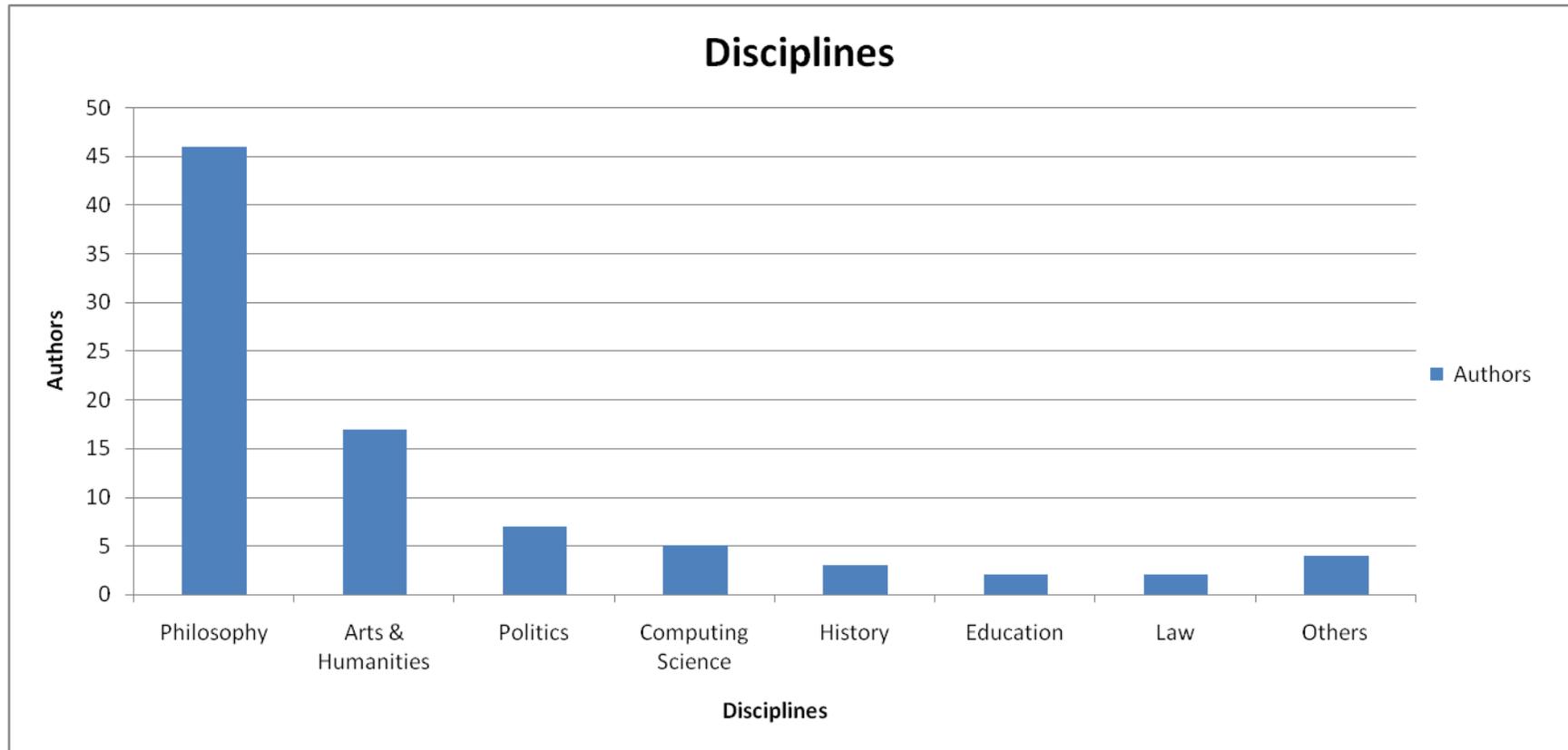
Appendix L: Figure VIII c: Discipline of authors from co- and multiple authorships



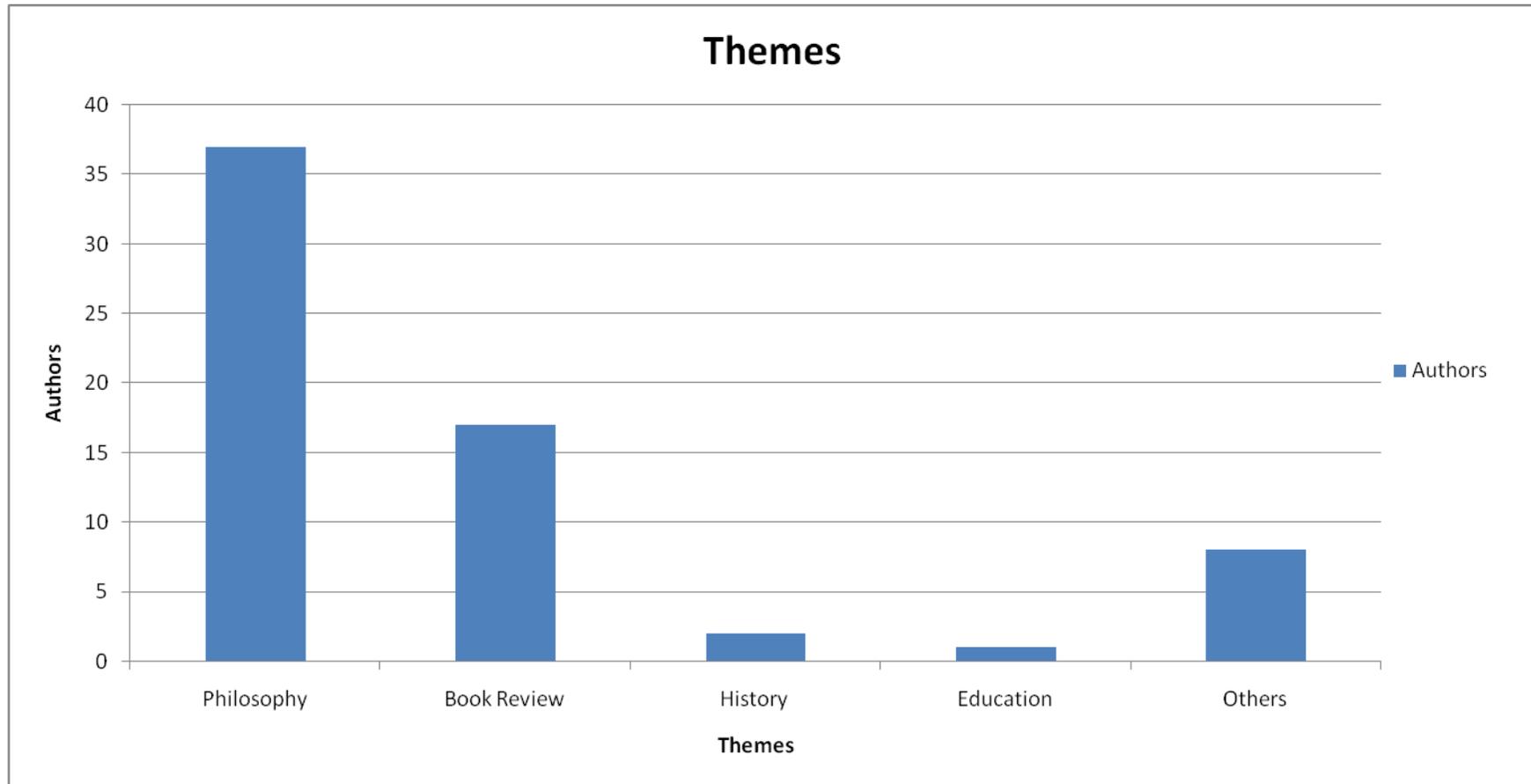
Appendix M: *Figure IX:* Position of Authors



Appendix N: *Figure X:* Discipline of Authors



Appendix O: Figure XI: Themes



Appendix P:Figure XII: Screening Questionnaire

Screening Questionnaire

Please see the following pages for a completed form of the “Screening Questionnaire”.

ABER



SCREENING QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE THE APPROVAL PROCEDURE

(Part A and Part B of this questionnaire must both be completed)

Name:	Pierre Schindler
Project Title:	Global Community of Scholars: The curious case of the

Part A

The statements below are being used to determine the risk of your project causing physical or psychological harm to participants and whether the nature of the harm is minimal and no more than is normally encountered in daily life. The degree of risk will then be used to determine the appropriate approval procedure.

Does your Project involve any of the following?

(Please answer all questions. Please circle either YES or NO for each question)

Risk of Harm

1. Situations in which the researcher may be at risk of harm.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
2. Use of questionnaire or interview, whether or not it is anonymous which might reasonably be expected to cause discomfort, embarrassment, or psychological or spiritual harm to the participants.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
3. Processes that are potentially disadvantageous to a person or group, such as the collection of information which may expose the person/group to discrimination.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
4. Collection of information of illegal behaviour(s) gained during the research which could place the participants at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to their financial standing, employability, professional or personal relationships.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
5. Any form of physically invasive procedure on volunteer participants, such as the collection of blood, body fluid or tissue samples, exercise regimes or physical examination.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
6. The administration of any form of drug, medicine (other than in the course of standard medical procedure), placebo.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
7. Physical pain, beyond mild discomfort.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO
8. Any Massey University teaching which involves the participation of Massey University students for the demonstration of procedures or phenomena which have a potential for harm.	YES	<input checked="" type="radio"/> NO

Informed and Voluntary Consent

9. Participants whose identity is known to the researcher giving oral consent rather than written consent (if participants are anonymous you may answer No).	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
10. Participants who are unable to give informed consent.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
11. Research on your own students/pupils.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
12. The participation of children (seven (7) years old or younger).	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
13. The participation of children under sixteen (16) years old where parental consent is not being sought.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
14. Participants who are in a dependent situation, such as people with a disability, or residents of a hospital, nursing home or prison or patients highly dependent on medical care.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
15. Participants who are vulnerable.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
16. The use of previously collected information or biological samples for which there was no explicit consent for this research.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>

Privacy/Confidentiality Issue

17. Any evaluation of Massey University services or organisational practices where information of a personal nature may be collected and where participants may be identified.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
--	---

Deception

18. Deception of the participants, including concealment and covert observations.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
---	---

Conflict of Interest

19. Conflict of interest situation for the researcher (e.g. is the researcher also the lecturer/teacher/treatment-provider/colleague or employer of the research participants or is there any other power relationship between the researcher and research participants?)	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
---	---

Compensation to Participants

20. Payments or other financial inducements (other than reasonable reimbursement of travel expenses or time) to participants.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
---	---

Procedural

21. A requirement by an outside organisation (e.g. a funding organisation or a journal in which you wish to publish) for Massey University Human Ethics Committee approval.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
---	---

Part B

The statements below are being used to determine if your project requires ethical approval by a Regional Health and Disability Ethics Committee. The statements are derived from the document "Guidelines for an Accredited Institutional Ethics Committee to refer Studies to an Accredited Health and Disability Ethics Committee" prepared by the Health Research Council Ethics Committee

(<http://www.hrc.govt.nz/assets/pdfs/policy/ReferralGuidelines.pdf>)

In situations where you are not sure whether the research needs approval by an HDEC, you should seek an opinion from the Administrator of the relevant HDEC. (<http://www.newhealth.govt.nz/ethicscommittees/>)

Include a copy of your written response from the Administrator with your application.

Does your Project involve any of the following?

(It is important that you answer all questions. Please circle either YES or NO for each question)

22. The use of staff or facilities of a health provider.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
23. Support, directly or indirectly, in full or in part, by public health funds.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
24. Participants who are patients/clients of, or health information about an identifiable individual held by, an organisation providing health services (for example, general practice, physiotherapy, occupational therapy, sports medicine), disability services, or institutionalised care.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
25. Requirement for ethical approval to access health or disability information about an identifiable individual held by the Ministry of Health, or held by any public or private organisation whether or not that organisation is related to health.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
26. A clinical trial which: requires the approval of the Standing Committee on Therapeutic Trials; requires the approval of the Gene Technology Advisory Committee; is sponsored by and/or for the benefit of the manufacturer or supplier of a drug or device.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>
27. Research in categories 22-26 involving New Zealand agencies, researchers or funds and undertaken outside New Zealand.	YES <input type="radio"/> NO <input checked="" type="radio"/>

Appendix Q: Journal article evaluation sheet

Name _____

Journal Article Evaluation Sheet**Information about the article:**

Author: _____
 Title of the article: _____
 Title of the journal: _____
 Date of publication: _____ Volume/number _____
 Page numbers: _____

How did you locate this article?

Which database did you use to locate this article? _____
 If you did not use a database, how did you locate this article?

a. Did you locate this article in the Benedictine University library? _____

If so, what is the call number of the periodical? _____ /or
 What database did you use to acquire the full-text of the article?

b. Did you request a copy of this article on interlibrary loan? _____

c. If you answered no to a and b, where did you get the article?

Use the criteria listed on the next page to evaluate the journal article you wish to use in your research

Critically Evaluating a Journal Article

How to determine if an article is suitable for your research.

1. What is the purpose of the article? Why was the article written?

- to persuade the reader to do something?
- to inform the reader?
- to prove something?

2. Consider the audience for whom this article was written.

For what type of reader is the author writing? (This is related to the source of the article, below.) If the article was published in a popular magazine, it was written for a general reader. If the article appears in a trade magazine, it is written for a specialist in that particular trade. If you located the article in a scholarly journal, it will be geared toward researchers, scholars or experts in the field.

Is the article written for:

- general readers?
- students (high school, college, graduate)?
- specialists or professionals?
- researchers or scholars?

3. Consider the source of the article.

a. Was the article published in a scholarly journal or another type of journal? If the article was published in a trade journal or popular magazine, justify your decision to use it in your research.

- For college-level research, information should be obtained for the most part from scholarly journals that publish articles describing high quality research that has been reviewed by experts in the field prior to publication.
- Trade magazines may be useful for topics in business or where economic data is needed.
- Popular magazines, such as *Time* and *Newsweek*, should be used sparingly, or not at all.

b. Consider the authority of the author.

Is the author an expert in this field?

Where is the author employed?

What else has he/she written?

Has he/she won awards or honors?

c. Consider the bias of the publisher of the journal.

- Some publications have an inherent bias that will impact articles printed in them. Is the journal
 - liberal?
 - conservative?
 - published by an alternative press?
 - published by a political action group?

- How do you know? (*hint*: If you cannot tell from examining the journal, ask for the book *Magazines for Libraries* at the Reference Desk in the Library. This volume identifies ideological slants for over 7300 periodicals.)

4. Consider the content of the article—its organization and suitability.

a. Describe the organization of the article.

- Is the material organized and focused? Is the argument or presentation understandable? Give examples to support your opinion.
- Is this original research, a review of previous research, or an informative piece? How do you know this?

b. Consider the coverage of the article.

- Does the article cover the topic comprehensively, partially, or is it an overview?

c. Look at the illustrations.

- Are charts, graphs, maps, photographs, etc. used to illustrate concepts?
- Are the illustrations relevant?
- Are they clear and professional-looking?

d. Consider the date of the article. Is it appropriate for your research topic?

- Does your topic require current information?
- Does your topic value older material as well as current?
- Is the article up-to-date? Out-of-date? Timeless?

e. Consider the usefulness of the article.

- Is the article relevant to your research project? Is it useful to you? Does it:
 - support an argument?
 - refute an argument?
 - give examples? (survey results, primary research findings, case studies, incidents)
 - provide "wrong" information you can challenge or disagree with productively?
- Give examples.

6. Consider the bibliographical information the article provides.

- Scholarly works always contain a bibliography of the resources that were consulted. The references in this list should be in sufficient quantity and be appropriate for the content.
- Examine the bibliography
 - Is it short or long?
 - Is it selective or comprehensive?
 - Are the references to primary sources or secondary sources?
 - Are the references contemporary to the article or much older?
 - Is the citation style clear and consistent?

Compiled by J. Hopkins, September 2002 /updated 1/03



Appendix R: *Table X, XI: POM Conference Analysis*

Philosophy of Management Conference Analysis

Table X: Delegates per country

Country	Delegates	Delegates	Delegates	Delegates	Delegates	
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	Conference 1	Conference 2	Conference 3	Conference 4	Σ	%
UK	64	40	44	20	168	57
AUS	10	3	5		18	6
US	3	6	3	6	18	6
NL	3	6	5		14	5
Canada	5		4	2	11	4
France	3	2	3		8	3
Denmark	2	2	1	2	7	2.4
Finland	1	1	4		6	2
NZ		2	1	2	5	1.7
Italy	1		1	2	4	1.4
Spain	2	2			4	1.4
Germany			1	2	3	1
Hawaii	1	2			3	1
Slovenia		1	2		3	1
South Africa	2	1			3	1
Belgium				2	2	0.5
Israel	2				2	0.5
Ireland	1		1		2	0.5
Sweden				2	2	0.5
HK	1				1	0.3
Poland	1				1	0.3
Turkey	1				1	0.3
Kazakhstan	1				1	0.3
Czech Republic		1			1	0.3
Portugal		1			1	0.3
Bazil		1			1	0.3
Austria			1		1	0.3
Indian			1		1	0.3
Iran				1	1	0.3
Σ					293	100

Analysis

Delegates from 29 different countries
Majority of delegates from the UK (57%)

Table XI: Affiliation of delegates

Affiliation	Conference	Conference	Conference	Conference	Σ	%
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	1	2	3	4		
University	90	68	67	42	267	88
Company	6	2	6	0	14	5
Society	4	2	4	0	10	3
Unknown	6	5	0	0	11	4
Σ	106	77	77	42	302	100

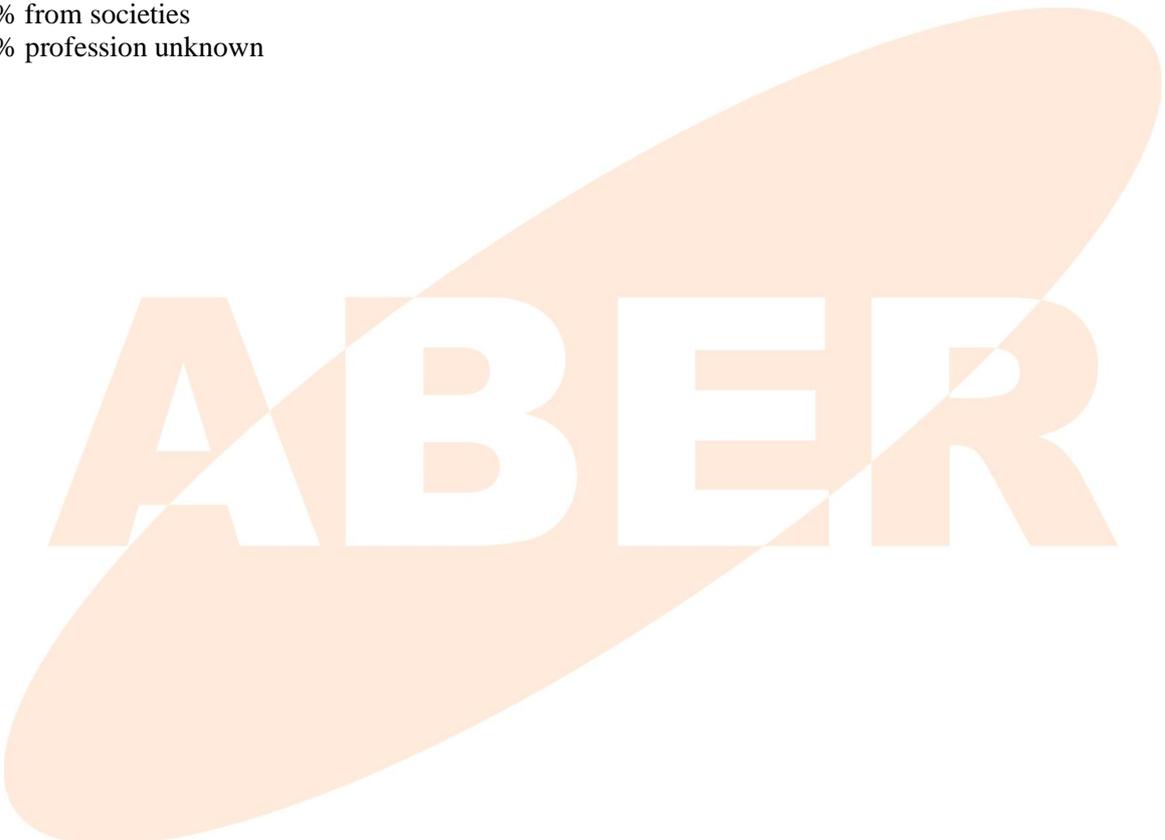
Analysis

88% from Universities

5% from companies

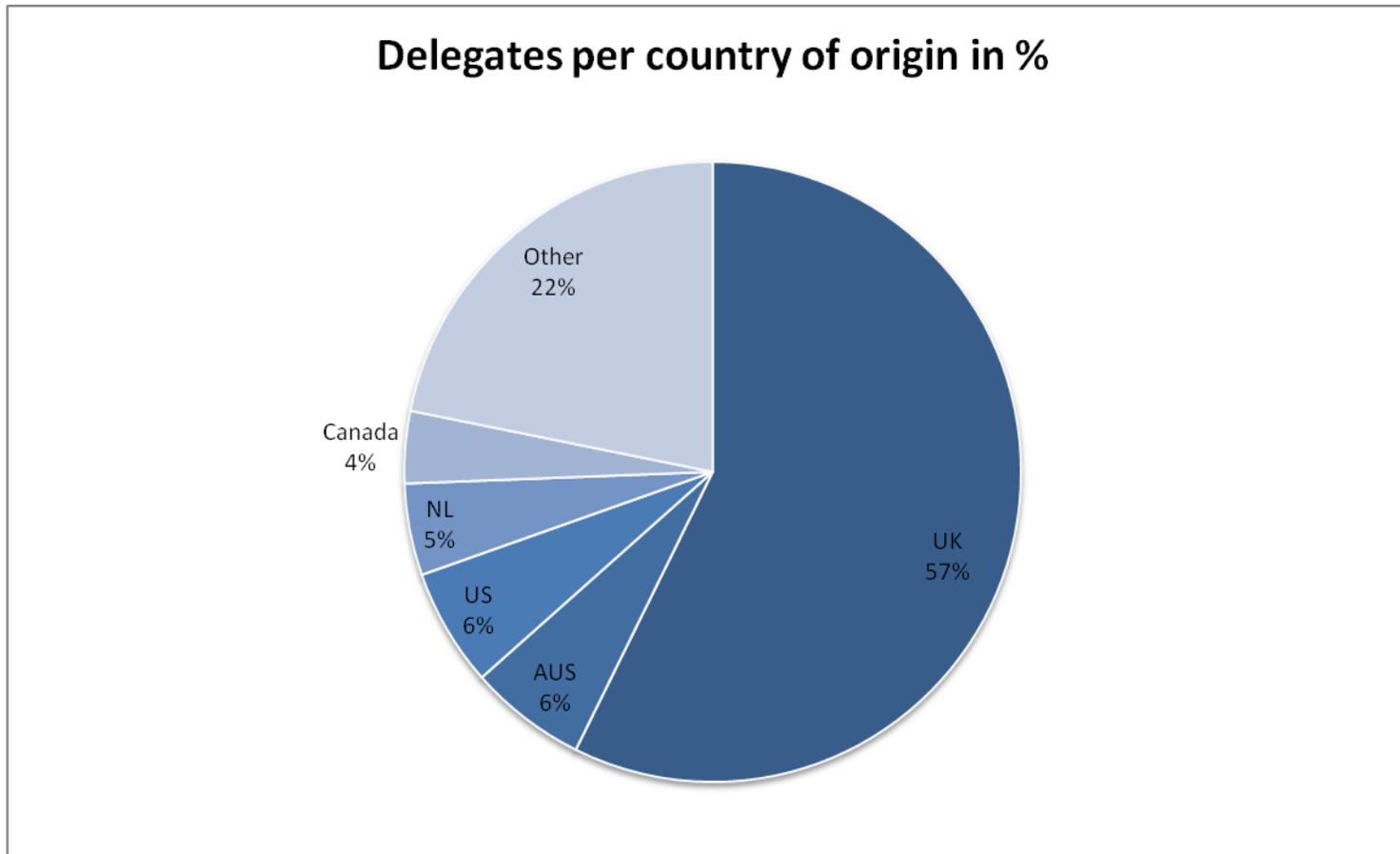
3% from societies

4% profession unknown



ABER

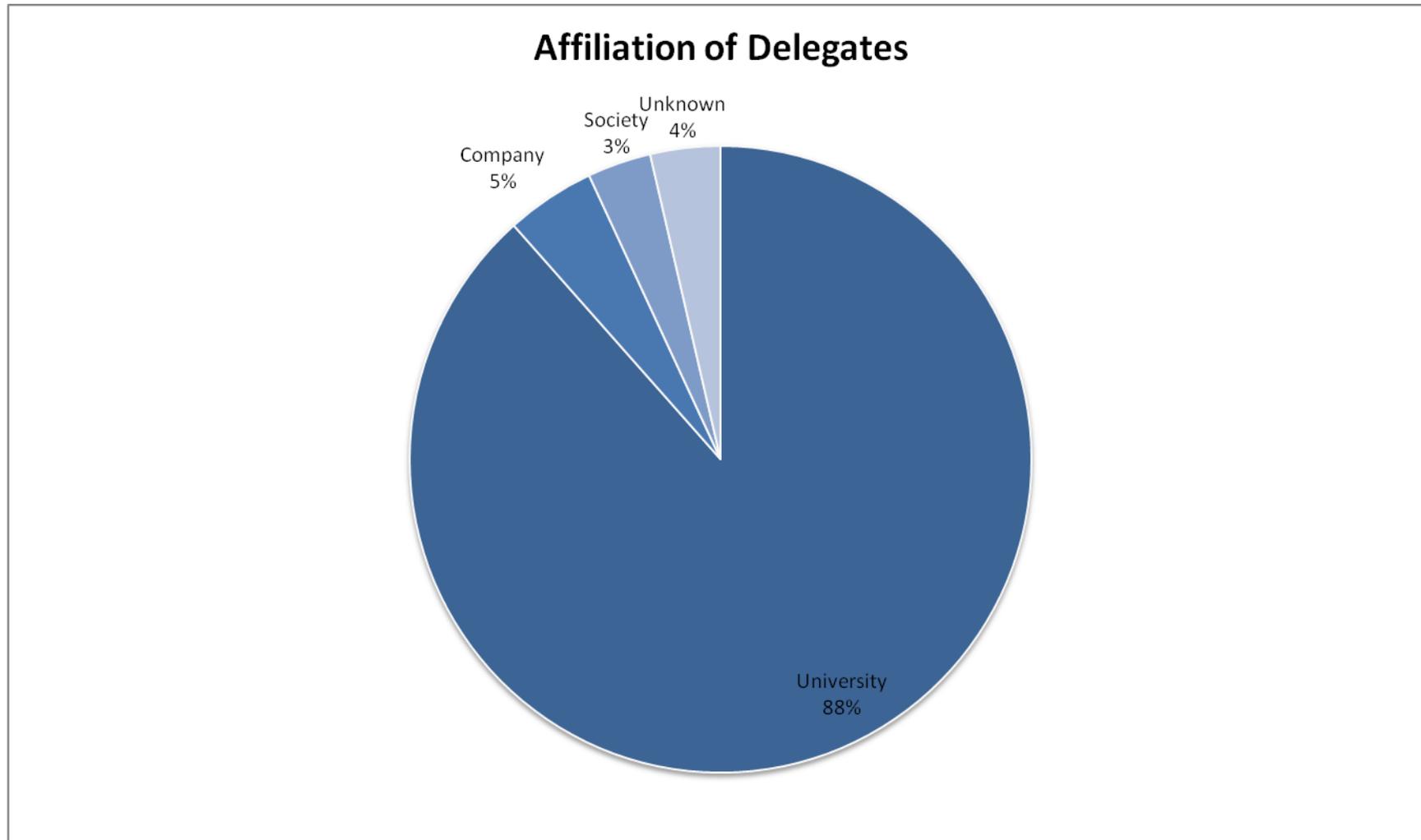
Appendix S: Figure XIII a: Delegates per country of origin in %



Appendix S: Figure XIII b: Delegates per country of origin



Appendix T: Figure XIV: Affiliation of delegates



Appendix U: Schemes of network development and management

1. Network development

According to Lowrie (2004b) three schemes of network development are present: (1) Interpersonal relationships, (2) External influences and industry context and (3) Technology.

1.1 Interpersonal relationships

Relationships are conceptualized within a broader strategic framework while defining characteristics of interpersonal relationships tend to vary with each network type. Four types of strategic relationships are present:

1.1.1 Individual-to-individual relationships

This relationship is the by far most preferred one among academics because it is easy to manage and in combination with equilateral networks (more details in the following section) most productive. Those kinds of relationships do not make initial contact with other academics at conferences. They familiarize themselves with an academic work and then develop the relationship through other forms of contact such as email and arranging meetings.

1.1.2 Individual to intra-institution

Academics prefer not to work with individuals in their own immediate departments because of high personal risk (conflict potential) and a supposed lack of shared interest.

1.1.3 Inter-institutional

This form of relationship is not well accepted among academics because individuals are likely to feel being controlled over their work and in a way managed. However it provides high outputs (quantity) but lacks high quality.

1.1.4 Individual-to-external institution

Academics value this relationship highly because projects tend to be completed quickly once initiated and because of a high degree of motivation and enthusiasm. These relationships are often a result of the institution approaching the academic and the development of the working relationship through known contacts. However, this kind of network relationship has a long development time and is based upon the wide reputation of the individual within their field, for example, New Zealand's Professor Roger Morris an international authority in animal epidemiology was called upon repeatedly to assist in the UK's foot-and-mouth outbreak in sheep.

According to Lowrie's (2004b) findings the personality plays an important role in network development.

1.2 External influences and industry context

Academics perceive their networks driven by a set of economic and resource issues such as pressure due to a lack of security and tenure.

1.3 Technology

Technology, especially the ability to email papers, is seen as a key facilitator of network development and management. Innovations and technological improvements enable higher intensity and speed of exchange of information through networks. *"It became evident that information technology allowed the exchange of information across weak ties where academics have similar interest and were motivated by similar pressures and thus a major facilitator of network development and management"* (Lowrie, 2004a, p. 354).

2. Network Management

Network management focuses on the question how academics expand or contract existing networks. There are just a limited number of methods to expand and contract networks but there are a

considerable number of tactical issues related to these methods within the strategic network structure. Limited set of expansion and contraction methods manage a complex set of issues between three network structures and four strategic relationships. Expansion and contraction issues are closely linked with the '*type of network structure*' and '*type of strategic relationship*'.

2.1 Network structure

2.1.1 Network structure 1: Guerrilla networks

Guerrilla networks are male-dominated and known for being personally satisfying where a selection is largely at the behest of a motivated individual following his or her individual interest. Relationships are often unequal with the initiator often in a lesser position. Those networks depend on a single dominant member who often acts as a controller of information and possesses knowledge relating to all others. This network is most unstable due to the fact that the core of the network is one individual. Those networks expand easily if the opportunity arises and contracts when obstruction occurs. The individual to individual relationship is supported by this network structure.

2.1.2 Network structure 2: Equilateral networks

Members of those networks tend to be similar in age and status and tend to be very productive. They tend to have strong ties and are particular focused. The selection of members is based on prior friendship. It cannot be easily replicated or established and new entrants are prohibited. Furthermore this network focuses on quality rather than quantity. It does not tend to expand nor contract and therefore remains stable over long periods of time. Members respect each other and they keep long-term relationships "*with a traditionalist view of pushing back the boundaries of knowledge in their particular field*" (Lowrie, 2004a, p. 357). Individual to individual relationships are supported by this network structure.

2.1.3 Network structure 3: Nuclear networks

Nuclear networks are highly productive in term of quantity. They are the most goal-orientated ones. A core group at the middle builds the heart of these networks. That core group tends to manipulate peripheral members to which they are usually linked short term. Access to the core network takes place mainly by invitation. This kind of network shows little expansion and contraction at the core in contrast to the periphery where researchers are hired and fired at the end of contract periods. This network supports individual-to-external institutional relationships and inter-institutional relationships. Combinations of guerilla and nuclear structures by avoiding periphery positioning are by far the most productive of network structures in terms of quantity.

2.2 Not networking

It is important to keep in mind that there are different reasons for networking. Almost all academics are members of certain kind of networks. However, not all develop and manage academic research networks, for purposes such as publications etc, which does not mean that they are not networking.