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Correlates of Knowledge-Sharing Behaviors Among Public Housing Authorities

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This is to certify that the doctoral study by

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has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
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Abstract

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MS, City University of New York, 1995

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Doctoral Study Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Over the last decade, researchers and practitioners have contributed to the body of knowledge on improving business operations among public housing authorities. However, effective knowledge-sharing processes within a public housing organization remain deficient. The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the correlations between employees' perceptions of trust, organizational fairness, supervisors' competency, and employees' willingness to share knowledge. Understanding the factors that predict employees' willingness to share knowledge is imperative to developing leaders' best practices. Social capital theory served as the theoretical framework for this study. Seventy full-time employees and leaders of the housing authorities in the State of Texas participated. A multiple, standard-regression analysis indicated significant correlations between the independent variables and employees' willingness to share knowledge. Organizational fairness was the strongest predictor. These findings may help leaders in public housing authorities improve best practices to create effective knowledge-sharing processes and open opportunities for further discussion with organizational leaders in public sector agencies. The results of this study may have implications for social change: Public housing leaders could optimize operational procedures by managing sustainability and developing effective best practices that might reduce taxpayers' burden and increase social services to low-income residents.

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Dedication

I am reaching my educational goals although the journey has many challenges. I dedicate this dissertation to my wife, Kimphuong Pham, my sons Dollan and Donnie Pham, and my parents, Dr. Toan Pham and Dieu Khanh Tran. The support from my wife and sons is unwavering and laudable. My wife decided to take care of the kids ensuring that I have enough time for pursuing my education dreams. My parents instilled in me the importance of hard work and higher education. My dad reminded me that the education is the key for future success. Dad worked diligently against many barriers to obtaining his doctoral degree in the United States of America. He brought our family to the United States after a 14-year detainment as a political prisoner (due to his United States support) in the communist re-education camps in Vietnam. Dad never gave up on his goals.

Acknowledgments

I am stepping through the DBA process, ultimately reaching my educational goals. I would not have accomplished this journey alone. To acknowledge the dedication of the incredible support from Walden University, I must mention Dr. Yvette Ghormley, Dr. Peter Anthony, Dr. Denise Land, and Dr. Freda Turner. Dr. Ghormley is my committee chairperson. With her professional knowledge and experience, Dr. Ghormley has dedicated her time and efforts to assist, teach, and guide me in developing and proposing a relevant business research study via this dissertation. I sincerely appreciate Dr. Ghormley for her constant communication to assist me all the way through. Dr. Turner encouraged me and was available at any time I would need her guidance and assistance. Dr. Anthony is my second committee member, and Dr. Land is my University Research Reviewer. All committee members revealed their professionalism through the review processes.

I experienced a significant growth, personally and professionally, through this educational journey. The enjoyable feeling and valuable experience that I gained from this DBA process is unforgettable. I am forever grateful for the love and support from my family and the professional assistance and guidance from Dr. Ghormley, Dr. Anthony, Dr. Land, Dr. Turner, and the entire Walden University faculty.

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Section 1: Foundation of the Study

Organizational leaders who engage employees in an effective knowledge-sharing process may increase business efficiency. Aboelmaged (2012) suggested that in an organization where employees share information within and across departments, leaders could ensure consistency of operational procedures and increase productivity by contributing to human capital strategy and motivation. In the public sector, leaders should understand that knowledge-sharing processes and data integration are essential to sustain organizational programs, policies, and services (Callender, 2011). In addition, Mills and Smith (2011) posited that knowledge management has improved business performance in nonprofit, government, and for-profit organizations.

Leaders must recognize the effects of organizational culture and the relevance of learning theories when establishing a general framework across a firm to implement efficient and effective knowledge-sharing processes (Sahaya, 2012). Organizational leaders build tacit knowledge within the workforce for future competitive advantage by developing and maintaining context maps of learning resources (Wang, 2011). Maden (2012) proposed that organizational learning and knowledge management are interactive because organizational learning serves as a strategic tool for integrating organizational knowledge in the knowledge creation process. Moreover, knowledge evaluation is necessary for future learning endeavors (Al-adaileh, Dahou, & Hacini, 2012). Organizational leaders that develop learning cultures and active knowledge-sharing process may contribute to public and private sector sustainability practices (Greiling & Halachmi, 2013).

Organizational leaders are responsible for a business's future (Kruger & Johnson, 2011). While knowledge management is essential for business success, the ability of leaders to strategize innovation is also significant (Guchait, Namasivayam, & Lei, 2011). Vermiglio (2011) noted that public property managers might improve organizational performance by encouraging knowledge-sharing processes. The consideration of organizational intent and the investment in knowledge learning is perplexing if leaders lack skills and aptitude for achieving organizational learning perspectives (Sheehan, 2011). Leaders in the public sector should transform their organizations slowly into learning organizations because of preestablished organizational cultures and perceptions (Maden, 2012). Furthermore, knowledge-sharing processes are critical for organizational sustainability and competitiveness, and they support management in decision-making processes and business operations (Nooshinfard & Nemati-Anaraki, 2014). As a result of this study, public housing authority leaders may find that knowledge-sharing processes could improve business performance and compliance levels required by the regulatory board of the U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD).

Background of the Problem

In 1937, the U.S. Congress passed the Housing Act to offer financial assistance to low-income residents by financially subsidizing housing rentals (HUD, 2011). The goal for the Housing Act was to increase the supply of affordable housing (McDonald, 2011). Since that time, city administrators in the United States have created more than 3,300 public housing authorities of varying size, scope, and organizational structure (Kumar & Bauer, 2010). The federal government of the United States has annually funded local

housing authorities, thus ensuring minimum rent for low-income residents and offering construction loans (up to 90% of the total project cost) for new, low-income residential units for up to 90% of the total project cost (McDonald, 2011). To ensure effective financial assistance, HUD officials require public housing authorities to obtain a high-performance status based on HUD's quality metrics (HUD, 2011).

When examining the overall performance of public housing authorities, housing researchers and practitioners have suggested to either privatize public housing programs or change the business models to which housing agencies apply lean processes (Frazer, Burns, Bazuin, & Oakley, 2012; Kumar & Bauer, 2010). However, there is a lack of information on leveraging knowledge-sharing processes for improved business performance. Effective knowledge management requires employees to share knowledge with others and interact socially (Bashouri & Duncan, 2014; Nold, 2012). Sharing tacit and explicit knowledge is crucial for employees to capitalize on organizational knowledge while leadership is essential to create effective knowledge-sharing processes (Carmeli, Gelbard, & Reiter-Palmon, 2013). Leaders of housing authorities, with the proper implementation of knowledge management systems, can identify and replicate best practices for other local agency administrators to improve performance and to comply with HUD's regulatory requirements.

In investigating the capability of human capital in an organization, Mehrabani and Shajari (2012) stated that knowledge management infrastructures and processes increase organizational learning and performance significantly. In any business, a strong commitment and sufficient implementation of knowledge management encourages the

voluntary participation of all employees in knowledge transfer processes (Rasula, Vesna, & Mojca, 2012). However, a lack of support or initiatives from leadership can undermine knowledge-sharing processes in public sector organizations (Harvey, Skelcher, Spencer, Jas, & Walshe, 2010). Thus, there was a need to identify, examine, and replicate best practices amongst leaders for effective knowledge-sharing processes in public sector organizations.

Problem Statement

Employees' perceptiveness about inequity and distrust in a firm can block knowledge sharing and hinder organizational performance (Amayah, 2013; Casimir, Lee, & Loon, 2012; Harvey et al., 2010). Two-thirds of organizational leaders in the United States have not advocated effective knowledge-sharing processes (Peet, 2012). Moreover, 80% of total company knowledge exists in the minds of employees (Nold, 2012). The general business problem was that employees' unwillingness to share knowledge affected innovation in the organization as well as its sustainability. The specific business problem was that some public sector organizational leaders lacked best practices to understand the effect of employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency in catalyzing knowledge-sharing behaviors.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to identify the extent and nature of the correlation between (a) employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency and (b) the willingness of employees in public housing authorities in Texas to share knowledge . Considering that people are a vital element of the

knowledge-sharing process, leaders need to examine the culture of the organization to learn how much it has a supportive and effective knowledge-sharing environment (Deverell & Burnett, 2012). Analyzing standard multiple regression and the significance of the correlation between the independent variables on willingness to share knowledge may help leaders promoting knowledge-friendly working environments. Leaders of public housing agencies might use the findings of the study to establish effective knowledge-sharing processes. When effective, these processes help leaders collect organizational wisdom and they can contribute to the retention of intellectual capital amongst employees (Turner et al., 2012). The resulting performance improvements in public housing authorities could (a) expand the housing service to low-income residents, (b) reduce taxpayers' burden by improving business processes, and (c) increase social service quality by enforcing compliance with HUD's sustainability plan.

Nature of the Study

I employed a quantitative correlational research design to seek statistical confirmation of linkages in business performance (Malina, Norreklit, & Selto, 2011). Quantitative methodologists tend to highlight the research subjects to construct statistical models to explain an observation (Fisher & Stenner, 2011). Malina et al. (2011) noted that quantitative researchers examine the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Since I examined the relationship between employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency with employees' willingness to share knowledge, the quantitative method was most appropriate.

Qualitative researchers study perceived meanings and explore existing

phenomena (Fuhse & Mutzel, 2011). Since I examined relationships instead of a phenomenon in this study, a qualitative approach was not suitable. Fisher and Stenner (2011) concluded that mixed methods researchers focus on a phenomenon that demands mathematical clarity. However, because hypothesis testing occurred, absence of an observable phenomenon, a mixed method approach was not consistent with my research design.

Researchers use a correlational design to measure the nature and extent of how variables relate to each other (Whitley & Kite, 2013), to explain essential human behaviors, or to predict possible outcomes based on the variables (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2013). According to Whitley and Kite (2013), one variable could predict the value of another variable based upon the extent of the relationship. I conducted a correlational design to test hypotheses in a linkage between the independent variables and a dependent variable I investigated the prediction of employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency on knowledge-sharing behaviors. Conversely, researchers use experimental designs to prove causal relationships between variables (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2013). Since causality was not within the realm of this study, an experimental design was not appropriate.

Research Question

The purpose of this study was to examine the nature and extent of the relationship between (a) employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency and (b) employees' willingness to share knowledge. The research question that guided this study was: To what extent do employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor

competency predict employees' willingness to share knowledge?

Hypotheses

$H1_0$: Employee trust will not significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H1_a$: Employee trust will significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H2_0$: Employees' perceived fairness in the organization will not significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H2_a$: Employees' perceived fairness in the organization will significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H3_0$: Supervisor competency will not positively predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H3_a$: Supervisor competency will positively predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

Survey Questions

The online survey instrument for this study consisted of two parts (Appendix A). The first part addressed demographic data for descriptive analysis. The questions in the second part were 5-point Likert-type scale based, where 1 *(strong disagreement),* 2 (*disagreement),* 3 (*neutral consideration)* (neither agree nor disagree), 4 represented *agreement,* and 5 indicated *strong agreement*.

Part 1: *Participants' demographic data*

1. How long have you been working in this organization? _____ year(s).

2. Numbers of years you have been reporting to your current supervisor: ___.
3. Your age: ___ Under 30, ___ 30-39, ___ 50 and over.
4. Gender: _____ Male, _____ Female.
5. How many people report to you? __ 0, __ 1-5, __ 6-15, __ 16 or more

Part 2: *5-point Likert-type scale survey questions*

Employee trust: (Kim & Lee, 2010)

1. My coworkers and I can freely share our beliefs and feelings.
2. If I have a problem, I feel comfortable asking my coworkers for advice.
3. I always welcome input from my colleagues.
4. I have established a productive working relationship with my colleagues.
5. I think my supervisor is honest when he/she communicates with me.
6. I think my supervisor is sincere when he/she assigns my tasks.
7. I know that my supervisor tells his/her employees the truth at all times.
8. I trust my colleagues when they access my documents and files.

Organizational fairness: (Reychav & Sharkie, 2010)

1. I believe that employees in my organization are promoted based on their competence.
2. I believe that my organization evaluates employees fairly.
3. I have the same opportunities for advancement as other employees in my organization.
4. My organization utilizes the same tool to measure job performance towards every employee.

5. I believe my salary and benefits are adequate based on my job performance.
6. My organization recognizes my skills and talents.
7. My organization gives me the opportunities to learn new things.

Supervisor competency: (Byrne, Pitts, Wilson, & Steiner, 2012)

1. I believe that my supervisor is technically competent to perform his/her job.
2. My supervisor clearly defines and assigns my responsibilities.
3. My supervisor clearly defines and communicates goals and objectives to employees.
4. My supervisor often promotes teamwork and respect amongst employees.
5. I believe that my supervisor knows how to perform his/her job.
6. My supervisor encourages knowledge-sharing behaviors.
7. My supervisor encourages team collaboration.
8. My supervisor has asked me to share my knowledge with others in my department.
9. My supervisor has asked me to share my knowledge with others outside my department.

Knowledge-sharing willingness: (Byrne et al., 2012; Kim & Lee, 2010; Reychav & Sharkie, 2010)

1. I frequently and voluntarily share my knowledge with my colleagues in my department.
2. I frequently and voluntarily share my knowledge with my colleagues outside my department.

3. My colleagues freely share knowledge with others in my department.
4. My colleagues freely share knowledge with others outside my department.
5. I discuss various work related topics with my colleagues in my department.
6. I discuss various work related topics with my colleagues outside my department.
7. I usually discuss knowledge-sharing activities with my colleagues in my department.
8. I usually discuss knowledge-sharing activities with my colleagues outside my department.
9. I only share my knowledge at the request of others.
10. I freely share my documents and files with colleagues in my department.
11. I freely share my documents and files with colleagues outside my department.
12. I freely share my experiences on a project or occurrence with colleagues in my department.
13. I freely share my experiences on a project or occurrence with colleagues outside my department.
14. I think sharing knowledge with others will not jeopardize my employment.
15. I am not afraid someone else will take credit for my work.
16. I understand that sharing knowledge is crucial to the success of my organization.

Theoretical Framework

Social capital theory was the theoretical framework for this study. Organizational leaders utilize the basic of the social capital theory to understand why knowledge-sharing attitudes can benefit organizations (Reiche, 2012). Based on leadership theories such as

transformational and transactional, leaders who make employees' feel attached to the organization enhance employees' motivation to share knowledge (Pauliene, 2012).

The theory was popularized in 1983 by Bourdieu and then expanded by Coleman and Putnam in the 1990s and 2000s (Hauberer, 2011). Researchers and organizational leaders useit to predict individual advancement and organizational collective action by understanding the role of social ties (Edwards, Foley, & Diani, 2001) and to build trust between members for effective coordination and performance (Coleman, 1990). Social capital provides the mutual relationship of acquaintance and recognition within a network (Bourdieu, 1986). Moreover, Putnam (1993) stated that the link between social capital, and trust and social networks, enables a population to connect and share when reciprocity and trustworthiness arise. In addition, Henttonen, Janhonen, and Johanson (2013) postulated that social capital theory could help leaders understand the relationship between employee performance and organizational effectiveness. Therefore, in this study, the social capital theory was used to explain the significance of building organizational knowledge within firms (Connell, Kriz, & Thorpe, 2014) because social interactions, encouragement, and considerations amongst individuals significantly predicted knowledge-sharing efficiency in organizations (Amayah, 2013).

Definition of Terms

Affect-based trust in colleagues. Affect based trust in colleagues is a perception that assists individual to reduce feelings of vulnerability, and mitigate fears (Casimir et al., 2012).

Knowledge management. Knowledge management involves the management of

creation, acquisition, storage, and dissemination of organizational knowledge to achieve organizational goals (Leung, 2012).

Knowledge sharing. Knowledge sharing is the act of making individual and organizational knowledge available to others within the firm (Suppiah & Sandhu, 2011).

Knowledge-sharing behavior. Knowledge-sharing behavior is the intention and attitude of an individual regarding the willingness to share knowledge (Witherspoon, Bergner, Cockrell, & Stone, 2013).

Knowledge-sharing hoarding. Knowledge-sharing hoarding occurs when individuals possess a fear of being responsible for inaccurate or incomplete knowledge (Husted, Michailova, Minbaeva, & Pedersen, 2012).

Lean processes. Lean processes are the principles of practices, tools, and techniques used to reduce waste and increase productivity (Kumar & Bauer, 2010).

Performance-based reward systems. Performance-based reward systems are the utilities of an incentive system for motivating a workforce (Kim & Lee, 2010).

Public housing authority. A public housing authority is an agency established by local government and funded by the federal government to provide decent and safe rental housing for eligible low-income families (HUD, 2012).

Trust in management. Trust in management is an employee's satisfaction in organizational decisions regarding expectation of fairness for the contribution to the firm (Reychav & Sharkie, 2010).

Trust in the supervisor. Trust in the supervisor is a trust perception by an employee regarding the level of competency of the supervisors (Byrne et al., 2012).

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

Assumptions

Shugan (2007) defined assumptions as the value of the source data used in empirical analyses that necessarily affects the research findings. The first assumption in this study was that the data collected from the target population were accurately delivered by survey hosting company (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Second, since the representatives of the target organizations distributed the online link to their employees, I assumed that only fulltime employees in the public housing authorities in the State of Texas participated in the survey, per both my request and study guidelines. The third assumption was that the organizational structure types, across public and private sectors, did not predict the effectiveness of knowledge-sharing processes. The fourth assumption was that altruism did not affect the willingness of employees to share knowledge within the firm. Lastly, I assumed that all participants replied honestly to the survey questions.

Limitations

Limitations encompass the shortage of the conditions that might affect the overall quality of evidence and elucidation of the findings (Gyatt et al., 2011). There were four limitations in this study. The first limitation was that the study's focus only relates to the examination of the *relationship* and not the *causality* of trust, fairness, and competency on knowledge-sharing behavior. Second, the geographical constraints of the participating population in this study might not accurately represent all public housing authorities in the United States. Third, the use of correlational analysis only determined the relationship between the variables. Finally, I collected data from the only completed responses.

Delimitations

The delimitations serve as the study's boundaries (Becker, 2013). The delimitation of this study was that I surveyed only active leaders and employees in targeted public housing authority agencies in the State of Texas. The anticipated length of the study was a one-week period, allowing for a data collection process that included (a) survey distribution, (b) survey completion, and (c) survey data collection.

Significance of the Study

Contribution to Business Practice

The study findings may contribute to reducing the gap in business practice regarding knowledge-sharing behaviors in organizations. The results of the study addressed the relationship of employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency on knowledge-sharing willingness. Data from this study could provide leadership fundamental resources for creating friendly, knowledge-sharing environments. Engagement and motivation for employees to share knowledge is an essential task for organizational leadership (Patil & Kant, 2012). For high business performance, top management support is crucial to elevating innovative thinking and knowledge sharing (Nold, 2011; Patil & Kant, 2012). The findings in this study may provide leadership within public housing authorities with knowledge to improve business practice and aid in meeting regulatory requirements.

Implications for Social Change

The data from this study could confirm that leaders at public housing authorities need to identify best practices for managing knowledge-sharing processes. Effective

knowledge-sharing processes play a pivotal role in increasing organizational performance, sustainability, and innovation (Hsiao, Chen, & Chang, 2011; Mehrabani & Shajari, 2012). The HUD's sustainability performance plan has shown continuous focus on the need for sustainability practices among different areas of operations (HUD, 2012).

Knowledge sharing provides an understanding of organizational weaknesses and strengths, which can frame strategic planning to improve business performance (Ho & Madden-Halett, 2011). Organizational cultures that promote knowledge sharing may achieve high performance and creativity. When public housing leaders understand the relationship between knowledge-sharing and business improvement, organizations may become more productive, thereby optimizing tax revenue expenditures, reducing taxpayer burdens, and providing efficient social services to low-income families.

A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature

The literature review includes the research and synthesis of peer reviewed and scholarly academic articles on (a) trust relationships and knowledge sharing amongst employees, (b) fairness and social networks in organizations, (c) effective knowledge-sharing processes, (d) the relationship between organizational factors and knowledge management, (e) social capital theory, and (f) effective leadership. The purpose of this review was to establish a basis for understanding how employees' trust and the organizational climate could relate to the willingness to share knowledge within the workforce.

I examined peer-reviewed articles and seminal books on the specific business problem. The following databases were used: ProQuest Journal of Knowledge

Management, The Learning Organization, Journal of Management and Management Learning, Journal of Leadership Studies, Human Resource Management Journal, International Journal of Manpower, Journal of Information Service, Journal of Business Studies Quarterly, Management Decision, Management Learning, and the Journal of Leadership Studies. The following keywords were used: *knowledge sharing, knowledge sharing in a public sector, knowledge management, organizational knowledge, organizational learning, organizational culture, organizational climate, organizational justice, social exchange theory, effective leadership theory, trust, and social capital*.

Table 1
Synopsis of Sources in the Literature Review

Reference type	Total	2011 - 2015 (%)	2010–older (%)
Peer reviewed articles	99	92.3	7.7
Seminal books	2	0	100

The organizational knowledge section included three subcategories: tacit and explicit knowledge, knowledge-sharing process, and knowledge sharing in the public sector. Two subsections existed in the social networks category, trust and social capital. Organizational factors contained four subcategories: organizational climate, organizational justice, organizational learning, and organizational culture. The research variables and the theoretical framework discussions occurred throughout the review. A summary of the resources for the literature review followed. Ninety-nine peer-reviewed articles published since 2011 and two textbooks published prior than 2010 comprised this review (Table 1).

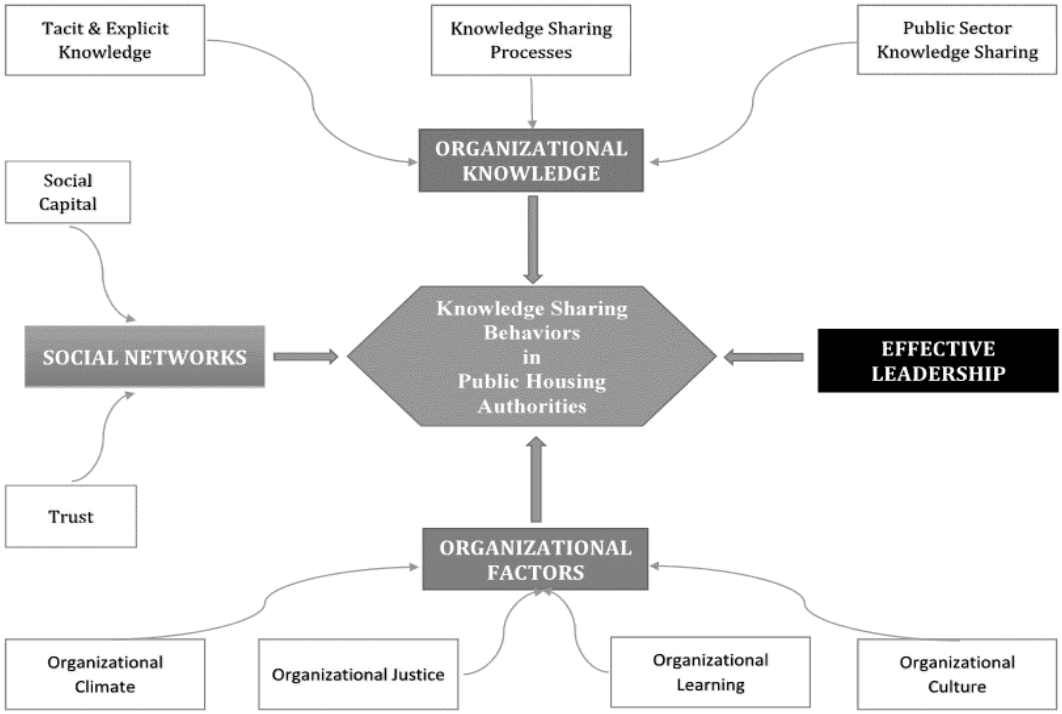

Figure 1. Map showing how knowledge-sharing behaviors in public housing authorities was examined in the literature review.

Organizational Knowledge

Circulation of organizational knowledge between offices and departments could improve organizational learning and expertise (Nery-Kjerfve & McLean, 2012). When knowledge quality diminishes, an organization may become dysfunctional (Labetz, Cavaleri, & Berry, 2011). Organizational leaders should understand that knowledge sharing and retention are imperative for organizational success (Martin & Meyer, 2012). Moreover, Jansson and Parding (2011) argued that sharing knowledge within the public sector might create new competencies and improve organizational professionalism. According to Jain and Jeppesen (2013), organizational knowledge exists in the form of tacit and explicit knowledge. This knowledge is accumulative and embedded within

business processes, products, and services of a firm.

Researchers have defined organizational knowledge in various ways using different terms and concepts. For example, Fang, Yang, and Hsu (2013) viewed organizational knowledge as information in the minds of individuals, created through encountering new environments and experiences. Similarly, Bashouri and Duncan (2014) agreed that employees create organizational knowledge through a useful information and knowledge-sharing process based on innovative capabilities and skills. Put differently, Nooshinfard and Nemati-Anaraki (2014) defined organizational knowledge as the ability of employees to perform job requirements by recreating knowledge within the organization. However, Su (2012) proposed that organizational knowledge is the summation of the levels of employee expertise, natural competencies, educational background, and technical experience.

Henttonen et al. (2013) viewed organizational knowledge as scientific investigation constructed through interactions between organizational units in a social context. Mehrabani and Shajari (2012) stated that knowledge is an organized body of information that guides businesses in creating and maintaining policies and procedures. Organizational knowledge is the skills acquired through employee education and active experiences (Connell et al., 2014). However, many researchers have referred to organizational knowledge as the tacit and explicit knowledge embedded in the collective minds of people, and obtained through learning, sharing, and experiencing (Chong, Salleh, Ahmad, & Sharifuddin, 2011; Jyoti, Gupta, & Kotwal, 2011; Sandhu, Jain, & Ahmad, 2011).

Tacit and explicit knowledge. While tacit knowledge resides in the brain, explicit knowledge resides in organizational documents and systems (Jyoti et al., 2011). Organizational knowledge as a form of implicit knowledge occupies approximately 80% of total knowledge in an organization (Nold, 2012). Usually, tacit knowledge is a single process within an organization, and explicit knowledge results from information sharing stored in organizational memory (Rai, 2011). Sandhu et al. (2011) described tacit knowledge as personal and intangible experiences collectively obtained through learning behaviors. Thus, tacit knowledge is not explainable, nor recognizable by many organizational leaders (Ho & Madden-Halett, 2011).

Sharing of tacit knowledge may help employees recover knowledge. Employees in an organization should share tacit knowledge to sustain and regain organizational knowledge (Mayfield, 2010). Mayfield argued that sharing tacit knowledge is a critical task for keeping a business viable at times of high employee turnover. Mayfield also suggested that techniques used to encourage employees to share tacit knowledge include a (a) central place where employees can post their knowledge, (b) meeting format where employees can promote knowledge sharing, (c) mentoring process that guides employees to exchange knowledge, and (d) reward program that motivates employees' cooperation.

Additionally, to create an effective and valuable knowledge base, leaders must encourage a tacit knowledge-sharing process (Lord, Hannah, & Jennings, 2011). However, the codification process of tacit knowledge is complex and difficult (Guzman & Trivelato, 2011). Codifying tacit knowledge is a convoluted process because the basis of tacit knowledge is on individual experiences (Borges, 2013). Burke (2011) suggested

that effective organizational knowledge development could not occur if trust and perceptions of ownership of organizational goals amongst employees is nonexistent.

On the other hand, researchers can codify explicit knowledge (policies, procedures, and guidelines) into databases or recorded documents. Jyoti et al. (2011) confirmed that explicit knowledge in organizational systems consists of documents in electronic or paper formats that embed within an organization. Although explicit knowledge does not come from a specific format, explicit knowledge is reusable by organizations (Guchait et al., 2011). Moreover, there is a consensus among scholars that implicit and explicit knowledge can be shared and re-formed into new organizational knowledge that contributes to the firm's competitiveness (Ho & Madden-Halett, 2011; Jain & Jeppesen, 2013).

Knowledge-sharing processes. According to Suppiah and Sandhu (2011), knowledge-sharing processes serve to provide common information and may include personal experiences of particular contexts with other members of a team. Knowledge sharing ensures the exchange of tacit and explicit knowledge between employees, creating an organizational knowledge base used for competitive advantage (Peralta & Saldanha, 2014). Within the realm of social interaction, Burke (2011) stated the knowledge-sharing process is a business relationship in which team members are willing to share experiences. From an organizational performance standpoint, Ho and Madden-Halett (2011) postulated that knowledge-sharing processes serve as a common framework indicative of organizational strengths and weaknesses, enabling leaders to establish effective business strategies. Turner, Zimmerman, and Allen (2012) defined the

knowledge-sharing process as a basic tool that organizational members use to work together to achieve competitive advantage and sustainability. Bashouri and Duncan (2014) argued that any attempt to share knowledge within an organization is essential for overall performance. However, Borges (2013) stated a knowledge-sharing process is an interaction amongst individuals who sincerely wish to share experiences and knowledge with colleagues.

Cao and Xiang (2012) announced that one of the vital processes for business success is the knowledge-sharing process. Engaging in knowledge-sharing activities creates innovation capability and improves absorption competency for organizational competitiveness (Cao & Xiang, 2012). Arguing that there is a necessity to create an incentive mechanism to embrace knowledge-sharing processes within an organization, Cao and Xiang suggested that leaders should develop incentives to share knowledge. Additionally, an employee's willingness to share knowledge may relate to system incentives and mutual adjustments (Durmusoglu, Jacobs, Nayir, Khiilji, & Wang, 2014).

Knowledge-sharing processes may influence the effectiveness of knowledge management system within an organization. These processes ensure the sharing of implicit and explicit knowledge, which assists in building a knowledge infrastructure (Massa & Testa, 2011). Mafabi, Munene, and Ntayi (2012) argued that knowledge sharing within a firm assists employees to adapt to new changes, therefore, recreating new value for organizations. Knowledge-sharing processes within a firm could leverage sustainable performance and enhance productivity (Makkonen, Siakas, & Vaidya, 2011). Likewise, Abzari and Abbasi (2011) showed that knowledge sharing in organizations

creates opportunities to obtain solutions and efficiencies with a competitive advantage. Similarly, Massa and Testa (2011) demonstrated that companies focusing on innovation usually master the exploration of organizational knowledge sharing. Further, Massa and Testa (2011) determined that companies, which normally capture, manage, and store explicit knowledge using computer-based systems, effectively share tacit knowledge and enhance organizational effectiveness.

Effective knowledge-sharing processes relate to high performance in a firm (Singh & Sharma, 2011). Muneer, Iqbal, Khan, and Long (2014) argued that firms might fail to integrate organizational knowledge in the absence of effective knowledge-sharing processes. Xue, Braddley, and Liang (2011) stated that knowledge sharing significantly determines organizational sustainability and competitive advantage. Likewise, Casimir, Lee, and Loon (2012) explained that knowledge-sharing processes formed through natural interactions amongst committed employees and the social capital approach enhances organizational competitiveness. By disseminating and recreating knowledge within a company, knowledge-sharing processes provide opportunities to maximize organizational capabilities for solution generation and efficiencies (Abzari & Abbasi, 2011). Therefore, business leaders may establish knowledge friendly environments by applying knowledge-sharing best practices.

However, because knowledge-sharing processes involve individuals, organizational best practices should include identification of enablers of and barriers to knowledge-sharing behaviors (Fang et al., 2013). According to Abzari and Abbasi (2011), knowledge sharing drives the process of knowledge application that involves

individuals, groups, and departments within an organization. Practitioners have defined these processes as activities to disseminate knowledge amongst team members (Carmeli, Atwater, & Levi, 2011). Furthermore, in conducting research on team sharing behavior, Xue et al. (2011) proved that knowledge-sharing behavior influences the effectiveness of knowledge-sharing processes. Therefore, within a firm, leaders should understand the factors that encourage knowledge-sharing behaviors.

Public sector knowledge sharing. One of the benefits of leveraging knowledge-sharing processes is to provide reasonable options for decision-making processes (Rai, 2011). In public sector organizations, leaders depend on a political process for decision-making (Ho & Madden-Halett, 2011) rather than on learning activities (Sandhu et al., 2011). Although there are few studies focusing on knowledge sharing in the public sector (Amayah, 2013), the perception of knowledge sharing by public sector employees is uncertain (Sandhu et al., 2011). There is a need to conduct several studies to identify barriers to knowledge-sharing processes in public sector organizations (Sandhu et al., 2011).

Amayah (2013) conducted a regression analysis to understand the degree of social interactions amongst public sector employees and found that an organizational climate statistically influences staff willingness to share knowledge. Amayah (2013) concluded that the effectiveness of knowledge-sharing processes in an organization depends on social interactions between employees. In addition, Nold (2012) argued that knowledge sharing in public sector organizations relates to organizational culture and organizational settings. Thus, leadership practices in public sector organizations should

encourage knowledge management within the workforce.

The implementation of organizational learning process between private and public sector organizations is diverse. Arguing that effective knowledge sharing requires rich data collection, Mizrahi, Vigoda-Gadot, and Ryzin (2010) stated that public sector organizations are unlikely to foster effective organizational learning because of the difficulty in collecting rich information. Mizrahi et al. (2010) explained further that leaders in the public sector view organizational resources that support knowledge management as too cost inefficient to implement. However, Mafabi et al. (2012) wrote that public sector organizations have not encountered direct pressures from competitors, leading to the lack of recognition of essential knowledge management efforts for successful outcomes.

Social Networks

Two key components of social networks are trust and social capital (Jones, 2010). Interactions in social networks develop and enhance perceptions of trust and reliability (Lin & Lu, 2011). In literature, the role of trust propensity is essential in knowledge-sharing processes (Peralta & Saldanha, 2014). Trust amongst co-workers is imperative to provide mutual support and respect (Borges, 2013), effective communication (Xue et al., 2011), and willingness to share information (Cai, Goh, Souza, & Li, 2013)). Through the lens of the social capital theory, social networks are a platform for individuals to express and establish relationships (Lin & Lu, 2011). From the perspective of social networks, Chen et al. (2010) claimed that social networks could explain how organizational knowledge flows and accumulates. Furthermore, knowledge sharing and social networks

are key factors for the success of any collaboration (An, Deng, Chao, & Bai, 2014). Social networks influence knowledge-sharing behavior amongst employees (Witherspoon et al., 2013).

Trust. Trust is the expectation of credibility and integrity (Slater & Robson, 2012). In addition, trust is a social tool used to motivate individuals in an organization towards effective teamwork and collaboration (Niu et al., 2012). Byrne et al. (2012) considered trust as an action that preserves the valued relationship between leaders and followers. Whilst trust definitions among scholars may vary, trusting relationships among employees and managers in the firm should be consistent for future knowledge benefits (Reiche, 2012). Peralta and Saldanha (2014) posited that as an aspect of a significant correlation of knowledge sharing, trust fosters the willingness to share knowledge amongst a workforce. Therefore, the impact of trust on organizational performance could become a key concept for effective organizational management.

Trust is a required instrument for organizational performance because trust facilitates cooperation among employees (Casimir et al., 2012). Trust results from the expression of care and concerns among individuals, thereby reducing feelings of vulnerability (Casimir et al., 2012). Mitigating fears can strengthen the perception of trust (Kim, Lee, Paek, & Lee, 2013). Ghosh, Shuck, and Petrosko (2012) conducted a survey to examine the linkage between emotional intelligence and organizational learning, and found that employees' emotions regulate perceptions of trust and respect and affect an individual's team learning behavior.

There is a link between trust and knowledge-sharing behaviors (Kim & Ko,

2014). Cai et al. (2013) agreed that a knowledge-sharing process would not be possible if an organization does not understand trust. The relationship between trust and knowledge sharing is circular (Niu et al., 2012). In addition, interpersonal and managerial trust enhances knowledge-sharing behaviors (Ho, Kuo, & Lin, 2012). For example, Razzaque, Eldabi, and Jalal-Karim (2013) researched the impact of social capital within healthcare knowledge-management processes and found the satisfaction derived from interactions with trust were a key element towards positively predicting virtual community participation toward knowledge sharing. Similarly, Kuo (2013) used a factor analysis on data collected from a survey that involved more than 1,500 employees in three companies to prove that trust in the workplace significantly influences knowledge-sharing behaviors. Moreover, trust is a precondition for the learning process because trust produces confidence (Niu et al., 2012).

Trust is a significant perception in the workplace. Many researchers have studied how trust influences individual behavior (Ho et al., 2012). For example, Chai et al. (2012) examined the impact of trust among bloggers and found that bloggers mitigate privacy concerns when trust exists. Chai et al. (2012) found that reciprocity is also positively associated with bloggers' trust. Additionally, because trust encourages the sharing of knowledge and information, leaders use the trust element to control collective actions and reduce transactional costs in the organizational learning process (Niu et al., 2012).

Trust is an action that preserves the relationship between leaders and followers. Slater and Robson (2012) suggested that trust and commitment exist within highly

personalized relationships. Trust in supervisor supports to develop a positive perception of the supervisorial characters and competencies in the minds of employees (Byrne et al., 2012). Leaders facilitate knowledge and enable access to organizational information to benefit employees by creating a relational social capital in the form of trust (Reiche, 2012).

Social capital. Social capital is an essential component to explain the existence of organizational relationships. Social capital is a process that improves the efficiency of an organization by facilitating collective actions from the engagement of trust, commitment, reciprocity and networks among individuals (Slater & Robson, 2012). In other words, employee relationships are part of the social capital process (Henttonen et al., 2013). Likewise, Grandien and Johanson (2012) defined social capital as goodwill created by the fabric of social relations to enable social actions. Reiche (2012) believed that the concept of social exchange derives from an emphasis on social interactions within a firm. In addition, Mahajan and Benson (2013) stated that social capital mediates the relationship between organizational justice and firm performance.

The impact of social capital is central to the way individuals deal with collective actions in their networks (Lin & Lu, 2011). Byrne et al. (2012) explained that leaders grounded in fairness principles instill perceptions of trustworthiness, which motivates employees to reciprocate with trust. For example, Kim and Lee (2010) conducted a survey of public and private employees in South Korea and found that social networks positively correlated with public employees' knowledge acquisition. In addition, a performance-based reward system influences employees' knowledge application abilities

(Kim & Lee, 2010). However, any factor affecting knowledge management processes can influence reciprocity (Fu & Lihua, 2012).

Previous studies by Lin and Lu (2011), Mura, Lettieri, Radaelli, and Spiller (2013), and Reiche (2012) indicated a common outcome regarding social capital influences. Moreover, Reiche (2012) found that social capital is a key element that enables repatriates to engage in knowledge sharing and motivation to access and transfer knowledge. Equally, Pinho, Rego, and Cunha, (2012) suggested that organizational leaders should create a culture of reciprocation by reinforcing positive expectations of knowledge-sharing processes and monitor the power of knowledge-sharing behaviors. In addition, Mura et al. (2013) showed that an individual's social capital perception significantly influences the relationship between employees' willingness to share knowledge and innovative behaviors.

According to Slater and Robson (2012), the implementation of relational processes in a complex cultural setting is not clear, even though leaders understand the positivity of trust. However, Reiche (2012) suggested that social capital indicates an existence of social resources, which under some conditions may benefit individual units. Additionally, Grandien and Johanson (2012) confirmed that social capital is a vital factor in the process of institutionalization and incorporation of theories concerning legitimacy, power, and influence. Therefore, social capital theory serves as an explanation of social interactions that exist in organizations or social networks (Slater & Robson, 2012).

The basis for the social capital is interaction, experience reciprocation, and trust within a population dynamic (Torch & Valenzuela, 2011). Social capital also relates to

organizational culture business concepts. From a social capital perspective, organizations activate an organizational climate to provide common procedures, shared beliefs, and cultural values in order to engage in knowledge-sharing processes (Chen et al., 2010). Employees who wish to develop social support and friendship are more likely to share knowledge (Casimir, Ng, & Cheng, 2012). Similarly, mutual exchange between employees becomes imperative as knowledge sharing involves social interactions (Rusly, Sun, & Corner, 2014). Furthermore, organizational knowledge and knowledge dissemination are a premise of social capital (Casimir et al., 2012).

Organizational Factors

Organizational factors discussed in this literature review relate to the climate, justice, learning, and culture of an organization. Organizational climate is an essential contextual factor that influences the establishment of any relationship within the workforce (Chen et al., 2010). Shah (2011) examined the concept of organizational justice and found that organizational fairness positively influences mutual trust between employees and leaders. Dasgupta (2012) proposed learning processes are adapted in organizations to conform employees to a mindset worthy of competitiveness and innovation. Moreover, Rai (2011) stated that organizational culture is a critical factor to build and maintain organizational knowledge.

Organizational climate. Organizational climates exist as the perceptions that individuals share within an organization (Xue et al., 2011). With an analysis of data collected from 297 volunteer participants, Tseng and Fan (2011) showed that an organizational climate affects an employees' attitude towards knowledge management

and influences employees' willingness to engage in knowledge-sharing processes. Tseng and Fan (2011) argued that the promotion of organizational climate forces employees to follow ethical rules and reinforces an individual's trustworthiness, reputation, and long-term relationships. An effective reward system would motivate employees to openly share their knowledge (Durmusoglu et al., 2014).

Organizational climates may reveal common values and beliefs that guide and shape employee behavior. In a qualitative case study, Peet (2012) found that without discipline or theoretical guidelines, tacit knowledge from senior employees is not identifiable and shared for the organizational benefit. Furthermore, organizational climates may influence leader behavior because truthful organizational climates can facilitate openness, supportiveness, and transformational leadership (Pinho et al., 2012).

Positive organizational climates can motivate employees to participate in knowledge sharing (Chen et al., 2010). In addition, Chen et al. (2010) further explained that employees would commit to knowledge-sharing and team efforts if management support existed. Husted et al. (2012) conducted a quantitative analysis of 1,639 respondents from 15 organizations in Denmark, demonstrating that if organizational leaders practiced commitment-based mechanisms, knowledge-sharing behaviors would increase.

Organizational justice. Individuals in organizations deal with social settings that influence employee decision-making (Mahajan & Benson, 2013). Therefore, organizational justice is key to developing positive organizational attitudes and behaviors. Shah (2011) believed that organizational justice relates to fairness in the

organization and consists of procedural, distributive, informational, and interpersonal justice. Organizational justice promotes social capital and strengthens organizational performance (Mahajan & Benson, 2013)

Procedural justice plays a key role in building a trusting relationship between employees and managers (Kuo, 2013). Byrne et al. (2012) referred to procedural justice as a decision-making process that ensures consistency amongst individuals and provides individual opportunity to influence organizational processes. Mahajan and Benson (2013) found that procedural justice improves relational social capital because of increasing interpersonal trust and acceptance levels based on organizational norms amongst employees. Arguing that an encouragement of knowledge sharing within organizations enables high performance, Casimir, Ng, and Cheng (2012) recommended that leaders use peer mentoring to increase procedural justice within an organization.

According to Byrne et al. (2012), distributive justice is the perception of fairness by employees. Mahajan and Benson (2013) showed that distributive justice enhances structural social capital by connecting individuals in a setting of a social network. The perception of a high level of distributive justice among employees creates a climate of fairness that assists employees to connect with each other (Mahajan & Benson, 2013).

Informational justice reflects the perception that leaders make decisions based on interpersonal justice, dignity, and respect (Byrne et al., 2012). Leung (2012) noted that leaders should participate in change steering efforts and cultivate a sharing culture. Leaders may successfully establish knowledge-sharing effectiveness by understanding employee responsibilities and sustaining employee morale. Knowledge is not an object,

rather shared and learned through human-to-human interaction (Leung, 2012). Moreover, Byrne et al. (2012) proved that interpersonal and informational justice positively relates to trust in leaders. Leaders should focus on facilitating respect by using team-building activities via various sharing platforms (Erhardt, 2011).

Organizational learning. Organizational learning is the process of acquiring knowledge from employees' experiences within a firm (Kumaraswamy & Chitate, 2012). This knowledge may influence employees' behaviors and improve a firm's capabilities. An organizational learning process can assist leaders in managing the knowledge assets of an organization (Karkoulian, Messarra, & McCarthy, 2013). Moreover, Sanz-Valle, Naranji-Valencia, Jimenez-Jimenez, and Perez-Caballero (2011) stated that organizational learning as a knowledge process, involves the acquisition of knowledge from internal and external environments. Similarly, Argote (2011) defined organizational learning as a system to create, retain, and transfer individual knowledge for organizational competitiveness. However, Dasgupta (2012) argued that organizational learning is a collection of activities that allow individuals to strategize, innovate, and survive in a competitive world.

Organizational actions and decisions to transfer and accept knowledge are essential for organizational learning processes (Flores, Zheng, Rau, & Thomes, 2012). Organizational learning and knowledge management can improve knowledge sharing when positive organizational cultures exist (Karkoulian et al., 2013). Organizational learning provides rich perspectives to create and maintain organizational knowledge, which motivates employees to become productive, creative, and confident

(Kumaraswamy & Chitale, 2012). However, leaders need to develop a learning process to enhance knowledge sharing (Niu et al., 2012). Niu et al. (2012) further explained that trust is pivotal to the effective utilization of social capital. Similarly, Chawla and Joshi (2011) suggested that leaders who are successful in dealing with uncertainties and complexities have to manage organizational learning consciously and comprehensively. Likewise, Lin and Lu (2014) posited that the relationship between employees and supervisors based on trust and respect enhances successful organizational learning outcomes.

Organizational leaders should make decisions rooted in organizational trust, collective morale, ethics, and peer dynamics (Rai, 2011). The effectiveness of an organizational learning process, therefore, may depend on many organizational factors including culture and leadership values. In any firm, organizational culture influences the organizational learning process, which could affect knowledge acquisition, knowledge distribution, and knowledge utilization (Messner, 2013). One of the critical factors in building and reinforcing the organizational learning process is organizational culture (Rai, 2011). Sun (2010) explained that leaders must develop and follow procedures that support and empower business innovation. Deverell and Burnett (2012) confirmed that characteristics of an organizations culture that negatively influence the learning process include coercion and a lack of trust amongst employees. Furthermore, Deverell and Burnett (2012) explained that when managers use power to derogate employees, the willingness to share and learn new knowledge is adversely affected. Therefore, organizational culture becomes a key enabler for organizational learning processes and

knowledge sharing potential.

Organizational culture. Through organizational culture, leaders could guide and shape organizational behavior (Chawla & Joshi, 2011). Tseng (2010) expressed that an organizational culture represents the characteristics of an organization and is an established belief of what people have, think, and do within a community. According to Nold (2012), organizational culture is a shared system with meaning, value, and beliefs that influence the behaviors of an individual or groups. Similarly, Sanz-Valle et al. (2011) stated that the basis for an organizational culture is the values and hidden assumptions that individuals in an organization share in common. Leaders should ensure organizational culture effectiveness to improve organizational performance (Borges, 2013).

Rai (2011) examined the relationship of organizational culture typology on organizational learning, innovation, and the knowledge-sharing process, labeling organizational culture types as clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market cultures. Further, Rai (2011) stated these organizational culture types interact within two dimensions: flexibility and discretion versus stability and control, and internal focus versus external focus. According to Tseng (2010), clan culture creates a friendly workplace, adhocracy culture produces creativity, market culture establishes workplace competitiveness, and hierarchy culture provides a disciplinary environment. Tseng further concluded that clan culture fosters knowledge sharing while hierarchy culture is not suitable for knowledge conversion climates. Suppiah and Sandhu (2011) similarly found that clan culture positively affects the willingness of individuals to transfer experience and knowledge;

however, market and hierarchy cultures negatively affect knowledge-sharing behaviors. Rai (2011) suggested that in reality, one culture type rarely characterizes organizational culture, and leaders need to balance the value of all four organizational culture types for optimization. Conversely, Sanz-Valle et al. (2011) found that adhocracy culture fosters organizational learning and neither internal focus nor external focus alone can characterize organizational culture.

The culture of an organization develops over time, determined by many organizational factors including the vital role of leadership (Cao & Xiang, 2012). Organizational culture during an emotive process within organizations either processes or impedes trust between individuals and knowledge-sharing behaviors (Casimir et al., 2012). Tseng (2010) claimed that many organizational leaders realize that employee performance comes from interdependent behaviors. Therefore, the role of organizational culture correlates with firm achievement. The factors that influence organizational culture include communication, social networks, trust, organizational commitment, technology, social interaction, and subjective norm (Witherspoon et al., 2013). Additionally, communication also influences, shapes, and enhances an organization's culture (Grandien & Johanson, 2012).

Effective Leadership for Knowledge Sharing

Leadership is critical in establishing and maintaining effective knowledge-sharing processes (Sun, 2010) since leadership engages in the creation of organizational culture and rules that shape organizational practices (Collen, 2012). Collen further explained that leadership also constitutes a learning process in organizations. Pinho et al. (2012) claimed

that leadership behaviors are essential to implement appropriate processes in the workplace. Removing organizational barriers and confronting diversity in cross-cultural contexts is critical (Pinho et al., 2012). Therefore, leadership plays a key role in establishing organizational contexts.

Organizational leaders need to sustain knowledge-sharing environments for organizational competitiveness (Chong et al., 2011). However, effective knowledge-sharing processes require employee participation and effective leadership practice and principles (Chong et al., 2011). Managers who strengthen relationships with employees effectively engage and encourage willingness for cooperativeness (Carmeli et al., 2011). Moreover, knowledge-sharing processes in an organization correlates with an employee's confidence in colleagues' reliability and sincerity (Witherspoon et al., 2013). Employees who feel attached to an organization are more likely to share knowledge (Casimir et al., 2012).

While engagement in positive knowledge-sharing behavior amongst employees affects organizational culture, effective leadership is essential to ensure the successful dissemination of the knowledge (Borges, 2013). According to Chawla and Joshi (2011), the impact of effective leadership on organizational ability and leadership behavior is crucial for effective organizational knowledge cultures. Leaders are responsible for the utilization of organizational resources (Hyypia & Pekkola, 2011). Leadership is an imperative factor to produce organizational knowledge and performance (Muneer et al., 2014). Through effective leadership, organizations may ensure positive individual behaviors while managing organizational knowledge (Chong et al., 2011). Effective

leadership could be imperative to organizational success.

Effective leadership is vital for knowledge-sharing processes because the effectiveness of organizational learning and creativity depend on leadership behaviors (Ziek & Smulowitz, 2014).). Ahn et al. (2011) proved that effective leaders, who promote fairness, integrity, and transparency, devote much attention to developing social interactions between individuals. Ahn et al. (2011) further explained that trust amongst employees develops when employees recognize leaders' care about employee contributions. With the establishment of employee trust, a positive attitude, and appreciated behaviors towards supervisors, overall organizational productivity will increase (Witherspoon et al., 2013). In particular, transactional and transformational leadership styles may assist in encouraging knowledge-sharing processes within the organization (Sahaya, 2012). Simola, Barling, and Turner (2012) stated that the focus of transformational leadership is to alter the relationship established between individuals and team members. While leaders could motivate followers with transformational leadership (Hyypis & Pekkola, 2011), with transactional leadership leaders can understand the role of management (Sahaya, 2012). The core principles of transactional leadership comprise contingent rewards and active management for organizational performance (Burns, 1978). Transactional leadership creates a positive influence on organizational culture that directly affects knowledge sharing and organizational performance (Pinho et al., 2012). Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) showed a direct relation between transactional leadership and knowledge-sharing practices.

Schneider and George (2011) stated a transformational leader attracts followers

with charismatic, motivational, inspirational, goal-oriented, and visionary character. Further, Schneider and George (2011) claimed that the basis of transformational leadership exists with personal relationships, a common vision, and teamwork. With the implementation of transformational leadership, organizations may benefit from seeing employees exceed expectations in their respective work environments (Hyypia & Pekkola, 2011). Based on the findings from a study on the expectations of transformational leadership, Gregory, Moates, and Gregory (2011) suggested that transformational leadership encourages and stimulates employees to share individual knowledge, enable innovation, and promote trust. By incorporating transformational leadership, organizations could establish and maintain effective knowledge-sharing processes (Gregory et al., 2011).

Organizational leaders are responsible for overcoming any resistance that may thwart innovation and competitiveness amongst stakeholders. Carmeli et al. (2011) recommended that organizational leaders should enforce knowledge sharing processes. Because transformational leadership focuses on charisma and individual relationships, leaders should consider adopting transformational leadership styles to encourage knowledge sharing (Hyypia & Pekkola, 2011). Effective leadership influences team climates by promoting social interactions with mutual respect and trust (Xue et al., 2011). Further, Xue et al. (2011) expressed that effective leadership empowers the workforce by ensuring an effective knowledge-friendly workplace.

Literature Review Summary

A diagram of the literature review organization of this study resides in Figure 1.

Organizations should codify, store, and recreate knowledge within the workforce (Tsirikas, Katsaros, & Nicolaidis, 2012). Factors produced by individual interactions influence sharing behaviors amongst employees (Friesl, Sachmann, & Kremser, 2011). Social capital theory, a conceptual framework in this study, can assist organizational leaders in engaging and developing interpersonal relationships (Slater & Robson, 2012) and collective actions (Kim et al., 2013). According to Putnam (1995), social capital is the integration of trust and social relationships to generate economic and mutual benefits for employees, as well as the organization. Moreover, social capital and trust are two key elements in social networks (Jones, 2010) and a framework for reciprocity (Borges, 2013). Employee perceptions of fairness and trust may affect the knowledge-sharing behaviors. Organizational culture is a facilitator of organizational learning (Rebelo & Gomes, 2011).

In addition, organizational performance depends on the ability to learn (Stoddart, 2012). Organizational leaders can ensure that tacit and explicit knowledge flows freely and quickly by recognizing factors that influence employee behaviors (Muneer et al., 2014). Heizmann (2011) recommended that organizations recognize that information sharing is crucial to enhancing organizational policy and strategy. Furthermore, leadership is responsible for organizational development and performance (Muchiri, Pintelon, Gelders, & Martin, 2011). The best practices of organizational leaders are essential components to support knowledge sharing (Reid, 2014). Thus, leadership may play an essential role in encouraging knowledge-sharing willingness amongst employees.

Transition and Summary

Serving as an introduction for this study, Section 1 contains the (a) Problem Statement, (b) Purpose of the Study, (c) Nature of the Study, (d) Research Question, (e) Hypotheses, (f) Theoretical Framework, (g) Definitions of Terms, and (h) A Review of the Professional and Academic Literature. In the literature review, I compare and contrast the related literature to provide a deeper understanding of (a) knowledge management, (b) knowledge sharing, (c) trust, (d) organizational fairness, (e) social capital, (f) organizational learning, and (g) the relationships among these elements.

In Section 2, I reiterate the purpose statement and present a detailed discussion of (a) the Role of The Researcher, (b) the Participants, (c) Research Method and Design, (d) Population and Sampling, (e) Ethical Research, (f) Data Collection, and (g) the Reliability and Validity. In Section 3, I include an overview of the study, presentation of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

Section 2: The Project

The understanding of organizational knowledge as a source of operational performance and sustainability has increased in the public sector (Jain & Jeppesen, 2013). Leaders must focus on creating and enhancing knowledge-sharing processes (Chong et al., 2011; Pinho et al., 2012). The objective of this study was to examine the nature and extent of the relationship between (a) employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency and (b) employee's knowledge sharing. In this section, I include detailed information on the methodology and research process, (a) Purpose Sstatement, (b) Role of the Researcher, (c) Participants, (d) Research Method and Design, (e) Population and Sampling, (f) Data Collection, (g) Reliability and Valadity, and (h) Summary.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to identify the extent and nature of the correlation between (a) employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency and (b) the willingness of employees in public housing authorities in Texas to share knowledge. Considering that people are a vital element of the knowledge-sharing process, leaders need to examine the culture of the organization to learn how much it has a supportive and effective knowledge-sharing environment (Deverell & Burnett, 2012). The analysis of standard multiple regression and significance of correlation of the independent variables on knowledge-sharing willingness may assist leaders in promoting knowledge friendly working environments. Leaders of public housing authority agencies might utilize the study findings to establish effective

knowledge sharing processes. Effective knowledge sharing processes assists leaders in collecting organizational wisdom and can contribute to intellectual capital retention amongst employees (Turner et al., 2012). Resultant improvements in performance at public housing authorities could (a) expand the housing service to low-income residents, (b) reduce taxpayers' burden by effectively improving business processes, and (c) increase social service quality by enforcing the compliance of HUD's sustainability plan.

Role of the Researcher

As the researcher, I actively involved myself in all processes of this study, including (a) data collection, (b) storage, (c) analysis, (d) data integrity, (e) confidentiality, and (f) the proffer of conclusions. I reviewed the Belmont Report protocol and completed Protecting Human Research Participants training by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research (certification number 803591). The study components included the development and verification of the survey questions, performing the pilot study, and conducting the final study.

Interaction between social actions sustains knowledge (Pillay & James, 2014). From the constructivism worldview, practitioners focus on active participants by conducting and communicating knowledge creation in an organization amongst employees (Yoo, Kim, & Kwon, 2014). Ensuring a freedom to participate in this quantitative study, I did not influence the population with knowledge and experience regarding the housing authority business.

I serve as the Director of Information Technology Resources for a local housing authority where I have implemented available technologies to improve the agency's

business operations and procedural processes. I am familiar with HUD's regulatory requirements and sustainability policy. In this position, I have a professional relationship with leaders and employees in my agency. However, I do not have any relationship with the employees and leaders in other agencies in the State of Texas. Bias causes a misrepresentation of the result findings and can occur in any assessment of data collection process (Healy & Devane, 2011). Becker (2013) stated that avoiding contact with participants prior to the survey ensures preconception do not occur. To manage potential bias, I did not include my agency in the study population.

Participants

Employee motivation and collaboration will positively affect knowledge sharing in an organization (Rasula et al., 2012). However, there is a gap in the literature focusing on knowledge sharing in the public sector (Amayah, 2013). The target population for this study consisted of fulltime employees and leaders in public housing authorities in the State of Texas. I used purposive sampling to assure the participants' relevance to the research questions (Bryman, 2012). As a Director of Information Technology Resources for a local housing authority, I understand how knowledge-sharing processes occur in organizations. This understanding assisted in building relationships with employees and executive leaders across housing authorities in the State of Texas.

After IRB approval (No. 10-13-14-0250051), I sent an introduction letter (Appendix B) to all executive directors of public housing authority agencies in the State of Texas asking permission to conduct a survey among their employees and leaders. Public housing authority listings are publically available through the HUD website. Once

executive directors agreed to participate in this study, I requested that an authorized representative of each housing authority send the online survey link to the target population. The online survey host was Survey Monkey®. Because data analyses based on individual local housing authorities did not occur, leaders participated without employees in the same location and employees participated without respective leaders. Since an authorized representative distributed the link to the online survey, there was no identifiable information requirement; however housing authority executive directors, authorized representatives, and city/county demographics remained confidential. All participants completed a consent form to participate. Participants could withdraw from the study at any time, and until final response submission. I have sole access to all data, saved in an USB drive and stored in a locked, fireproof safe for a period of 5 years.

Research Method and Design

For this study, I used a quantitative correlational design to examine the relationship between employee trust, organization fairness, and supervisor competency on knowledge-sharing behaviors. Muijs (2011) suggested that researchers whose worldview underlies positivism, experiential realism, or pragmatism tend to use a quantitative methodology in natural or social science studies. Quantitative research is an investigative tool that researchers use to examine descriptions of phenomena, changes over time within groups, or relationships amongst variables including predictions (Rovai, Baker, & Ponton, 2013). Experimental and nonexperimental are two types of quantitative research designs used to test or examine the validity of a hypothesis (Muijs, 2011). According to Rovai et al. (2013), nonexperimental designs include descriptive,

correlational, and causal-comparative designs. In conducting correlational research, investigators can examine relationships between two or more existing and nonmanipulating variables (Green & Salkind, 2011).

Research Method

Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods are different approaches to conducting a research study (Rovai et al., 2013). Applying quantitative methodology, investigators confirm a linkage amongst sets of (a) data, (b) business factors, (c) financial success, or (d) management performance (Malina et al., 2011). Muijs (2011) stated that researchers employ quantitative methods to collect and mathematically analyze data to explain a particular phenomenon. Moreover, quantitative researchers test a theory or hypothesis to explain relationships between independent and dependent variables (Allwood, 2012; Malina et al., 2011). Likewise, Chong et al. (2011) conducted a quantitative study to test the correlation between organizational factors and the willingness to share knowledge in public sector organizations in India. In addition, Husted et al. (2012) used a quantitative research method to examine the relationship between organizational governance and knowledge-sharing behavior. For this study, I used a quantitative method to examine the correlational relationship of employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency on the willingness to share knowledge. Therefore, a quantitative method was suitable for this study.

Researchers use qualitative methods to explore perceived meanings, leading to an interpretive estimation of the existing phenomena (Fuhse & Mutzel, 2011) and to understand social problems (Savage-Austin & Honeycutt, 2011). In addition, qualitative

researchers explore the experiences of research participants rather than a researcher's topic (Fisher & Stenner, 2011). Rusly et al. (2014) adopted a qualitative methodology to assess the influence of change perceptions on knowledge-sharing processes in the business environment. Since the purpose of this study was to examine relationships instead of perceived meanings, a qualitative method was not appropriate.

Mixed methods researchers blend qualitative and quantitative methods (Muijs, 2011). Researchers use mixed-methods to examine and explore causality and meanings (Muijs, 2011). According to Bryman (2012), researchers use mixed methods when the focus on the phenomenon is an issue of mathematical clarity by comparing qualitative and quantitative findings. Since I only employed numerical analysis, absent of a phenomenon, a mixed-method approach was not suited for this study.

Research Design

Quantitative experimental designs provide researchers with strong claims for causality through the utilization of the ability to assign random value for the factors used to manipulate values of variables (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Conversely, quantitative non-experimental designs are suited for investigating relationships between variables occurring in a particular context (Muijs, 2011). Since the purpose of the study was to examine linear correlations of employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competence on the willingness to share knowledge amongst employees, a quantitative non-experimental design was appropriate. Because experimental designs are the strongest approach for addressing internal validity, researchers use experimental designs to determine causality (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Moreover, experimental designs involve

manipulation of variable's values to find the effects of one variable to another (Field, 2013). Because I could not manipulate the values of the variables in this study, experimental designs were not appropriate.

Nonexperimental designs include descriptive, correlational, and causal-comparative or ex post facto (Rovai et al., 2013). Researchers use descriptive designs to generate records for a phenomenon within a given population (Muijs, 2011). A correlational design is appropriate for investigators to examine relationships or prediction between variables (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Pangil and Chan (2014) chose a regression analysis to test the correlations between knowledge-sharing relationships with trust and virtual team effectiveness. Researchers who use causal-comparative design, or ex post facto design, examine possible causes or consequences of differences (Rovai et al., 2013). I used a correlational design to test hypotheses and to determine the prediction existed between the independent variables and dependent variable.

A correlation design is appropriate to measure variable relationships (Pallant, 2013). In addition, Wallen and Fraenkel (2013) noted that quantitative researchers employ correlational designs to examine essential human behaviors or predict likely outcomes based on variables' relationships. Carmeli et al. (2013) conducted a regression analysis to examine the relationship between leadership and creativity to mediate the role of knowledge sharing.

Researchers use the statistical significance of the correlation coefficient to calculate the likelihood of a relationship between two studied factors (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, I conducted a data analysis using a standard multiple regression and

correlation with IBM SPSS® 22.0 (Pallant, 2013) to study the prediction of multiple variables and to test each of the hypotheses. Although the purpose of this study was to examine a linear relationship between variables, I also conducted a descriptive analysis to understand the demographics of the participants (Green & Salkind, 2011). Additionally, a regression model test for the prediction of knowledge-sharing willingness from employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency supported the study findings. Amayah (2013) used a multiple regression analysis to examine the determinants of knowledge sharing in a public sector organization. I analyzed a standard multiple regression model to address two questions relating to the central research question for this study:

- How do the three independent variables of trust, fairness, and competency predict knowledge-sharing behavior?
- Which, if any, is the best predictor of knowledge-sharing behavior: employee trust, organizational fairness, or supervisor competency?

Population and Sampling

Public housing authority agencies vary in sizes, scopes, and organizational structure (Kumar & Bauer, 2010). According to HUD (2014), 413 housing agencies represent many local cities and towns in the State of Texas. The population consisted of employees and leaders employed fulltime by public housing authority agencies in the State of Texas. Researchers use purposive sampling to ensure the credibility of potential participants (Becker, 2013). Purposive sampling allows the researcher to collect rich data and increase study validity (Suri, 2011). Moreover, Hoch (2014) employed purposive

sampling to select quantitative data from 280 team members of a medium sized business development provider to examine the influence of leadership on knowledge sharing. I used a purposive sampling method to identify the target population to examine if a correlational existed between trust, fairness, and competence with knowledge-sharing willingness. I sent an introduction letter (Appendix B) regarding the purpose of the study to all executive directors of public housing authority agencies in the State of Texas requesting permission to conduct a survey of employees and leaders. Public housing authority listings and contact information were publically available through the public HUD website (HUD, 2014). After agreeing to allow their agency to participate in this study, the executive director designated an authorized representative of each authority to send an online survey link via e-mail, along with a brief overview of the research, to the target population. The online survey host was Survey Monkey®. The participants could access the survey from any geographical location.

Since each of the values of employees' trust, organizational fairness, or supervisor competency was random, I conducted a random effect multiple regression model. All three hypotheses $H1_a$, $H2_a$, and $H3_a$ were directional. Field (2013) suggested that researchers conduct a one-tailed statistical test for a directional hypothesis.

In quantitative research, the determination of the sample size is necessary for the interpretation of a correlational strength between variables (Field, 2013). Effect size, alpha value, and statistical power are the parameters for calculating the sample size (Muijs, 2011). The reliability of research findings is dependent on an adequate sample size (Wallen & Fraenkel, 2013). Cohen (1992) analyzed statistical power in research to

provide the effect sizes and sample sizes required for power = .80 to detect the effects via various statistical tests. Effect size index and value for small, medium, and large effect are imperative in determining of population sample size for quantitative analysis (Cohen, 1992). Relating to the prediction in multiple regression testing, Cohen (1992) defined the values for small, medium, and large effect size index respectively as .02, .15, and .35. Explaining further, Cohen suggested that the actual medium effect size is .1304. Therefore, the medium effect size .15 used in G*Power software to calculate the sample size was about 13% greater than Cohen's actual medium effect size of .1304. I employed a power test analysis to calculate the sample size required for the study (Field, 2013) and conduct a power analysis with a linear multiple regression, random effect model (exact F-test). The sample size generated by G*Power 3.1.2 software for conducting 1-tailed test in this study (Faul et al., 2009) where $\alpha = .05$, power = .80, and effect size = .15 for three predictors was 69 (Appendix C).

Ethical Research

Codes of conduct guidelines are essential for handling and directing research (Muijs, 2011). Ethical research includes (a) informed consent, (b) voluntary participation, (c) harm prevention, (d) confidentiality, and (e) protection of vulnerable populations (Rovai et al., 2013). In addition, Whitley and Kite (2013) categorized ethical research as respect, beneficence, and justice. Respect refers to voluntary participation, informed consent, and freedom to withdraw from participation (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Beneficence means the protection of vulnerable populations, avoidance of harm, and confidentiality (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Justice also refers to informed consent and

voluntary participation (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Ethical considerations are guidelines for all researchers.

After obtaining an agreement from the participating housing authorities, an authorized representative invited all participants meeting the criteria for the study to complete an online survey via Survey Monkey®. Online survey pages were not available until the participant confirmed the agreement to participate on the first page of the survey link. This confirmation served as implied consent by the participants. Participants could withdraw from the study at any time prior to the final submission of the survey by refusing to complete or terminating the survey. There were no incentives to participate or requirements for the names of individual employees or respective housing agencies. Any information regarding the name of executive directors who agreed to the study, authorized representative, or county/city identification remains confidential. I have sole access to all data, saved in an USB drive and stored in a locked, fireproof safe for a period of 5 years.

Data Collection

Instruments

In quantitative studies, the Likert scale is a measurement that can assist researchers with the value of variables' information (Rovai et al., 2013). I used the 5-point Likert questions to gather data responses. Rating scales such as the Likert-type provide respondents the ability to indicate the degree to which they agree with the statement item (Muijs, 2011). In addition, quantitative researchers use Likert-type surveys in establishing equally weighted statements regarding participants' perception,

attitudes, or opinions (Rovai et al., 2013). The survey question response options were choices among five levels of agreement: *strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree*. The scores of the responding values respectively ranked from 1 to 5.

The online survey consisted of two parts and a total of 45 questions (Appendix A) and was hosted by Survey Monkey®. Part 1 contained questions to generate anonymous demographic information. To understand the demographics of the population, I conducted a descriptive analysis. Within quantitative methods, demographic data are required for conducting descriptive analyses (Green & Salkind, 2011). Part 2 included survey questions to obtain responses for the values of predictors and for testing the hypotheses.

To assure the instrument's validity, I adopted survey instrument based on an extensive review of available peer reviewed literature on the topic. Demonstrating construct validity requires testing of the instrument derived, based on the hypothesis and research questions (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Quantitative investigators explore construct validity by examining the related (convergent validity) and unrelated (discriminant validity) relationship of the constructed variables (Pallant, 2013). To address the concerns with construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity, I adopted the measurement indicators from peer reviewed literature and obtained permission to reuse the text from the publishers (Appendix D), regarding (a) employees' willingness to share knowledge, (b) social networks, (c) supervisor competency, and (d) organizational factors. For each of the measurement indicators, I reused 5-point Likert scale survey questions from the previous studies. Table 2 contains a summary of how the

instrument items related to the measurement indicators of the available peer reviewed literature.

Table 2
Survey Instrument Questions Relationship to Literature

Literature sources	Measurement indicators	Survey questions
Kim and Lee (2010)	Social networks	ET1, ET2, ET3, ET4, ET5, ET6, ET7, and ET8.
Kim and Lee (2010), Reychav and Sharkie (2010)	Performance based award, reward expectation, and intrinsic job motivation	OF9, OF10, OF11, OF12, OF13, OF14, and OF15.
Byrne et al. (2012)	Trust in supervisor	SC16, SC17, SC18, SC19, SC20, SC21, SC22, SC23, and SC24.
Byrne et al. (2012), Kim and Lee (2010), Reychav and Sharkie (2010)	Knowledge-sharing willingness	KS25, KS26, KS27, KS28, KS29, KS30, KS31, KS32, KS33, KS34, KS35, KS36, KS37, KS38, KS39 and KS40

The purpose of collecting data from survey questions 1 to 8 was to examine the employees' perception of trust, coding as ET1, ET2, ET3, ET4, ET5, ET6, ET7, and ET8. Questions' 9 to 15, coding as OF9, OF10, OF11, OF12, OF13, OF14, and OF15, related to the perception of participants regarding organizational fairness. The responses to questions 16 to 24, coding as SC16, SC17, SC18, SC19, SC20, SC21, SC22, SC23, and SC24, revealed employee perceptions of their supervisor's competency. Question 25 to 40 measured the degree of the willingness of employees to engage in knowledge sharing, coding as KS25, KS26, KS27, KS28, KS29, KS30, KS31, KS32, KS33, KS34, KS35,

KS36, KS37, KS38, KS39 and KS40. A copy of the instrument is located in Appendix A.

Two design types in descriptive studies are *cross-sectional* and *longitudinal* (Rovai et al., 2013). Based upon the nature of this study, my instrument followed the cross-sectional design. The anticipated data collection timeframe for the pilot study was 1week, and the length of data collection process for the final study was 2 weeks.

Table 3
Pilot Study - Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients for Sets of Questions

Question set	N	Mean	SD	Cronbach's alpha	Cronbach's alpha based on standardized items
Knowledge sharing (KS)	16	50.93	10.285	.870	.875
Employees' trust (ET)	8	25.83	6.639	.891	.893
Organizational fairness (OF)	7	17.20	5.486	.845	.845
Supervisor's competency(SC)	9	27.57	7.855	.917	.919

Before I proceeded with the final study, I performed a test of the instrument for validity and reliability. Reliability of the instrument is imperative to the consistent interpretation of the statistical tests (Field, 2013; Rovai et al., 2013). Cronbach's alpha coefficient is effective in determining the internal consistency and the acceptable coefficient is .70 or higher (Pallant, 2013). I examined the Cronbach's alpha values from a pilot study described in the data collection technique section to test the reliability of the instrument. Cronbach's alpha is a measure of internal consistency reliability based on the value of a correlation between items of an instrument (Rovai et al., 2013). Lee and Yu (2011) calculated Cronbach's alpha value to validate the inter-item reliability of the variables related to knowledge sharing. As shown in the Table 3, the Cronbach's alpha

coefficient of question set for employees' willingness for knowledge sharing was .870, employees' perception of trust was .891, organizational fairness was .884, and supervisor's competency was .942. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient for each question sets of the survey exceeded the acceptable value of .700, indicating a reliable consistency.

Data Collection Technique

After IRB approval, I conducted a pilot study to examine the assumptions and the consistency of the instrument. After the assumptions and validation of the instrument were satisfied, I proceeded with the final study. The HUD public website at http://www.hud.gov served as the source to retrieve the names and contact information of the executive directors of public housing authorities in the State of Texas. I sent an introduction letter to the executive directors asking permission to survey fulltime employees and leaders within their agency. After receiving permission to conduct the survey from the respective organization, I sent an invitation to the designated representative that included the survey link and a brief description of the study for the targeted population.

I established an online account with Survey Monkey® to serve as the distribution point for the survey instrument. SurveyMonkey.com is a third-party online service that hosts and administers online surveys and data collection (SurveyMonkey.com, 2014). Participants could complete and submit the survey online from any geographical location. Once the survey was complete, I downloaded the results into a Microsoft Excel® file to merge into the IBM SPSS® data analyzer.

The authorized representatives of the participating housing authorities distributed

the survey link for the final survey questions to potential participants. The initial timeframe for conducting the final survey was established as 1 week. Because the required number of participants had not completed the survey within 1 week, the survey availability remained open for one additional week. I asked the authorized representatives to distribute an e-mail (Appendix E) reminder for participation after the first week. This extended timeframe allowed for 69 responses. Participants had the option to cancel, stop, or opt-out at any time during the survey before the final survey submission. The survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete.

A pilot study can assist the researcher to refine the data collection process (Yin, 2013). A pilot review process is crucial for examining the reliability and validity of the instrument in evaluating the measurements of variables, and serves to support and verify the inter-item reliability of the final scores (Muijs, 2011). Pilot studies range from informal try-out procedures to small-scale clinical trials (Hertzog, 2008). The sample size of the pilot study is ambiguous amongst researchers. Nieswiadomy (2011) suggested obtaining 10 participants for any pilot study. Conversely, Hertzog, (2008) computed that a group of 10 to 15 would be sufficient for testing the feasibility of a quantitative study. However, Hertzog (2008) posited that 25 participants are considered a required threshold sample size for instrument validation in a pilot study. Furthermore, Hertzog also stated that 30 to 40 participants per group are appropriate to yield confidence intervals for a subsequent power analysis. Therefore, a pilot study consisting of 30 participants was conducted to test the instrument reliability as aforementioned. The final study population did not contain leaders and employees who participated in the pilot study.

Data Organization Techniques

Data organization techniques are tools researchers use to manage data, thereby increasing assurance of the study's reliability and validity (Martins & Meyer, 2011). Once the online survey process was complete, I downloaded the data from the Survey Monkey® website into a Microsoft Excel® format and merged into the IBM SPSS® 22.0 statistical software for analysis. I have sole access to all data, stored in a locked, fireproof safe for a period of 5 years. Because the study was anonymous in nature, no unique identifiers were required.

Data Analysis Technique

IBM SPSS® 22.0 software was my choice to conduct a standard multiple regression analysis to test the hypotheses and to evaluate the prediction of the set of independent variables to answer the research question. Employees' perception of trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency, were the predictors. The dependent variable, willingness to share knowledge, was the criterion or dependent variable.

The purpose of conducting a pilot study was twofold, checking the violation of the regression assumptions and testing the reliability and validity of the instrument. Pallant (2013) purported that when conducting a regression analysis, researchers should test for multicollinearity, outlier, normality, homoscedasticity, and independence of residuals. Similarly, Osborne and Waters (2002) pointed four assumptions in statistical analysis were (a) normal distribution of independent variables, (b) linear relationship, (c) reliability of measurement, and (d) homoscedasticity. By conducting a pilot study, I examined the data to address the reliability of the survey and tested for any violation of

analysis assumptions. Shown in Table 3, Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for all variables exceeded the acceptable value of .700, confirming the instrument's consistent reliability.

Researchers who conduct a regression analysis should test four assumptions: (a) normal distribution of independent variables (b) linear relationship, (c) reliability of measurement, and (d) homoscedasticity (Osborne & Waters, 2002). In addition, Pallant (2013) stated that if the correlation between the independent variables is high, multicollinearity occurs, reducing the credibility of the study result. To address these assumptions, I conducted a pilot study for a standard multiple regression analysis.

I examined the potential multicollinearity among employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency by examining the values of Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) in a Coefficients table produced in the SPSS multiple regression procedure. If the value of Tolerance is less than .10 or the value of VIF is above 10, the present of multicollinearity occurs (Pallant, 2013). As illustrated in the coefficients table of the pilot study as a regression analysis summary (Appendix G), the values of tolerance and VIF for employees' perception of trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency respectively were >.10 and < 10. Therefore, multicollinearity did not occur.

In addition, I inspected the maximum value of the Mahalanobis distance displayed in the Residual Statistics table for outlier existence (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). For three independent variables, outlier occurs when the maximum value of Mahalanobis distance exceed the critical value of 16.27 (Pallant, 2013). From the residual statistics table shown in Appendix G, the maximum Mahalanobis value was 7.245, confirming the non-existence of outliers in this pilot study.

The Normal P-P Plot of regression-standardized residual on the dependent variable (willingness to share knowledge), is expected to assess the normality (Pallant, 2013). I examined the straight diagonal line from the bottom left to the top right of the Normal P-P Plot (Appendix G) and the centralization of the residuals distribution in Scatterplot served to confirm the normal distribution, linearity, and homoscedasticity (Osborne & Waters, 2002; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). If one or more assumptions for conducting the regression analysis showed violation, I would have transformed data to repeat the tests or performed nonparametric tests (Field, 2013).

Furthermore, I performed a homoscedasticity test via Levene's Test. Table 4 contains the values of Levene's statistic, degree of freedom, and significance for three independent variables. The significant values for all variables were > .05, indicating the test for homoscedasticity was satisfied. In conclusion, the pilot study resulted with no violation of the regression analysis assumptions.

Table 4
Pilot Study - Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene's statistic	*df1*	*df2*	Sig.
Employees' trust	1.501	6	13	.253
Organizational fairness	1.856	9	12	.157
Supervisor's competency	.906	8	11	.544

Multiple regression analysis by SPSS® contains (a) descriptive statistics for regression analysis, (b) regression model summary, (c) ANOVA, and (d) coefficients of the regression model (Field, 2013). From these model statistics, I explained the variance in knowledge-sharing willingness to show the prediction of employees' trust,

organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency. The R-value in the model summary table showed correlation coefficients that indicated prediction strengths between employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency on willingness to share knowledge. The ANOVA table for the composite model provides data that determine **w**hether the model is a significant fit by examining the value less than .05 in the column labeled Sig. (Field, 2013).

From the first part of the survey, I collected demographic data to establish a descriptive summary of the study participants. Researchers use descriptive research to identify the status of an identified variable and measure the central tendency of a qualitative variable or the frequency of a category in the dataset (Green & Salkind, 2011). The five questions in the first section of the survey related to the demographic information, which I used for descriptive analyses. The participant demographic data included years of experience, age, and gender.

1. How long have you been working in this organization? _____ years
2. Numbers of years you have been reporting to your current supervisor: ____.
3. Your age: ___ Under 30, ___ 30-39, ___ 50 and over.
4. Gender: _____ Male, _____ Female.
5. How many people report to you? __ 0, __ 1-5, __ 6-15, __ 16 or more.

After establishing instrument validity by reviewing and examining the results of the pilot study, I collected data for the full-scale study. Data from the second part of the survey were designed to measure the values of the independent variables (employees' trust, organizational fairness and supervisor competency) considering a relation to the

value of the dependent variable (willingness to share knowledge).

From the second part of the survey, the first subgroup of eight questions corresponded to the first independent variable, eliciting the *trust* perception of the participants. The responses to the questions revealed the level of employee trust in management and supervisors. The coefficients table produced by regression analysis in SPSS® provided a significant value for each of the predictors and the degree of the prediction. If the significant value equals 000, the *p*-value is less than .0005 (Pallant, 2013). The standardized beta values, representing the number of standard deviations, showed the relationship as used for priori power analysis between predictors and the outcome where α = .05 and 1-β = .80. The significance of the correlation between independent variables and dependent variable is satisfactory when the *p*-value is less than or equal .05 (Becker, 2013). While inspecting the statistical significant (*p*-value) for the regression model‘s coefficient, I determined the degree and nature of the correlation between *employees' trust* and *willingness to share knowledge* and test $H1_{0.}$

1. ET1: My coworkers and I can freely share our beliefs and feelings.
2. ET2: If I have a problem, I feel comfortable asking my coworkers for advice.
3. ET3: I welcome input from my colleagues.
4. ET4: I have established a productive working relationship with my colleagues, based on organizational beliefs of assisting low-income residents.
5. ET5: I think my supervisor is honest when he/she communicates with me.
6. ET6: I think my supervisor is sincere when he/she assigns my tasks.
7. ET7: I know that my supervisor tells his/her employees the truth at all times.

8. ET8: I trust my colleagues with my documents and files.

The next subgroup of seven questions addressed the second independent variable, *organizational fairness*. Perceived organizational fairness affects an employee's attitude towards knowledge sharing (Wu & Zhu, 2012). The responses provided information for the correlation coefficient analysis to understand the effect of employee perception on fairness in the targeted organizations and the subsequent relation towards knowledge-sharing behaviors. I addressed the testing of $H2_0$ by examining the significant (*p*-value) of *organizational fairness* in the ANOVA table, part of the multiple regression analysis by SPSS®.

1. OF9: I believe that employees in my organization are promoted based on their competence.
2. OF10: I believe that my organization evaluates employees fairly.
3. OF11: I have the same opportunities for advancement as other employees in my organization.
4. OF12: My organization uses the same tool to measure job performance towards every employee.
5. OF13: I believe my salary and benefits are adequate based on my job performance.
6. OF14: My organization recognizes my skills and talents.
7. OF15: My organization gives me the opportunities to learn new things.

The third subgroup of 9 questions in the second section of the survey related to how employees evaluate their *supervisor's competency*. Byrnes et al. (2012) concluded

that an interpersonal trust develops through social exchanges between employees and supervisors. Thus, the level of employee trust in supervisors and supervisor competency was crucial to the study findings. The significance value in the coefficients table showed the relationship between the perception of employee on supervisor competency and knowledge sharing. I examined the significance value (*p*-value) of this *supervisor competency* variable to test the null hypothesis $H3_0$.

1. SC16: I believe that my supervisor is technically competent to perform his/her job.
2. SC17: My supervisor clearly defines and assigns my responsibilities.
3. SC18: My supervisor clearly defines and communicates goals and objectives to employees.
4. SC19: My supervisor often promotes teamwork and respect amongst employees.
5. SC20: I believe that my supervisor knows how to perform his/her job.
6. SC21: My supervisor encourages knowledge-sharing behaviors.
7. SC22: My supervisor encourages team collaboration.
8. SC23: My supervisor has asked me to share my knowledge with others in my department.
9. SC24: My supervisor has asked me to share my knowledge with others outside my department.

The last subgroup of 16 questions corresponded to the dependent variable, measuring employee *willingness to share knowledge* (designated KS below). Frequent communication is a required skill to share knowledge (McLaughlin & Stankosky, 2010).

Active support of teams and networking increases employee commitment to participate in discussion and communication (Messner, 2013).

1. KS25: I frequently and voluntarily share my knowledge with my colleagues in my department.
2. KS26: I frequently and voluntarily share my knowledge with my colleagues outside my department.
3. KS27: I freely share my knowledge with my colleagues in my department.
4. KS28: I freely share my knowledge with my colleagues outside my department.
5. KS29: I discuss various work related topics with my colleagues in my department.
6. KS30: I discuss various work related topics with my colleagues outside my department.
7. KS31: I usually discuss knowledge-sharing activities with my colleagues in my department.
8. KS32: I usually discuss knowledge-sharing activities with my colleagues outside my department.
9. KS33: I only share my knowledge at the request of others.
10. KS34: I freely share my documents and files with colleagues in my department.
11. KS35: I freely share my documents and files with colleagues outside my department.
12. KS36: I freely share my experiences on a project or occurrence with colleagues in my department.
13. KS37: I freely share my experiences on a project or occurrence with colleagues

outside my department.

14. KS38: Sharing my knowledge with others will jeopardize my employment.
15. KS39: I am afraid someone else will take credit for my work.
16. KS40: Sharing knowledge is crucial to the success of my organization.

Survey Monkey® provided the raw data from the participants' responses. I converted the data format using Microsoft Excel® for compatibility with the SPSS® application. I performed a standard multiple linear regression utilizing IBM SPSS® 22.0, a statistical analysis software, to produce (a) correlations, (b) model summary, (c) ANOVA, (d) coefficients, (e) residuals statistics, (f) normal P-P of regression standardized residual, (g) scatterplot, and (h) Levene's test. The SPSS® summary for the model of the dependent variable and predictors showed the value of *R*, R^2, Adjusted R^2, and standard error of the estimate. I inspected the value of R^2 to explain the outcome variability accounted by each variable. The Residual Statistics, Normal P-P of Regression and Scatterplot were useful for examining possible assumptions violation (Pallant, 2013). An ANOVA table provided the value of (a) Sum of Squares, (b) Degree of Freedom, (c) Mean Square, (e) *f*, and (f) Sig.

Conducting a standard multiple linear regression analysis for a single set of predictors, I addressed the research question: To what extent do employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency predict employees' willingness to share knowledge? The regression model summary, ANOVA, and coefficients established by SPSS® program served to determine the significance of all three independent variables (employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency) in a single set on

knowledge-sharing willingness.

Social capital theory, along with the effective leadership construct, played a pivotal role in building a knowledge-friendly environment. Nguyen and Mohamed (2011) demonstrated that, for their study, effective leadership significantly predicted knowledge management practices. Social capital processes provide a ubiquitous effect to internal and external social networks and society (Slater & Robson, 2012). Leaders should understand how trust and social networks affect knowledge sharing (Swift & Hwang, 2013). Social and relational factors in organizations are essential for organizational learning and knowledge sharing (Williams, 2012). The results of these analyses provided a business concept based on the theoretical framework of social capital theory and the concept of effective leadership. Sandhawalia and Dalcher (2011) suggested that leadership establishes the overall strategy for knowledge management by creating an appropriate culture to accomplish knowledge-sharing strategies.

Reliability and Validity

Key concerns of measurement involved in quantitative studies are validity and reliability (Muijs, 2011). The two basic types of validity are internal and external (Whitley & Kite, 2013). Rovai et al. (2013) stated that internal validity confirms the high credibility of the tested sample in quantitative research, and the external validity generalizes the findings to the targeted population. Moreover, reliability is a key element to determine the precision of the statistical measurement (Muijs, 2011).

Reliability

The reliability of the instrument and the survey administration process both affect

the overall reliability and findings of the study (Becker, 2013). I conducted a pilot study to test the instrument's reliability. Researchers conduct pilot studies to examine the quality and reliability of the survey instrument (Kim & Lee, 2010). In addition, the process of using Cronbach's alpha testing can allow the researcher an opportunity to address the inter-item reliability of the instrument (Lee & Yu, 2011).

The survey administration process reflects the reliability of the study (Becker, 2013). In addition, transferring of data to a Microsoft Excel® application directly from an online survey platform hosted by Survey Monkey® can mitigate the risk of data input mistakes and improve reliability (Becker, 2013). Moreover, the use of collinearity diagnostics in determining the correlation and relationship between independent variables reduces the possibility of multicollinearity violation (Pallant, 2013). Data produced from a standard multiple regression in the coefficients table consisted of the (a) B value and standard error of the unstandardized coefficients, (b) Beta value of the standardized coefficients, (c) *t*-test value, (d) Sig. value, (e) lower and upper bound of the 95% confidence interval for β, (f) Zero order, partial and part correlations, and (g) tolerance and VIF of collinearity statistics. I compared the different variables by looking at the standardized coefficients. Comparing the Beta value of each independent variable can determine how much contribution each predictor possesses (Pallant, 2013). Whichever variable having a higher Beta value is indicative that the said variable has a stronger unique contribution in predicting the dependent variable (Field, 2013). I also checked the significance value of each independent variable to address each related hypotheses and the significant contribution to the prediction.

Validity

Threats to internal validity include (a) history, (b) maturation, (c) testing, (d) instrumentation, (e) statistical regression, (f) mortality, (g) selection, (h) experimental treatment diffusion, (i) compensatory rivalry, (j) statistical conclusion validity, and (k) resentful demoralization (Rovai et al., 2013). Since I did not examine any causal relationship, the only internal validity threat was the selection factor. The selection threat includes a self-selection of participants to groups, or nonrandom assignment of research participants to groups (Rovai et al., 2013). In this study, I invited all fulltime employees and leaders of public housing authorities in the State of Texas, ensuring freedom of participation, and providing a withdrawal opportunity during the survey process. Moreover, Becker (2013) stated that internal validity might not be relevant for a correlational investigation.

External validity threats include (a) the interactions of treatment and selection, (b) setting, (c) history, and (d) pre-testing (Bryman, 2012). I used purposeful sampling to target participants to ensure selection validity. In contrast, based on this multiple regression model; generalization may serve as a threat to external validity (Field, 2013; Rovai et al., 2013). I intended only to apply the findings of this study to this geographical area of public housing authorities to avoid generalization.

Threats to validity in a quantitative study include criterion and content validity (Field, 2013). The criterion validity is used to verify an instrument's measurement and content validity involves the validating and the reliability of the instrument (Field, 2013; Rovai et al., 2013). Since, I conducted tests to address the presence of outliers, linearity,

normality, and homoscedasticity in both pilot and full scale studies, the validity and reliability of the study's findings should increase.

Summary

In this section, I reintroduced the purpose of the study, research method and design. I discussed the process of data collection and analysis, research validity, and reliability. In Section 3, I present (a) the Overview of the Study in summary form, (b) the Presentation of the Findings, (c) the Application to Professional Practice, (d) the Implications for Social Change, (e) the Recommendations for Action, (f) the Recommendations for Future Study, (g) the Reflections, and (h) the Summary and Study Conclusions.

Section 3: Application to Professional Practice and Implications for Change

I introduced the business problem and the purpose statement in section 1. Additionally, I included the research question, the hypotheses, and the survey questions. Section 1 also included a discussion of the literature to include (a) knowledge sharing, (b) trust and social capital, (c) organizational factors, and (d) effective leadership. In section 2, I highlighted the protocols, procedures, and processes of conducting a quantitative correlational study with a standard multiple regression analysis. Section 3 includes (a) an Overview of Study, (b) a Presentation of the Findings, (c) Application to Professional Practice, (d) Implications for Social Change, (e) Recommendations for Action, (f) Recommendation for Further Study, (g) Reflections, and (h) Summary and Study Copnclusions.

Overview of Study

Organizational management needs to ensure that useful and innovative knowledge is shared amongst employees (Bashouri & Duncan, 2014). Through leadership influence, management could motivate knowledge-sharing processes within the workforce (Carmeli et al., 2013). To foster knowledge-sharing willingness in an organization, leaders should consider creating an environment where (a) employees trust their managers and each other (Nold, 2012), (b) employers reward employees for positive performance (Wang, Wang, & Liang, 2014), and (c) organizational leaders invest in human capital to increase supervisorial leadership and competency skills (Lee, Lee, & Park, 2014). In this way, understanding the correlation between (a) employees' trust, organizational fairness, supervisor competency, and (b) employees' willingness to share knowledge within an

agency could promote best practices among public sector leaders.

Using a regression analysis, I examined the correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variable by testing the hypotheses. The hypotheses developed to support the research question consisted of the following null and alternative hypothesis, $H1_0$, $H1_a$, $H2_0$, $H2_a$, and $H3_0$, $H3_a$:as follows:

$H1_0$: Employee trust will not significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H1_a$: Employee trust will significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H2_0$: Employees' perceived fairness in the organization will not significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H2_a$: Employees' perceived fairness in the organization will significantly predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H3_0$: Supervisor competency will not positively predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

$H3_a$: Supervisor competency will positively predict employees' willingness to share knowledge.

Based on the regression analysis, none of the null hypotheses—$H1_0$, $H2_0$, and $H3_0$—were supported. The correlation between (a) employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency and (b) knowledge-sharing behavior was significant. Therefore, the result of this analysis supported hypotheses $H1_a$, $H2_a$, and $H3_a$. The regression model demonstrated a positive prediction of the independent variables on

knowledge-sharing behaviors, while the regression assumption tests showed no violation of the regression analysis assumptions.

Presentation of the Findings

The research question that guided this study was: To what extent do employee trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor competency predict employees' willingness to share knowledge? The study findings indicated a significant correlation between the variables and served to address the research question and support the alternative hypotheses. The study results showed that all independent variables (employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisors' competency) predicted employees' propensity towards knowledge-sharing behaviors in housing authorities in the State of Texas.

The purpose of this quantitative correlational study was to examine the relationship between the independent variables (employees' perception of trust, organizational fairness, supervisor competency and the independent variables (employees' willingness to share knowledge) in public housing authorities in the State of Texas. I adopted survey from the literature that consisted of five demographic questions and 40 5-point Likert-type scale questions from my comprehensive review of the literature to collect data for a standard linear multiple regression analysis. In addition, I completed a pilot study with 30 participants to test for reliable consistence of the instrument and the assumptions of regression analysis. Moreover, I sent out an introduction letter to 25 public housing authority executive directors in the State of Texas asking for permission to invite fulltime public housing employees and leaders to participate in this study. Nine agencies agreed to participate, and 70 public housing

personnel completed the survey. Participants included 18 employees, 34 direct supervisors, 10 managers who were departmental directors, and eight executive leaders. Via the online survey, Survey Monkey®, 83 participants responded. However, as shown in table 5, 13 participants did not complete the survey. Seventy participants, 84.34%, completed the survey, meeting the required sample size of 69 participants. Table 5 is the description statistics table, representing the Means, Standard Deviations (SDs) and number of survey participants (N) for sets of questions on employees' trust, organizational fairness, supervisor's competency, and knowledge-sharing willingness.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	Standard deviation	N
Knowledge sharing	59.89	9.334	70
Employees' trust	33.21	5.821	70
Organizational fairness	26.06	5.592	70
Supervisor's competency	35.06	7.183	70

Table 5 is the descriptive statistics produced by SPSS 22.0 for the final study data, showing the average weight for 70 responses on knowledge sharing, employees' perception of trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency respectively were 59.89, 33.21, 26.06, and 35.06. Descriptive statistics information does not influence the regression analysis (Field, 2013). However, data in Table 5 were useful to summarize the means and standard deviations for the values of all variables collected from survey participants.

Included in the descriptive statistics, the correlation table contains a matrix that

includes Pearson's correlation coefficient values, 1-tailed significance, and the number of cases contributing to the correlation. According to Field (2013), the correlation table is essential to indicate how predictors correlate and multicollinearity would not exist if non correlation between predictors is > .900. From Table 6, the correlation matrix showed 1-tailed significant value of zero ($p < .005$) and correlations between predictors <.900. Furthermore, in regard to knowledge sharing, the highest correlation was between organizational fairness and knowledge sharing ($r = .597$, $p < .001$), indicating organizational fairness had a strongest correlation to knowledge sharing.

Table 6
Correlations

		KS	ET	OF	SC
Pearson's correlation	KS	1.000	.529	.597	.564
	ET	.529	1.000	.777	.707
	OF	.597	.777	1.000	.714
	SC	.564	.707	.714	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	KS		.000	.000	.000
	ET	.000		.000	.000
	OF	.000	.000		.000
	SC	.000	.000	.000	
N	KS	70	70	70	70
	ET	70	70	70	70
	OF	70	70	70	70
	SC	70	70	70	70

Tests for Assumptions of Parametric Data

Major assumptions of parametric data in regression include outliers,

multicollinearity, normality, and homogeneity of variance (Pallant, 2013). I performed multiple tests for any violation of the parametric data assumptions with regression analysis. Testing these assumptions is important for statistical procedures (Field, 2013).

According to Field (2013), outliers cause the regression model to be biased. In detecting outliers, Pallant (2013) suggested examining the residuals statistic table for standardized minimum and maximum residual values. In addition, Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) stated that outliers occur when the standardized residual values are < - 3.0 or > 3.0. In examining the minimum and maximum standardized residue values in the residue statistics table in Appendix H, I found these values (-2.318 and 1.630) were > -3.0 and < 3.0. I further inspected the Mahalanobis value in residual statistics table to confirm the assumption violation status of outliers. The residuals statistics table in Appendix H shows the Mahalanobis distance maximum value as 15.637, which was below the critical value of 16.27 for three independent variables (Pallant, 2013). Furthermore, Field (2013) defined outliers as a case of collected data that varies from the data trend. Generating Cook's distance value helped to measure the overall influence of the case on the model's ability to predict that case for further outlier test. If Cook's distance minimum and maximum are less than 1, outliers do not exist (Field, 2013). The maximum Cook's distance value in the residuals statistics table (Appendix H) was (.106) < 1, confirming no major violation of parametric data outliers in a regression analysis. Therefore, no further action was required to check for outliers.

Multicollinearity occurs when the predictors are strongly correlated with one another (Field, 2013). In examining this condition, I found the tolerance and VIF values

for three predictors respectively were .350, .342, .431 and 2.860, 2.922, 2.318. None of the values of Tolerance was < .10 and none of the values of VIF showed in the coefficients table in Appendix H exceeded 10. Therefore, the study data met the multicollinearity assumption test.

Table 7
Test of Homogeneity of Variances

	Levene's statistic	*df*1	*df*2	Sig
Employees' trust	1.387	12	49	.204
Organizational fairness	1.862	13	48	.060
Supervisor's competency	1.612	17	44	.102

Researchers use a Levene's test to assess the absolute difference between each deviation score and the mean of that group; therefore, homogeneity of variances occurs when the variances in different groups are not equal. According to Field (2013), the Levene's test is non-significant when the value of Sig produced by the test of homogeneity of variances is above .05 (p >.05). If Levene's test is non-significant, homoscedasticity does not occur. As illustrated in Table 7, in the Levene's statistic test of homoscedasticity, the respective values of the significance for employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency was .204, .060, and .102, all were >.05, indicating no violation of homoscedasticity.

According to Field (2013), normal P-P plot graph shows the cumulative probability of the variables against the cumulative probability of a particular distribution. Furthermore, if the normal P-P plot of regression shows a straight reasonable diagonal line, there is no problem with distributed data normality (Pallant, 2013). The normal

probability plot in Figure 2, showed the probability of the variable existed in a reasonable straight diagonal line from the bottom to the top right, demonstrating no issue with normality.

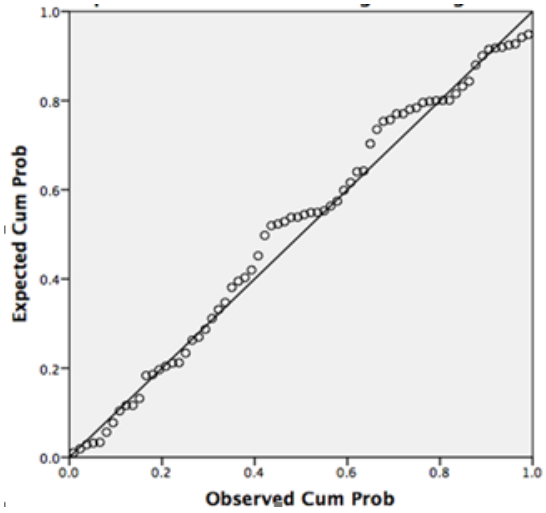

Figure 2. Normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual for dependent variable, knowledge sharing.

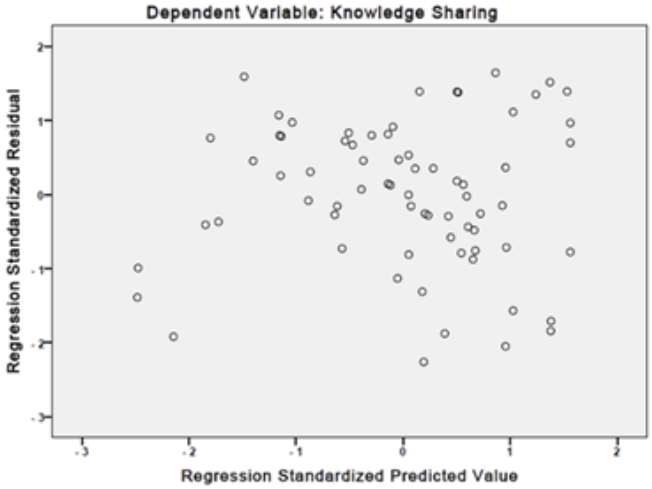

Figure 3. Scatterplot of regression standardized residual for dependent variable, knowledge sharing.

Research Question and Hypotheses Tests

Organizational knowledge is perceived to be a source of power of expertise and

cumulatively shared within the firm (Jain & Jeppesen, 2013). Mutual trust amongst employees, a critical aspect of social capital, allows effective knowledge sharing (Hu & Randel, 2014). Employees will trust the organization and willing to share knowledge if they trust the supervisors (Kim & Ko, 2014). By understanding these correlations public sector organizational leaders may enhance their best practices by considering and focusing on building effective knowledge-sharing processes.

Table 8
Regression Analysis Summary for Predictor Variables

Variables	*B*	Std. Error	*β*	*t*	Sig.	95% CI Lower	95% CI Upper
Constant	28.890	5.281		5.471	.000	18.347	39.433
ET	.104	.259	.065	.403	.689	1.413	.622
OF	.602	.273	.360	2.204	.031	.057	1.146
SC	.338	.189	.260	1.787	.079	-.040	.716

Note. N = 70. Dependent variable = Knowledge sharing (KS). Data represented in this table originate from the coefficients table produced by SPSS 22.0 for the full scaled study (shown in Appendix H).

The statistical significances for the predictors showed in ANOVA (Appendix H) repeated .000, which were $p < .005$, indicating that null hypotheses, $H1_0$, $H2_0$, and $H3_0$ were not supported. The correlation values listed in Table 6 showed a relationship between independent variables and dependent variable. Employees' perception of trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency value respectively showed at .529, .597, and .564; all were preferably > .3 (Pallant, 2013), indicating a strong correlation between the independent variables and knowledge-sharing behavior. This finding supported all alternative hypotheses $H1_a$, $H2_a$, and $H3_a$, indicating that employees' trust,

organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency strongly correlated with knowledge-sharing willingness.

R^2 is the coefficient of determination used to explain how much of the variance in the dependent variable by the model presented (Pallant, 2013). Likewise, demonstrated in the model summary table in Appendix H, the R^2 values assisted in explaining how many percentages the independent variables accounted in the dependent variable variances by the model. The R^2 value in this model summary table (Appendix H) was .396, indicating that all three predictors accounted for 39.60% of the variance in knowledge-sharing behavior. However, organizational fairness was statistically significant with (β = -.360, p = .031) accounting for a high contribution to the model. Therefore, neither employee trust nor supervisory competency provided any significant variation in knowledge-sharing behavior.

Additionally, I examined the F ratio for the model in ANOVA table (Appendix H). F ratio is the ratio of two mean square values; therefore, if the F ratio is closer to 1, the null hypothesis is supported (Field, 2013). Correspondingly, if the F ratio is large, the regression is formative and the model is acceptable (Field, 2013). In the ANOVA table (Appendix H), the F ratio showed as 14.436, making regression formative and the null hypothesis acceptance unlikely to occur (p < .001). Therefore, all null hypotheses $H1_0$, $H2_0$, and $H3_0$ were not supported in this study. Employees' trust (r = .529, p = .000) predicted knowledge-sharing behavior. The correlation between organizational fairness (r = .597, p = .000) and the willingness to share knowledge was most significant. Employees' perception of supervisor's competency (r = .564, p = .000) correlated to

knowledge-sharing willingness. In addition, this finding showed that employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency were the predictors of knowledge-sharing behaviors. Amongst the independent variables, correlation values shown in Table 6 indicated organizational fairness (r = .597, p = .000) as a strongest predictor. Moreover, as illustrated in Table 8, the Beta value of variable organizational fairness was largest (.360), explaining that organizational fairness was the strongest unique contribution to knowledge sharing. ANOVA table in Appendix H showed a significant contribution of all three predictors to knowledge sharing where p = .000 (<.0001). Correlation values in Table 6 indicated significant relations between the independent variables and dependent variable. However, in Table 8, the significance values of employees' perception of trust and supervisor's competency appeared to be > .05, indicating that employees' perception of trust and supervisor's competency variables did not significantly contribute to the prediction of knowledge-sharing willingness.

Relating Findings to the Literature

Effective knowledge sharing may contribute to enhanced organizational performance. Knowledge sharing is a social process (Leung, 2012) that creates opportunities to maximize organizational ability (Abbasi, 2011) and fulfills the requirements for future competitiveness (Kim & Ko, 2014). However, distrust amongst employees hinders the willingness to share knowledge (Messner, 2013; Xue et al., 2011). Knowledge-sharing behavior amongst employees and leaders promotes a positive culture where organizational leaders may (a) create effective organizational culture and learning environments (Ho & Madden-Hallett, 2011), (b) provide employee incentives for

motivation (Hu & Randel, 2014), and (c) demonstrate effective leadership skills (Pinho et al., 2011).

In this study, the findings were consistent with previous research, in that an employee's perception of trust, fairness, and leadership competency may predict knowledge sharing willingness. Trust amongst employees contributes to sharing behaviors (Chong et al., 2011; Niu et al., 2012; Nold, 2012; Pinho et al., 2011). Trust allows effective interaction between agents (Felicio, Couto, & Calado, 2014); therefore, trust enables a free exchange of information (Hu & Randel, 2014). According to Gubbins and Dooley (2014), when employees trust each other and their supervisors, a willingness to share information increases. Demonstrated by a hierarchical regression analysis, Pangil and Chan (2014) showed that personal trust and institutional trust significantly related to knowledge-sharing behaviors. Additionally, employee perceptions regarding organizational fairness are essential to assure a culture that enhances the positive sharing of information (Hu & Randel, 2014).

The findings of this study indicated that employees' perception of organizational fairness significantly predicted employee's willingness to share knowledge. Utilizing a regression model analysis, Amayah (2013) demonstrated that social interactions, rewards system, organizational climate, and personal benefits strongly affect a willingness to share knowledge. Furthermore, Kim and Ko (2014) explained that employees perceive fairness through the practices of leaders and availability of human resources. These components, along with supervisory competency, are necessary to build employee's trust and the tendency to contribute to organizational knowledge (Kim & Ko, 2014). The

correlation between participants' perception of organizational fairness and knowledge sharing indicated in Appendix H (r = .595, p = .000) was strongest compared to trust *(*r = .521, p = .000) and supervisor's competency (r = .560, p = .000).

Furthermore, an employees' perception of supervisor's competency in this study significantly correlated to knowledge sharing as described in previous research. Kim and Ko (2014) stated that the perceived supervisor's competency amongst employee's increases when supervisors foster high levels of trust and treat subordinates fairly. Furthermore, Kim and Ko (2014) posited that employees' perception of supervisor's competency affects the willingness to share information. Leaders demonstrate competence by establishing employees' trust in their management thereby increasing the potential for knowledge-sharing behaviors (Su & Carney, 2013). Employees' perception of supervisor's competency is an essential requirement for employees to share knowledge (Nold, 2012). The values in the descriptive statistics table (Appendix H) confirmed a correlation between supervisor's competency and knowledge-sharing behaviors (r = .560, p = .000).

In addition, my study findings correlated with research grounded in the literature regarding private sector organizations. Muneer et al. (2014) conducted a quantitative descriptive analysis of 20 palm oil manufacturers and found that organizational trust had a positive mediating effect on knowledge-sharing behaviors. With a confirmatory factor analysis of 520 participants from organizations in manufacturing and servicing industries, Fu and Lihua (2012) found that the perception of employees regarding organizational fairness correlates with the willingness to share knowledge. Lee and Yu (2011)

conducted a quantitative study in private companies in Taiwan and confirmed that leaders' competency relates to the behaviors of employees in sharing tacit knowledge. Based on my study findings, the correlational relationship between trust, fairness, and supervisor's competency may predict willingness to share knowledge, supporting previous research claims for studies conducted in public sector organizations.

Findings Tied to Social Capital Theory

The social capital theory is used by researchers to examine the role of social relations and interactions in the promotion of knowledge sharing (Li, Ye, & Sheu, 2014). Business leaders use the social capital theory to explain relational resources or network relationships in knowledge-sharing activities (Hau et al., 2013). Social interactions, trust, reciprocity, intrinsic and extrinsic incentives, and perception of supervisor's competency positively predict the outcome of knowledge-sharing behavior per the social capital theory (Lin & Lu, 2011). My study findings indicated that the three elements of social interactions, trust, fairness, and competency correlated with and may predict knowledge-sharing behaviors. Participants in this study indicated that their trust relationship (r = .521, p = .000) strongly correlated with their willingness to share information within the organization. Trust is a valuable element in considering an appropriate mechanism for controlling collective actions within an organization (Niu et al., 2012). Kim and Ko (2014) argued that knowledge-sharing behavior increases when mutual trust between employees occurs.

The strongest element found to correlate with knowledge-sharing behaviors from the analysis of participants' responses was the employees' perception of organizational

fairness. Participants' perception of organizational fairness (r = .597, p = .000) was the strongest factor when compared to employees' trust and supervisor's competency as a modality to predict employee's willingness to share knowledge. Social capital leads to efficiency from the reciprocity of commitments because social capital refers to mutual relationships, contexts, trust, and norms that effectively encourage knowledge-sharing behavior (Felicio et al., 2014). Employees' perception of organizational fairness influences social norms of reciprocity, another element of social capital theory (Jones, 2010). Conversely, Hu and Randel (2014) posited that trust and incentives mediate knowledge-sharing behavior in which the explanation of interaction between social networks and tacit and explicit knowledge sharing by social capital theory is expected.

Supervisor's competency proved to be another predictor for knowledge-sharing activities. The results of the data analysis showed that the perception of participants on supervisor's competency (r = .564, p = .000) correlated to employee's willingness to share information. Based on the premise of the social capital theory, social concerns including supervisor's competency affect information exchange through social interactions (Chennamaneni, Teng, & Raja, 2012). Subordinates perceive that supervisors are competent and trusted when they are involved in daily decision-making processes (Kim & Ko, 2014). Moreover, Lin and Lu (2011) argued that the social capital theory concept might be used by leaders to establish positive relationships amongst employees and encourage communication in the workplace.

Business Practice

Recognizing that employee perceptions of trust, fairness, and supervisor's

competency are essential to building an effective knowledge-sharing process, leaders might enhance organizational best practices to improve business operations and performance. Understanding the correlates of knowledge-sharing behavior in an organization assists management in bridging tacit knowledge with organizational knowledge (Lee et al., 2014). This bridge can increase innovation capacity and competitive advantage (Cao & Xiang, 2012). Organizational leaders who practice effective leadership skills encourage the dissemination of knowledge and information sharing (Borges, 2013). When employees share knowledge, their tacit knowledge becomes cumulative and embeds in explicit knowledge through organizational policies, products, or services (Argote, 2011).

By utilizing effective knowledge-sharing processes, public housing authorities may improve business operations and performance. Retaining knowledge from experienced employees is crucial to developing new knowledge within an organization and sustains and exceeds prior best practices (Peet, 2012). Effective knowledge-sharing processes foster individual creativity and autonomy (Lee et al., 2014). Positive attitude when sharing tacit and explicit knowledge enhances collective efficiency and reduces transaction and operational costs (Niu et al., 2012). The development of organizational knowledge depends upon an effective knowledge-sharing environment (Dasgupta, 2012). Understanding hindrances to knowledge-sharing willingness might be imperative for leaders to recognize for improvement of future business operations and performance.

Encouraging employees to share and develop organizational knowledge are essential practices for future innovation and competitiveness in a global market

(Dasgupta, 2012). The ability to develop effective organizational knowledge reduces cost and increases productivity (Durmusoglu et al., 2014). My study findings revealed correlational relationships that organizational leaders may implement to recognize and build effective knowledge-sharing processes.

Applications to Professional Practice

The study findings demonstrated the correlates of knowledge-sharing behavior in public housing authorities in the State of Texas. The results of data analyses in this study showed that employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency are predictors of knowledge-sharing willingness amongst employees and leaders of public housing agencies. The study findings might assist public housing authority leaders with understanding the role of internal social interactions for building best practices in creating a friendly-knowledge-sharing workplace. Organizational leaders who build an effective knowledge-sharing culture improve business operations and performance through innovation and competitiveness (Callender, 2011; Filieri & Alguezaui, 2014).

Committed to a strong goal for sustainability, HUD is working with housing authorities to strengthen the housing market, and provide decent and affordable housing services to low-income residents (HUD, 2012). Housing authorities follow HUD's program guidelines to meet HUD's performance requirement metrics (McDonald, 2011). Effective knowledge-sharing processes in an organization enhance business sustainability and performance (Callender, 2011). Recognizing leadership best practices are essential for creating effective knowledge-sharing processes and to increase organizational performance and competitiveness (Cao & Xiang, 2012). The findings of this study are

specific to the correlates of knowledge-sharing behavior in public housing authority. The understanding that trust, fairness, supervisor's competency predicted knowledge-sharing behavior amongst the workforce might apply to future practices within the management of the public housing authorities.

The adoption of knowledge-sharing best practices in public housing authorities may positively affect organizational strategies to improve employee's perceptions regarding trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency. Effective organizational knowledge practices improve customer services (Guchait et al., 2011), and increase business competency and productivity (Hau et al., 2013). With a positive perception of trust, fairness, and supervisor's competency, employees may favorably transmit their tacit knowledge or request knowledge from others to find solutions, or develop problem-solving skills for enhanced organizational productivity (Durmusoglu et al., 2014). Furthermore, knowledge transfer between individuals contributes to the development of organizational knowledge and is considered a source of business innovation (Filieri & Alguezaui, 2014). Leaders should encourage employees to share knowledge, which could ultimately recreate and enrich organizational knowledge. The findings from this study may serve as a demonstrable resource for business practitioners to incorporate and understand effective organizational knowledge-sharing best practices.

Implications for Social Change

Identifying best practices for managing knowledge-sharing processes might assist public housing authority's leaders with improving housing service quality. Effective knowledge-sharing processes are essential to increase organizational sustainability and

innovation (Lee et al., 2014). Public housing authorities manage organizational sustainability per HUD's performance strategies (HUD, 2012). With an effective knowledge-sharing process, organizational leaders may improve business operations and innovation (Kuo, Kuo, & Ho, 2014). Leaders of public housing authorities may enable public housing authority agencies to obtain sustainability by enhancing the quality of housing services (HUD, 2012). In addition, by implementing strategic changes to build an effective knowledge-sharing culture, leaders of public housing authorities may increase the efficiency of social programs for low-income residents and reduce annual operating budgets, thereby reducing taxpayer burden (Kumar & Bauer, 2010).

When leaders of public housing authorities control and enrich organizational knowledge, these same leaders might establish effective policies and business procedures. Leaders apply organizational knowledge to formulate and refine standards and procedures (Sandhawalia & Dalcher, 2011). Effective policies and procedures directly affect performance and competitiveness in organizations (Rai, 2011), decrease operational cost and increases productivity (Durmusoglu et al., 2014). When public housing leadership teams engage in processes to motivate their workforce to share knowledge, leaders might improve agency performance and control waste and reduce expenditures. Kumar and Bauer (2010) claimed that effective public housing operations may decrease the need for federal funding to manage public housing programs, control waste, and reduce expenditures.

Recommendations for Action

The indicated correlations between trust, fairness, and supervisors' competency

and knowledge-sharing behavior amongst the workforce might be useful for improving business decisions, contribute to social change, and enhance performance initiatives for public housing authorities. The study results demonstrated correlational ties between employees' perception of trust, fairness, and supervisor's competency and the willingness to share knowledge. If business leaders use the social capital theory to examine the role of social relations in promoting knowledge sharing in their organizations (Li et al., 2014), public housing authority's leaders may benefit from my study findings. I recommend leaders in the public housing authorities apply the social capital theory as a framework to (a) create a culture of trust, (b) ensure fairness for all employees, and (c) build effective leadership that engages knowledge-sharing willingness.

As the findings showed, perceptions of trust amongst employees and between employees and managers may predict the willingness to share knowledge. Trust enables the effectiveness of interaction, allowing the exchange of new ideas and experiments (Gubbins & Dooley, 2014). To build a culture of trust, organizational leaders must promote cognitive ability and effective communication (Felicio et al., 2014), and implement supportive, ethical, and transformational leadership (Pinho et al., 2011).

The mean for OF was 25.61, which was the least compared to the mean of ET at 33.17 and SC at 34.97, indicating that the perception of organizational fairness was low amongst the study participants. Employees' perception of unfairness affects the perception of trust (Kim & Ko, 2014). Organizational rewards system positively affects reciprocity (Hau et al., 2012). Based on the interview responses and to ensure fairness for all employees, leaders from public housing authorities might (a) reevaluate performance

measurement systems, (b) ensure transparent processes and procedures, and (c) give employees sufficient authority and responsibility in handling their own work.

Effective leadership is vital to motivate employees to share experiences and knowledge (Lee et al., 2014). Leaders should work to overcome employees' resistance to the organizational mission (Carmeli et al., 2011) and to ensure trust and fairness for knowledge sharing and dissemination (Borges, 2013). Moreover, effective leadership increases social capital contexts via practicing justice and supportive behaviors (Pinho et al., 2011).

Recommendations for Further Study

Knowledge-sharing behavior correlated with perceptions of (a) organizational trust (Byrne et al., 2012; Chang & Chuang, 2011; Kim et al., 2013), (b) trust in management (Casimir et al., 2012; Peralta & Saldanha, 2014; Reiche, 2012), (c) extrinsic rewards (Durmusoglu et al., 2014), and (d) fairness (Kim & Ko, 2014). The results of this study aligned with previous research found in the literature and confirmed that employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency might serve as predictors of knowledge-sharing behaviors in public housing authorities.

Although, the findings were significant and indicated strong correlations, further research using a larger sample size may provide a higher degree of precision. Field (2013) suggested that effective size, an important element to determine the sample size of a statistical study, is a standardized measure of the magnitude of observed effect. The small, medium, and large effect size respectfully accounts for 1%, 9%, and 25% of the total variance (Field, 2013). I used the medium effect size to include 70 participants as

required for this study. Further researchers might use small effect size to include a larger number of participants to further confirm my findings. In addition, the repetition of study analysis using other data sets may enhance the generalizability of findings (Fu & Lihua, 2012). Replicating this study within a larger geographical region, or public housing authorities in other states may reconfirm the significance of this study for public housing authorities. In addition, this study may also be replicated in other government or private organizations to address more far-reaching gaps in business practice.

The purpose of this study was to understand the effect of employees' perceptions of trust, fairness, and supervisor's competency on knowledge-sharing behavior. Sharing tacit knowledge and experiences in an organization may enrich organizational knowledge. Sharing of individual knowledge arbitrates relationships between explicit knowledge sharing and organizational innovation (Hu & Randell, 2014). Explicit knowledge sharing increases organizational performance because exchanging explicit knowledge influences employees' values and an organizational culture (Wang et al., 2014). Future studies directed at separating tacit knowledge-sharing behavior and explicit knowledge-sharing behavior might also deepen the understanding of employees' behavior in knowledge exchange and information sharing.

Reflections

Reflections on my experience in this research process led to my acknowledgment that the employees' perception of organizational fairness was the strongest predictor for knowledge-sharing behaviors. I found that supervisory competency was not isolated as a strong predictor of knowledge-sharing behavior. Compared to employees' trust and

supervisor's competency, organizational fairness accounted for a high contribution to influences on willingness to share knowledge (coefficients table as shown in Appendix H). These results confirmed the relationship found in comparable researchers' findings. This doctoral study process improved my scholarly inquiry of knowledge-sharing behavior's correlates in public housing authorities in the State of Texas.

I acknowledge the interests and willingness of the population in participating in this study. When receiving my letter of introduction, the president of the Texas Housing Association and other executive directors welcomed the invitation and recommended all agencies to participate. Within a week, 83 employees and leaders accessed the survey, 70 participants (84.34%) completed all the questions. Participants (74.29%) were identified as supervisors, managers, and executive leaders, indicating that the upper management at public housing authorities in the State of Texas were interested in knowledge-sharing behavior.

Summary and Study Conclusions

I used a quantitative correlational study to understand knowledge-sharing behavior amongst public housing authority based upon employees' perceptions of trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency. The correlations found in this study reflected the concepts of the social capital theory. The data used for analysis reflected responses to 40 questions using a 5-point Likert-type scale survey from 70 fulltime employees and leaders of public housing authorities in the State of Texas. I performed a quantitative analysis using IBM SPSS® 22.0 to address the research questions. Findings supported the alternative hypotheses $H1_a$, $H2_a$, and $H3_a$.

The results indicated a strong correlation between each of the independent variables (employees' trust, organizational fairness, and supervisor's competency) and the dependent variable (knowledge-sharing willingness). However, employees' perception of trust and supervisor's competency was not significantly contributed to the prediction of knowledge-sharing willingness. Amongst these relations, employees' perception of organizational fairness was the most significant predictor of information sharing willingness. The understanding of strong correlations between these variables may contribute to best practices for public housing authority leaders to use in building an effective knowledge-sharing process.

Effective knowledge sharing in an organization plays an essential role in organizational performance and competitive advantage (Kim & Ko, 2014; Lee et al., 2014; Massa & Testa, 2011). When organizational performance is enhanced, products and services improve (Wang et al., 2014). Implementation of quality social services for low-income residents is directly related to public housing authority's performance (Kumar & Bauer, 2010; McDonald, 2011). Therefore, when public housing authority's services and performance are enhanced, taxpayers' burden should decrease, and the benefits to low-income residents could advance.

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Appendix A: Online Survey

Part 1: *Participants' demographic data*

6. How long have you been working in this organization? _____ year(s).
7. Numbers of years you have been reporting to your current supervisor: ___.
8. Your age: ___ Under 30, ___ 30-39, ___ 50 and over.
9. Gender: _____ Male, _____ Female.
10. How many people report to you? __ 0, __ 1-5, __ 6-15, __ 16 or more.

Part 2: *5-point Likert-type scale survey questions*

Employee trust: (Kim & Lee, 2010)

9. My coworkers and I can freely share our beliefs and feelings.
10. If I have a problem, I feel comfortable asking my coworkers for advice.
11. I always welcome input from my colleagues.
12. I have established a productive working relationship with my colleagues.
13. I think my supervisor is honest when he/she communicates with me.
14. I think my supervisor is sincere when he/she assigns my tasks.
15. I know that my supervisor tells his/her employees the truth at all times.
16. I trust my colleagues when they access my documents and files.

Organizational fairness: (Reychav & Sharkie, 2010)

8. I believe that employees in my organization are promoted based on their competence.
9. I believe that my organization evaluates employees fairly.
10. I have the same opportunities for advancement as other employees in my

organization.

11. My organization utilizes the same tool to measure job performance towards every employee.
12. I believe my salary and benefits are adequate based on my job performance.
13. My organization recognizes my skills and talents.
14. My organization gives me the opportunities to learn new things.

Supervisor competency: (Byrne, Pitts, Wilson, & Steiner, 2012)

10. I believe that my supervisor is technically competent to perform his/her job.
11. My supervisor clearly defines and assigns my responsibilities.
12. My supervisor clearly defines and communicates goals and objectives to employees.
13. My supervisor often promotes teamwork and respect amongst employees.
14. I believe that my supervisor knows how to perform his/her job.
15. My supervisor encourages knowledge-sharing behaviors.
16. My supervisor encourages team collaboration.
17. My supervisor has asked me to share my knowledge with others in my department.
18. My supervisor has asked me to share my knowledge with others outside my department.

Knowledge-sharing willingness: (Byrne et al., 2012; Kim & Lee, 2010; Reychav & Sharkie, 2010)

17. I frequently and voluntarily share my knowledge with my colleagues in my

department.

18. I frequently and voluntarily share my knowledge with my colleagues outside my department.
19. My colleagues freely share knowledge with others in my department.
20. My colleagues freely share knowledge with others outside my department.
21. I discuss various work related topics with my colleagues in my department.
22. I discuss various work related topics with my colleagues outside my department.
23. I usually discuss knowledge-sharing activities with my colleagues in my department.
24. I usually discuss knowledge-sharing activities with my colleagues outside my department.
25. I only share my knowledge at the request of others.
26. I freely share my documents and files with colleagues in my department.
27. I freely share my documents and files with colleagues outside my department.
28. I freely share my experiences on a project or occurrence with colleagues in my department.
29. I freely share my experiences on a project or occurrence with colleagues outside my department.
30. I think sharing knowledge with others will not jeopardize my employment.
31. I am not afraid someone else will take credit for my work.
32. I understand that sharing knowledge is crucial to the success of my organization.

Appendix B: Introduction Letter

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Phat Pham and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am conducting a doctoral study in completing my Doctor of Business Administration degree. My research is to examine how employee trust, organizational factors, and supervisor competence correlate with knowledge-sharing behavior.

All fulltime employees and leaders are invited to participate in this study.

The study is conducted through an online survey administered by Survey Monkey. The survey consists of 45 5-point Likert type scale questions and approximately consumes 30 minutes to complete. The participation and experiences from your agency will be essential to the research being conducted.

Upon your approval, I will send you or your designate authority representative a summary of the research purpose and an URL link to the online survey to distribute to your fulltime employees and leaders. If you are agree, after the research is finalized, I will also send you a 1-2 page summary of the research findings, which you may use to learn the correlates of knowledge-sharing behaviors in the business industry you are operating.

Your employees will have to read and agree with the online consent form (On the first page of the survey) before they can access and complete the survey. All information will be confidential and protected.

I look forward talking with you further. Please contact me at phat.pham@waldenu.edu for all corresponding purposes.

Best Regards,

Phat Pham

Appendix C: Protocol of Power Analyses Using G*Power 3.1.2

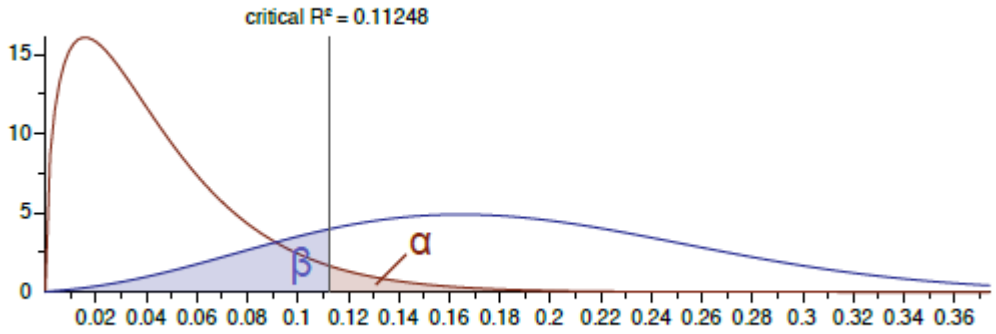
[3] -- Sunday, October 20, 2013 -- 13:07:52

Exact - Linear multiple regression: Random model

Options: Exact distribution

Analysis: A priori: Compute required sample size

Input:	Tail(s)	=	One
	H1 ρ^2	=	.15
	H0 ρ^2	=	0
	α err prob	=	0.05
	Power (1-β err prob)	=	0.8
	Number of predictors	=	3
Output:	Lower critical R^2	=	0.1124795
	Upper critical R^2	=	0.1124795
	Total sample size	=	69
	Actual power	=	0.8039442



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Reychav and Sharkie (2010)

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Byrne et al. (2012)

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Appendix E: Sample of the Reminder E-mail

E-Mail message to the representatives:

Greetings,

Thank you for your assistance to distribute the online survey link to your fulltime employees and leaders, asking them to participate in this study. Could you please forward my attached reminder note to your fulltime employees?

As always, I appreciate your support and assistance.

Respectfully,

Phat Pham

E-Mail message to remind potential participants:

Greetings,

Per your assistance, my online survey has gone well. However, there will be a short time left for the online survey to be closed. I kindly ask for your support complete the survey if you have not done so. Clicking on this link will take you the online survey, https://www.surveymonkey.com. The findings of this study may be beneficial to your business.

Thank you for your time.

Best Regards,

Phat Pham

Appendix F: Invitation Letter

Greetings,

My name is Phat Pham and I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University. I am conducting a doctoral study in completing my Doctor of Business Administration degree.

My research is to examine how employee trust, organizational factors, and supervisor competence correlate with knowledge-sharing behavior.

The study is conducted through an online survey administered by Survey Monkey®. The survey consists of 45 5-point Likert type scale questions and approximately consumes 30 minutes of your time to complete. All information will be confidential and protected and the survey does not ask you to provide any identifying information such as name, employer, or organization. You can access this online survey anywhere you have Internet access by clicking this link: http://www.surveymmonkey.com/s/KSB2014. You will have to read and agree with the online consent form (On the first page of the survey) before you can access and complete the survey.

Your participation is appreciated.

Best Regards,

Phat Pham

Appendix G: Pilot Study Tests for Instrument's Reliability and Regression Assumptions

Cronbach's Alpha Outputs for Instrument Reliability Test

Independent variable Employees' perception of trust

```
 GET
  FILE='/Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Pilot Study data.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet2 WINDOW=FRONT.

GET DATA
  /TYPE=XLS
  /FILE='/Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Pilot Study Data.xls'
  /SHEET=name 'Original Responses'
  /CELLRANGE=full
  /READNAMES=on
  /ASSUMEDSTRWIDTH=32767.
EXECUTE.
DATASET NAME DataSet3 WINDOW=FRONT.
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=ET1 ET2 ET3 ET4 ET5 ET6 ET7 ET8
  /SCALE("Employees' Perception of Trust") ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR ANOVA
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL CORR.
```

Reliability

```
[DataSet3]
```

Scale: Employees' Perception of Trust

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	30	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	30	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.893	.891	8

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
ET1:	2.73	.980	30
ET2:	3.50	1.042	30
ET3:	4.00	.587	30
ET4:	3.70	1.022	30
ET5:	2.80	1.349	30
ET6:	3.03	1.299	30
ET7:	2.83	1.234	30
ET8:	3.23	1.073	30

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	ET1:	ET2:	ET3:	ET4:	ET5:	ET6:	ET7:	ET8:
ET1:	1.000	.540	.240	.502	.584	.522	.561	.553
ET2:	.540	1.000	.563	.405	.368	.293	.469	.725
ET3:	.240	.563	1.000	.402	.218	.181	.285	.547
ET4:	.502	.405	.402	1.000	.530	.397	.451	.506
ET5:	.584	.368	.218	.530	1.000	.869	.890	.534
ET6:	.522	.293	.181	.397	.869	1.000	.885	.563
ET7:	.561	.469	.285	.451	.890	.885	1.000	.577
ET8:	.553	.725	.547	.506	.534	.563	.577	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
ET1:	23.10	35.334	.668	.507	.881
ET2:	22.33	35.678	.587	.694	.888
ET3:	21.83	40.557	.424	.421	.900
ET4:	22.13	35.913	.581	.445	.888
ET5:	23.03	30.309	.804	.852	.866
ET6:	22.80	31.476	.748	.864	.873
ET7:	23.00	31.103	.832	.877	.863
ET8:	22.60	33.697	.741	.713	.873

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
25.83	44.075	6.639	8

Independent variable: Organizational fairness

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=OF9 OF10 OF11  OF12 OF13 OF14  OF15
  /SCALE("Employees' Perception of Organizational Fairness") ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR ANOVA
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL CORR.
```

Reliability

Scale: Employees' Perception of Organizational Fairness

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	30	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	30	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.845	.845	7

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
OF9:	2.27	1.112	30
OF10:	2.23	1.040	30
OF11:	2.23	1.040	30
OF12;	2.37	1.066	30
OF13:	2.37	.928	30
OF14:	2.77	1.251	30
OF15:	2.97	1.159	30

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	OF9:	OF10:	OF11:	OF12;	OF13:	OF14:	OF15:
OF9:	1.000	.720	.541	.584	.370	.443	.355
OF10:	.720	1.000	.299	.729	.516	.441	.350
OF11:	.541	.299	1.000	.293	-.020	.308	.464
OF12;	.584	.729	.293	1.000	.522	.661	.317
OF13:	.370	.516	-.020	.522	1.000	.552	.268
OF14:	.443	.441	.308	.661	.552	1.000	.470
OF15:	.355	.350	.464	.317	.268	.470	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
OF9:	14.93	21.651	.697	.645	.808
OF10:	14.97	22.102	.707	.707	.808
OF11:	14.97	24.585	.430	.477	.847
OF12;	14.83	21.730	.727	.682	.804
OF13:	14.83	24.626	.501	.472	.837
OF14:	14.43	20.944	.663	.593	.814
OF15:	14.23	23.151	.502	.369	.839

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
17.20	30.097	5.486	7

Independent variable: Supervisor's competency

```
RELIABILITY
 /VARIABLES=SC16 SC17 SC18 SC19  SC20 SC21 SC22  SC23 SC24
 /SCALE("Employees' Perception of Supervisor Competency") ALL
 /MODEL=ALPHA
 /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR ANOVA
 /SUMMARY=TOTAL CORR.
```

Reliability

Scale: Employees' Perception of Supervisor Competency

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	30	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	30	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.917	.919	9

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
SC16:	3.27	1.015	30
SC17:	2.93	1.112	30
SC18:	2.97	1.066	30
SC19:	3.10	1.029	30
SC20:	3.47	1.042	30
SC21:	2.87	1.456	30
SC22:	3.17	1.053	30
SC23:	3.13	1.137	30
SC24:	2.67	1.155	30

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	SC16:	SC17:	SC18:	SC19:	SC20:	SC21:	SC22:	SC23:	SC24:
SC16:	1.000	.719	.646	.634	.694	.748	.538	.387	.579
SC17:	.719	1.000	.841	.669	.623	.782	.628	.444	.492
SC18:	.646	.841	1.000	.663	.542	.730	.711	.516	.439
SC19:	.634	.669	.663	1.000	.502	.608	.525	.313	.435
SC20:	.694	.623	.542	.502	1.000	.588	.367	.324	.420
SC21:	.748	.782	.730	.608	.588	1.000	.487	.407	.526
SC22:	.538	.628	.711	.525	.367	.487	1.000	.442	.388
SC23:	.387	.444	.516	.313	.324	.407	.442	1.000	.718
SC24:	.579	.492	.439	.435	.420	.526	.388	.718	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
SC16:	24.30	49.252	.802	.727	.902
SC17:	24.63	47.482	.847	.794	.898
SC18:	24.60	48.317	.826	.810	.900
SC19:	24.47	50.533	.691	.539	.909
SC20:	24.10	51.059	.642	.524	.912
SC21:	24.70	44.355	.785	.712	.904
SC22:	24.40	50.938	.642	.551	.912
SC23:	24.43	51.357	.556	.621	.918
SC24:	24.90	50.024	.633	.661	.913

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
27.57	61.702	7.855	9

Dependent variable: Knowledge sharing

```
RELIABILITY
  /VARIABLES=KS25 KS26 KS27 KS28 KS29 KS30 KS31 KS32 KS33 KS34 KS35 KS36 KS37
KS38 KS39 KS40
  /SCALE('Willingness to Share Knowledge') ALL
  /MODEL=ALPHA
  /STATISTICS=DESCRIPTIVE SCALE CORR ANOVA
  /SUMMARY=TOTAL CORR.
```

Reliability

Scale: Willingness to Share Knowledge

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	30	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	30	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.870	.875	16

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
KS25:	3.67	.959	30
KS26:	3.17	1.177	30
KS27:	3.80	.925	30
KS28:	3.27	1.112	30
KS29:	3.73	.944	30
KS30:	2.77	1.278	30
KS31:	3.27	1.202	30
KS32:	2.60	1.163	30
KS33:	3.00	1.145	30
KS34:	3.47	1.106	30
KS35:	2.47	1.074	30
KS36:	3.30	1.022	30
KS37:	2.67	.994	30
KS38:	2.70	1.149	30
KS39:	3.33	1.241	30
KS40:	3.73	1.081	30

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	KS25:	KS26:	KS27:	KS28:	KS29:	KS30:	KS31:	KS32:
KS25:	1.000	.662	.583	.539	.508	.610	.379	.557
KS26:	.662	1.000	.697	.808	.600	.554	.577	.529
KS27:	.583	.697	1.000	.657	.687	.543	.577	.468
KS28:	.539	.808	.657	1.000	.628	.579	.693	.619
KS29:	.508	.600	.687	.628	1.000	.489	.703	.528
KS30:	.610	.554	.543	.579	.489	1.000	.424	.724
KS31:	.379	.577	.577	.693	.703	.424	1.000	.622
KS32:	.557	.529	.468	.619	.528	.724	.622	1.000
KS33:	.503	.179	.326	.163	.191	.165	.276	.181
KS34:	.217	.521	.398	.568	.486	.446	.630	.472
KS35:	.558	.373	.375	.470	.161	.735	.328	.596
KS36:	.317	.387	.430	.443	.514	.425	.522	.308
KS37:	.313	.255	.300	.301	.379	.642	.279	.626
KS38:	-.469	-.497	-.286	-.583	-.330	-.355	-.440	-.299
KS39:	.531	.456	.270	.358	.373	.138	.308	.311
KS40:	.044	.226	.359	.291	.164	.428	.296	.406

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	KS33:	KS34:	KS35:	KS36:	KS37:	KS38:	KS39:	KS40:
KS25:	.503	.217	.558	.317	.313	-.469	.531	.044
KS26:	.179	.521	.373	.387	.255	-.497	.456	.226
KS27:	.326	.398	.375	.430	.300	-.286	.270	.359
KS28:	.163	.568	.470	.443	.301	-.583	.358	.291
KS29:	.191	.486	.161	.514	.379	-.330	.373	.164
KS30:	.165	.446	.735	.425	.642	-.355	.138	.428
KS31:	.276	.630	.328	.522	.279	-.440	.308	.296
KS32:	.181	.472	.596	.308	.626	-.299	.311	.406
KS33:	1.000	.054	.252	.118	-.061	-.367	.583	-.112
KS34:	.054	1.000	.333	.604	.178	-.591	.209	.541
KS35:	.252	.333	1.000	.276	.538	-.413	.164	.408
KS36:	.118	.604	.276	1.000	.339	-.361	-.054	.356
KS37:	-.061	.178	.538	.339	1.000	-.030	-.047	.396
KS38:	-.367	-.591	-.413	-.361	-.030	1.000	-.604	-.150
KS39:	.583	.209	.164	-.054	-.047	-.604	1.000	-.060
KS40:	-.112	.541	.408	.356	.396	-.150	-.060	1.000

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
KS25:	47.27	92.409	.676	.819	.856
KS26:	47.77	88.323	.727	.853	.852
KS27:	47.13	91.913	.734	.778	.854
KS28:	47.67	88.713	.756	.829	.851
KS29:	47.20	92.234	.698	.850	.856
KS30:	48.17	86.351	.750	.805	.850
KS31:	47.67	88.368	.707	.775	.853
KS32:	48.33	87.609	.773	.821	.850
KS33:	47.93	98.340	.270	.674	.874
KS34:	47.47	92.326	.576	.806	.860
KS35:	48.47	92.464	.589	.771	.859
KS36:	47.63	94.516	.515	.668	.863
KS37:	48.27	95.168	.497	.696	.863
KS38:	48.23	119.220	-.588	.791	.908
KS39:	47.60	96.386	.323	.820	.872
KS40:	47.20	96.166	.399	.615	.868

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
50.93	105.789	10.285	16

Multiple Regression Analysis Outputs for Regression Assumptions Test

Levene's test

```
GET DATA
  /TYPE=XLS
  /FILE='/Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Pilot Study Data.xls'
  /SHEET=name 'Original with data transform'
  /CELLRANGE=full
  /READNAMES=on
  /ASSUMEDSTRWIDTH=32767.
EXECUTE.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
ONEWAY KnowledgeSharing BY OrganizationalFairness
  /STATISTICS HOMOGENEITY
  /MISSING ANALYSIS
  /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI GH ALPHA(0.05).
```

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Knowledge Sharing

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.501	6	13	.253

```
ONEWAY KnowledgeSharing BY EmployeesTrust
 /STATISTICS HOMOGENEITY
 /MISSING ANALYSIS
 /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI GH ALPHA(0.05).
```

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Knowledge Sharing

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.856	9	12	.157

```
ONEWAY KnowledgeSharing BY SupervisorsCompetency
 /STATISTICS HOMOGENEITY
 /MISSING ANALYSIS
 /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI GH ALPHA(0.05).
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Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Knowledge Sharing

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.906	8	11	.544

Regression

```
 GET
  FILE='/Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Pilot Study data.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet2 WINDOW=FRONT.
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA COLLIN TOL ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT KnowledgeSharing
  /METHOD=ENTER EmployeesTrust OrganizationalFairnessSupervisorsCompetency
  /PARTIALPLOT ALL
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL COOK.
```

Regression

[DataSet2] /Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Pilot Study data.sav

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Knowledge Sharing	50.93	10.285	30
Employees Trust	25.77	6.902	30
Organizational Fairness	17.57	5.482	30
Supervisors Competency	27.50	7.754	30

Correlations

		Knowledge Sharing	Employees Trust	Organizational Fairness	Supervisors Competency
Pearson Correlation	Knowledge Sharing	1.000	.619	.507	.746
	Employees Trust	.619	1.000	.760	.733
	Organizational Fairness	.507	.760	1.000	.719
	Supervisors Competency	.746	.733	.719	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Knowledge Sharing	.	.000	.002	.000
	Employees Trust	.000	.	.000	.000
	Organizational Fairness	.002	.000	.	.000
	Supervisors Competency	.000	.000	.000	.
N	Knowledge Sharing	30	30	30	30
	Employees Trust	30	30	30	30
	Organizational Fairness	30	30	30	30
	Supervisors Competency	30	30	30	30

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.761[a]	.579	.531	7.044

a. Predictors: (Constant), Supervisors Competency, Organizational Fairness, Employees Trust

b. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1777.762	3	592.587	11.943	.000[b]
	Residual	1290.105	26	49.619		
	Total	3067.867	29			

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing

b. Predictors: (Constant), Supervisors Competency, Organizational Fairness, Employees Trust

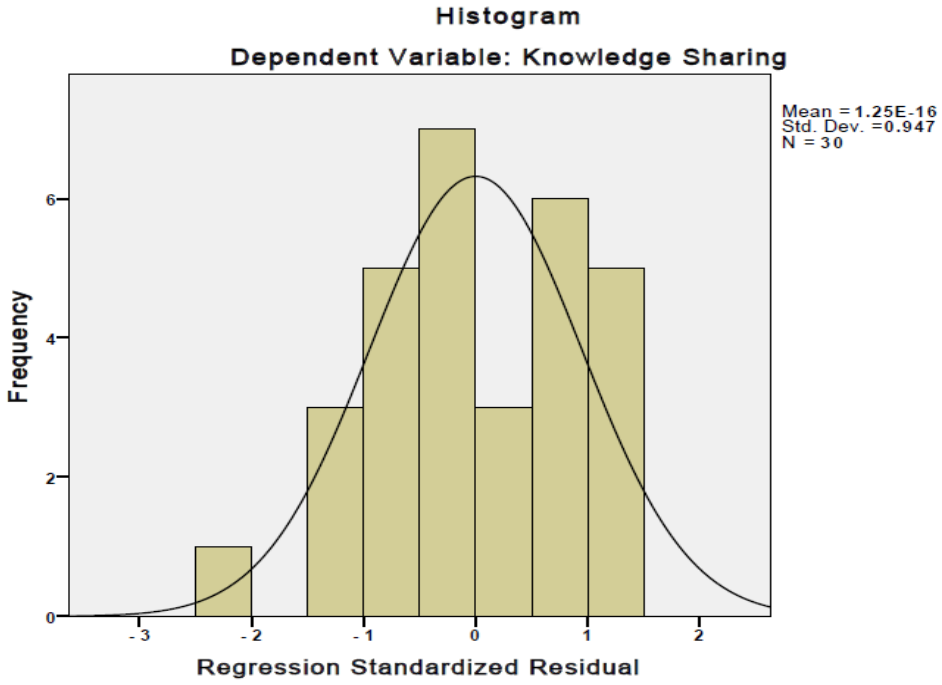
Coefficients[a]

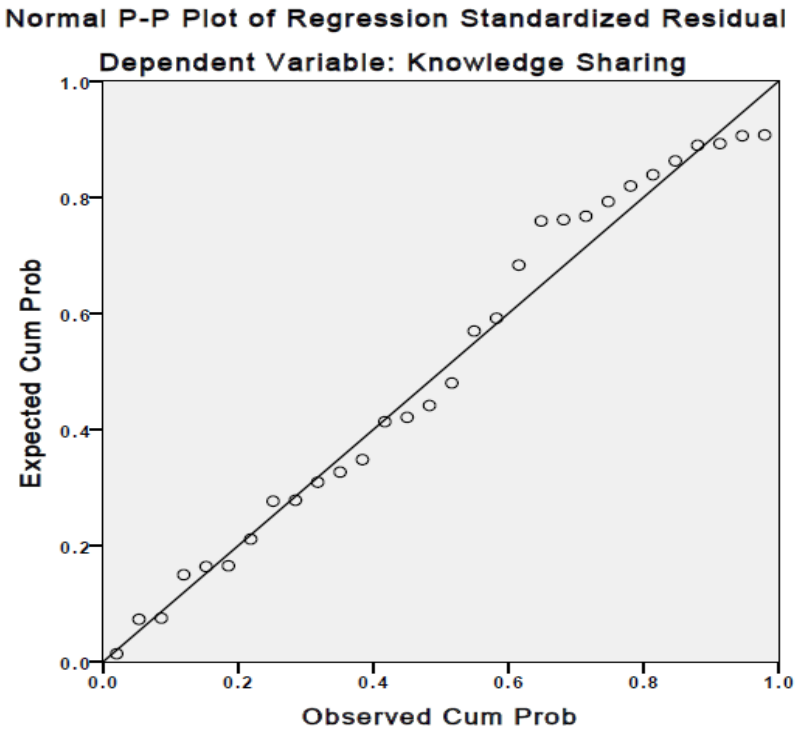
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	22.067	5.288		4.173	.000
	Employees Trust	.368	.320	.247	1.148	.262
	Organizational Fairness	-.340	.395	-.181	-.861	.397
	Supervisors Competency	.922	.267	.695	3.460	.002

Model		95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations		
		Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part
1	(Constant)	11.197	32.936			
	Employees Trust	-.291	1.026	.619	.220	.146
	Organizational Fairness	-1.151	.472	.507	-.166	-.109
	Supervisors Competency	.374	1.470	.746	.562	.440

Model		Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)		
	Employees Trust	.350	2.855
	Organizational Fairness	.365	2.737
	Supervisors Competency	.401	2.497

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing


Histogram
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Mean = 1.25E-16
Std. Dev. =0.947
N = 30
Frequency
Regression Standardized Residual


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	36.15	65.03	50.93	7.830	30
Std. Predicted Value	-1.888	1.800	.000	1.000	30
Standard Error of Predicted Value	1.843	3.748	2.521	.517	30
Adjusted Predicted Value	37.17	65.26	50.88	7.779	30
Residual	-15.379	9.341	.000	6.670	30
Std. Residual	-2.183	1.326	.000	.947	30
Stud. Residual	-2.329	1.424	.004	1.010	30
Deleted Residual	-17.500	10.773	.054	7.588	30
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.567	1.454	-.003	1.037	30
Mahal. Distance	1.018	7.245	2.900	1.693	30
Cook's Distance	.000	.187	.034	.038	30
Centered Leverage Value	.035	.250	.100	.058	30

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing

Appendix H: Final Study Analysis Outputs

Regression

```
 GET
  FILE='/Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Main Study Data.sav'.
DATASET NAME DataSet1 WINDOW=FRONT.
REGRESSION
  /DESCRIPTIVES MEAN STDDEV CORR SIG N
  /MISSING LISTWISE
  /STATISTICS COEFF OUTS CI(95) R ANOVA COLLIN TOL ZPP
  /CRITERIA=PIN(.05) POUT(.10)
  /NOORIGIN
  /DEPENDENT KnowledgeSharing
  /METHOD=ENTER EmployeesTrust OrganizationalFairnessSupervisorCompetency
  /PARTIALPLOT ALL
  /SCATTERPLOT=(*ZRESID ,*ZPRED)
  /RESIDUALS HISTOGRAM(ZRESID) NORMPROB(ZRESID)
  /CASEWISE PLOT(ZRESID) OUTLIERS(3)
  /SAVE MAHAL COOK.
```

Regression

```
[DataSet1] /Users/pham/Documents/WaldenU/Dissertations/Main Study Data.sav
```

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Knowledge Sharing	59.89	9.334	70
Employees Trust	33.21	5.821	70
Organizational Fairness	26.06	5.592	70
Supervisor Competency	35.06	7.183	70

Correlations

		Knowledge Sharing	Employees Trust	Organizational Fairness	Supervisor Competency
Pearson Correlation	Knowledge Sharing	1.000	.529	.597	.564
	Employees Trust	.529	1.000	.777	.707
	Organizational Fairness	.597	.777	1.000	.714
	Supervisor Competency	.564	.707	.714	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Knowledge Sharing	.	.000	.000	.000
	Employees Trust	.000	.	.000	.000
	Organizational Fairness	.000	.000	.	.000
	Supervisor Competency	.000	.000	.000	.
N	Knowledge Sharing	70	70	70	70
	Employees Trust	70	70	70	70
	Organizational Fairness	70	70	70	70
	Supervisor Competency	70	70	70	70

Model Summary[b]

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.629[a]	.396	.369	7.416

a. Predictors: (Constant), Supervisor Competency, Employees Trust, Organizational Fairness

b. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2381.613	3	793.871	14.436	.000[b]
	Residual	3629.473	66	54.992		
	Total	6011.086	69			

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing

b. Predictors: (Constant), Supervisor Competency, Employees Trust, Organizational Fairness

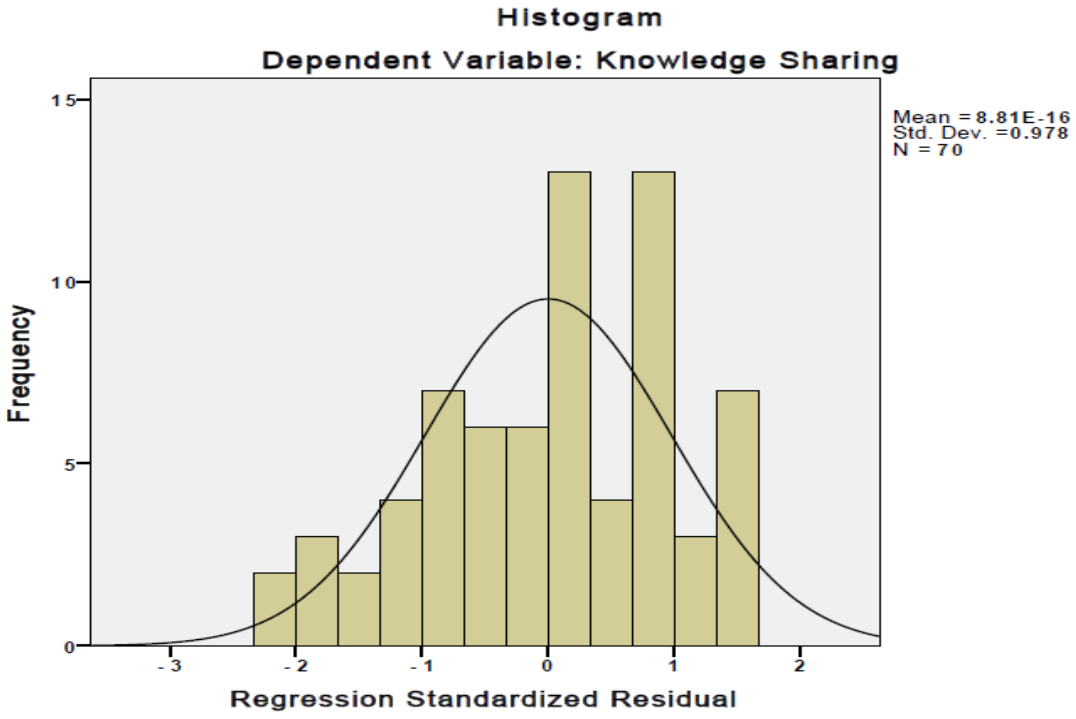
Coefficients[a]

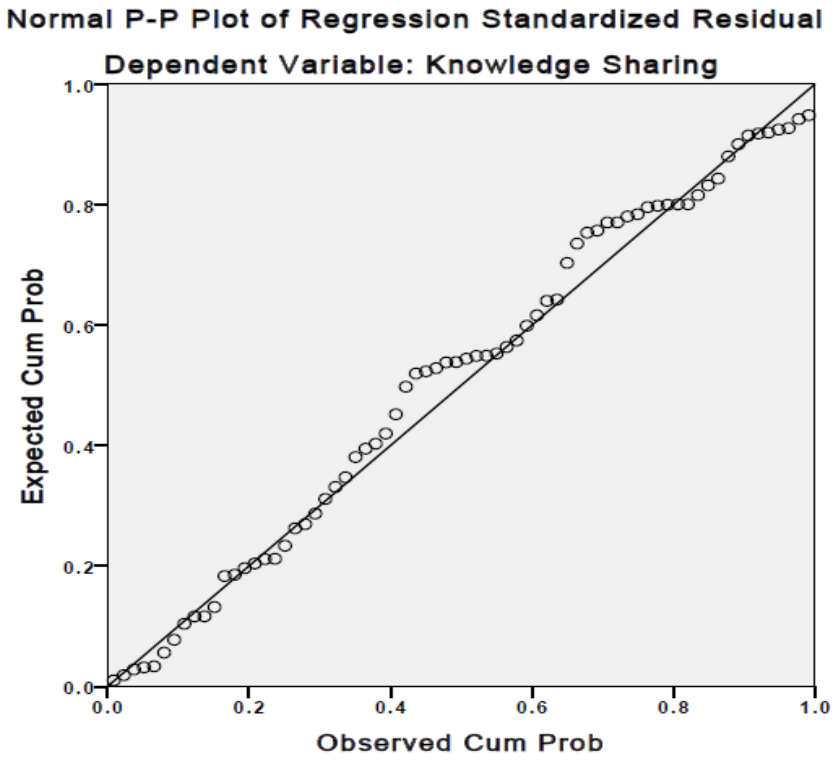
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	28.890	5.281		5.471	.000	18.347	39.433					
	Employees Trust	.104	.259	.065	.403	.689	-.413	.622	.529	.049	.039	.350	2.860
	Organizational Fairness	.602	.273	.360	2.204	.031	.057	1.146	.597	.262	.211	.342	2.922
	Supervisor Competency	.338	.189	.260	1.787	.079	-.040	.716	.564	.215	.171	.431	2.318

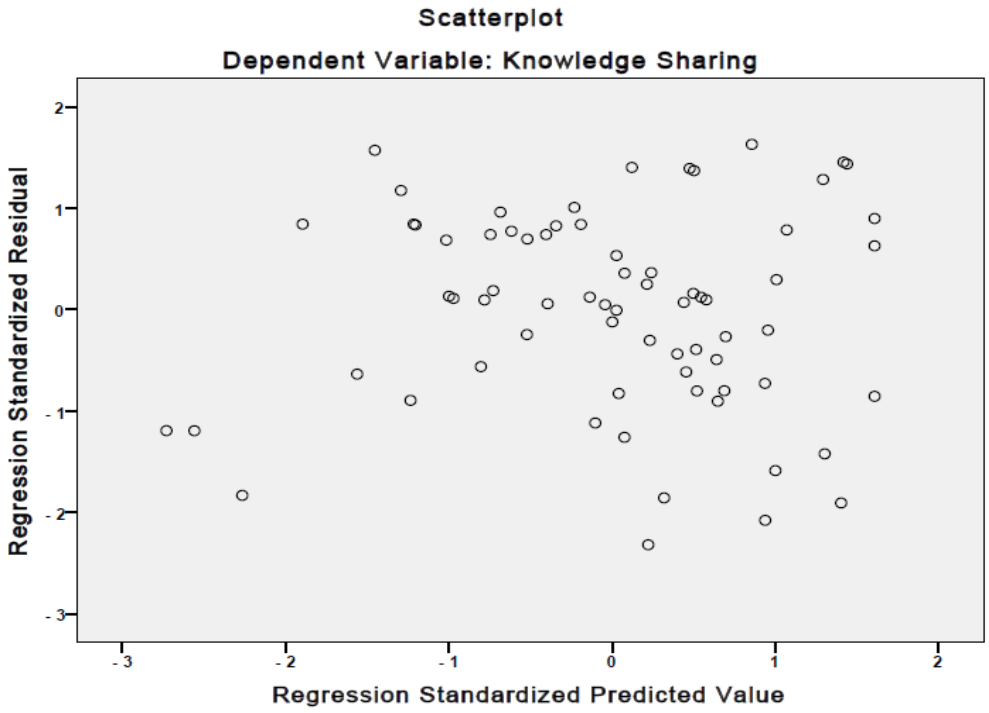
Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	43.84	69.34	59.89	5.875	70
Std. Predicted Value	-2.730	1.608	.000	1.000	70
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.907	3.640	1.665	.613	70
Adjusted Predicted Value	45.94	69.70	59.96	5.760	70
Residual	-17.187	12.084	.000	7.253	70
Std. Residual	-2.318	1.630	.000	.978	70
Stud. Residual	-2.381	1.677	-.004	1.009	70
Deleted Residual	-18.141	12.799	-.071	7.721	70
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.472	1.701	-.008	1.020	70
Mahal. Distance	.046	15.637	2.957	3.306	70
Cook's Distance	.000	.106	.016	.024	70
Centered Leverage Value	.001	.227	.043	.048	70

a. Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing


Histogram
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Mean = 8.81E-16
Std. Dev. = 0.978
N = 70
Frequency
Regression Standardized Residual


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value
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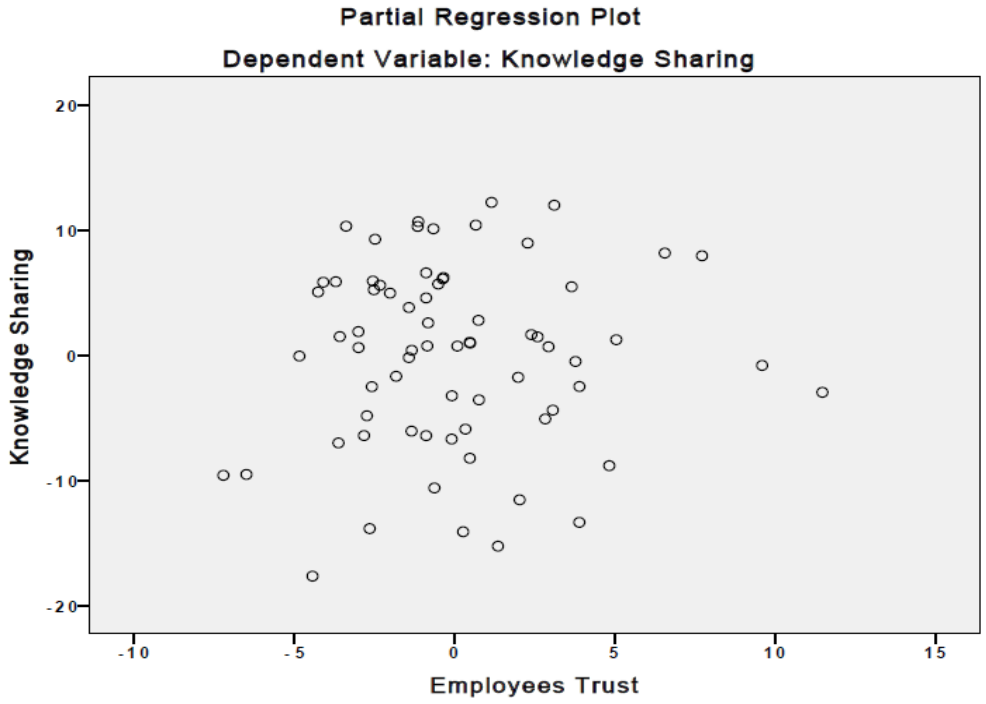
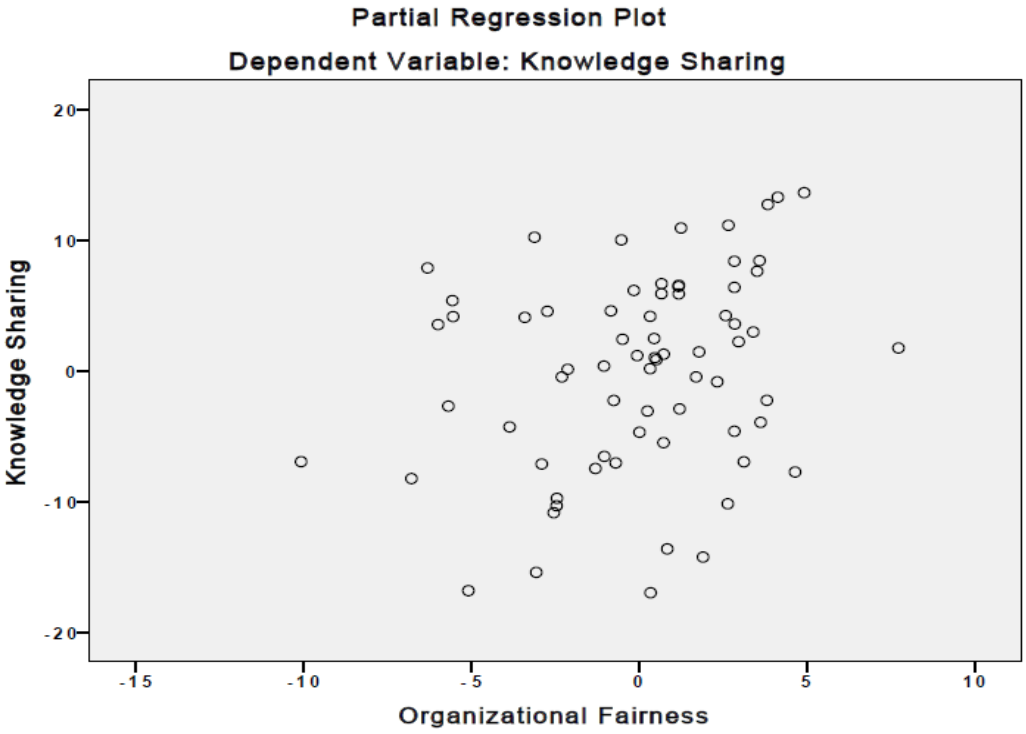
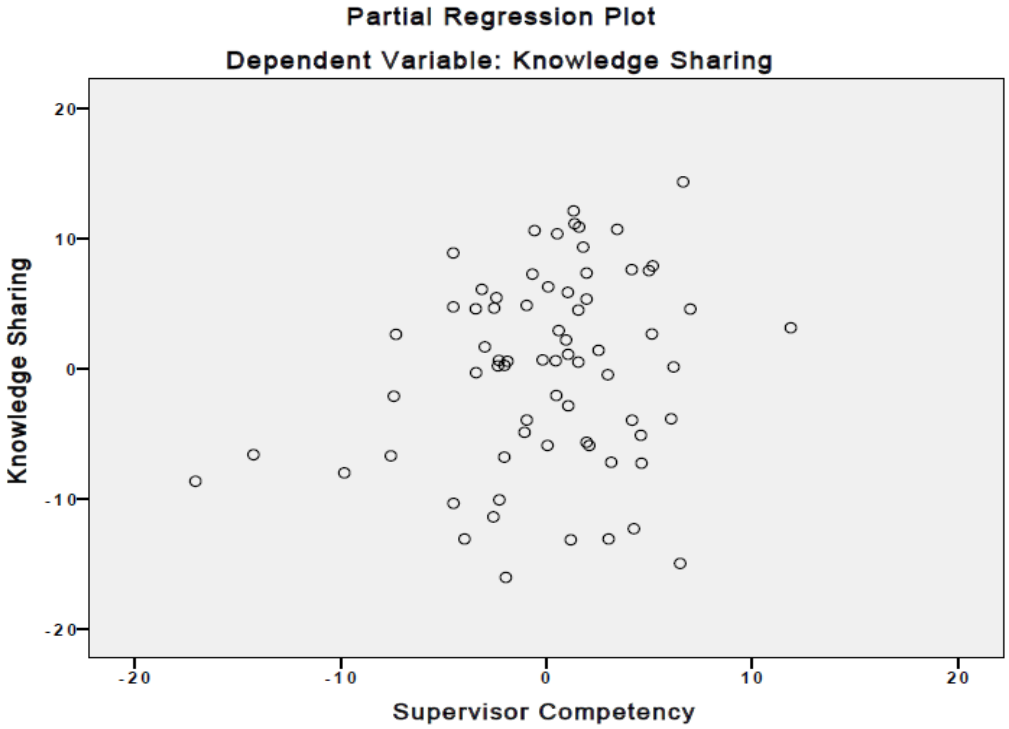
1
0
-1
-2
-3
-3
-2
-1
0
1
2


Partial Regression Plot
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Knowledge Sharing
Employees Trust
20
10
0
-10
-20
-10
-5
0
5
10
15


Partial Regression Plot
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Knowledge Sharing
20
10
0
-10
-20
-15
-10
-5
0
5
10
Organizational Fairness


Partial Regression Plot
Dependent Variable: Knowledge Sharing
Knowledge Sharing
20
10
0
-10
-20
-20
-10
0
10
20
Supervisor Competency

Test of homogeneity of variances

```
ONEWAY KnowledgeSharing BY EmployeesTrust
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES HOMOGENEITY
  /MISSING ANALYSIS
  /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI ALPHA(0.05).
```

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Knowledge Sharing

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.387[a]	12	49	.204

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for Knowledge Sharing.

```
ONEWAY KnowledgeSharing BY OrganizationalFairness
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES HOMOGENEITY
  /MISSING ANALYSIS
  /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI ALPHA(0.05).
```

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Knowledge Sharing

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.862[a]	13	48	.060

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for Knowledge Sharing.

```
ONEWAY KnowledgeSharing BY SupervisorCompetency
  /STATISTICS DESCRIPTIVES HOMOGENEITY
  /MISSING ANALYSIS
  /POSTHOC=BONFERRONI ALPHA(0.05).
```

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Knowledge Sharing

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.612[a]	17	44	.102

a. Groups with only one case are ignored in computing the test of homogeneity of variance for Knowledge Sharing.