



**AUTOCHTHONOUS MANAGEMENT
KNOWLEDGE/KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT IN AFRICA**

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3 **Running Head: Autochthonous Management Knowledge**
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7 **AUTOCHTHONOUS MANAGEMENT KNOWLEDGE/KNOWLEDGE**
8 **MANAGEMENT IN AFRICA**
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13 **ABSTRACT**
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15 **Purpose:** There is a growing desire for more scientific and technical knowledge regarding Africa.
16 This is because Africa has the potential and opportunity to generate impactful research. However,
17 this potential is not optimized because of several constraints, including the lack of systematic
18 reviews and models of knowledge management, and paradoxical trends in Africa.
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24 **Methodology:** We review studies on knowledge management and paradoxes on Africa.
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27 **Findings:** We propose a model and identify twelve paradoxes broadly categorized as industrial,
28 political, and social.
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31 **Practical implications:** The paradoxical tensions characteristic of Africa may be considered
32 integral to business and policy rather than local expressions to be solved through international
33 “best practice”.
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38 **Value:** The model we propose enables theoretical and empirical studies of knowledge management
39 sensitive to the paradoxical tensions associated with autochthonous management knowledge
40 (AMK) and autochthonous knowledge management (AKM).
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47 **Keywords:** autochthonous knowledge management, autochthonous management knowledge,
48 Africa, paradox.
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INTRODUCTION

Early in this century a World Bank (2000) publication posed the question: can Africa claim the 21st Century? One way this question can be answered is for researchers to understand knowledge management and paradoxes in Africa. Knowledge management is a transformative mechanism that can contribute greatly to the productivity and prosperity of a nation (Bloom, Genakos, Sadun, and Van Reenen, 2012) because it is not only associated with wealth, innovation, and corporate performance (Romer, 1993; Wenger and Snyder, 2000) but it also accounts for differences in national development (Romer, 1993) as reflected in the United Nations economic commission for Africa's (UNECA) advocacy for "knowledge sharing on economic and social development of Africa" (<http://knowledge4africa.uneca.org/>).

Yet, there is a dearth of skill in knowledge management in Africa. A study by Gro-Ventures company estimated that compared to North America, with 2640 researchers per million persons or Europe, with 1990 per million, or even Latin America and Asia with 550 and 340 respectively, Africa has only 70 researchers per million persons.¹ One reason for this is the adoption of or dependence on Eurocentric models, strategies, knowledge, and epistemologies. Another is the lack of systematic reviews of knowledge production.

Consequently, we take stock of knowledge production in Africa by reviewing studies on knowledge management and associated paradoxes in Africa. We ask: *how can knowledge management capture unique facets of the African context without ignoring knowledge originating in Western contexts? How can local and global paradoxes contribute to the development of autochthonous African*

¹ <https://gro-intelligence.com/insights/infographics/research-capacity>

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3 *knowledge?* In so doing we contribute to the literature in three major ways. First, the clarity from
4 the review helps scholars in the opposite camps – allochthons and autochthons – interested in the
5 African context. Scholars can generate knowledge that is consistent with the expectations of the
6 global community (i.e., the need to belong or be the same as the West) and with the Western
7 dominant paradigm (Bloom et al., 2012), which has been perceived as possessing superior modern
8 scientific methods (Zoogah, Nkomo, and Nyathi, 2012). Such scholars have been motivated by the
9 need to produce knowledge that fits with the unique expectations of local communities. Our review
10 provides a clear path for the increasing number of academics (George et al., 2016; Walsh, 2011,
11 2015; Yenkey, 2015; Zoogah, Zoogah, and Woldu, 2015) and practitioners (Chironga, Leke, Lund,
12 and van Wamelen 2011) interested in Africa.
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28 A second contribution focuses on the application of a paradox lens to the discussion of knowledge
29 management paradoxes in Africa. Such a lens seems necessary, given the ontological deprivation
30 effects on Africans (Zoogah, 2019) created by dependence on Western epistemology. The
31 foreignness of those epistemologies suggests that the learning curve for African scholars is steeper,
32 resulting in low scientific output. This is congruent with the ontological demands of Africa
33 (Zoogah, 2019), and also mitigates the liability of foreignness (Zoogah, Zoogah, and Dalaba-
34 Roohi, 2015). This “both/and” (Smith, Lewis, and Tushman, 2016) paradoxical reconciliatory
35 approach fits the context of an increasingly interconnected and interactive global market in which
36 African countries and firms play increasingly essential roles (Angwin, Mellahi, Gomes, and Peter,
37 2016; Ibeh, Wilson, and Chizema, 2012). Earlier studies used a paradox lens (Smith and Lewis,
38 2011) to compare Western with Eastern Asian epistemes (e.g., Li, 2016). However, in a recent
39 special issue some researchers advocated the use of paradox theory to compare Western and
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3 African management knowledge epistemes (see Gomes, Cunha, Zoogah, Wood, and Li, 2020).
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5 We respond to calls from scholars who suggest that a multi-perspective and integrative approach
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7 is essential to advance management knowledge (Suddaby, Hardy, and Huy, 2011; Zoogah and
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9 Nkomo, 2012).
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15 Next, we review the literature on knowledge management, focusing on paradoxes in Africa. After
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17 identifying two types of knowledge management in Africa and discussing their application, we
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19 propose a model outlining the dilemmatic features critical for knowledge management paradoxes
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21 – duality and tensions. We then discuss the major consequences of the tensions – identification –
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23 before the approaches to be adopted in the two types of knowledge management, autochthonous
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25 management knowledge (AMK) and autochthonous knowledge management (AKM). Although
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27 studies have proposed some types of knowledge management (see Davenport and Völpel, 2001),
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29 the types in this paper are more relevant to Africa because of their focus on autochthony.
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31 Consistent with Davenport and Völpel (2001), we conclude with outcomes of knowledge
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33 management for organizations and society.
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40 **LITERATURE REVIEW**

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42 Research suggests that Western-based management theories may be limited in capturing non-
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44 Western concepts and philosophies (Holtbrugge, 2013) including their contradictions and
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46 paradoxes. However, not much is known about the expression of organizational paradoxes
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48 regarding the African context (Gomes, Cunha, Zoogah, Wood and Li, 2020). Paradoxes do not
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50 emerge in social vacuum (Smith et al., 2016). Given that some contexts may elicit specific forms
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52 of contradiction, leading to different paradoxes, and other contexts may tolerate contradictions more
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3 than others (Peng and Nisbett, 1999), it seems vital to explore the specificities of knowledge,
4 management, and knowledge management in Africa.
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10 African traditions diverge from those in the West. The different institutions, cultures, habits, and
11 traditions of Africa can still shed light on our understanding of paradoxes because they are
12 embedded with tensions. It is therefore unfortunate that only a handful of papers have examined
13 paradoxes in Africa (e.g. Cunha, Fortes, Gomes, Rego, and Rodrigues, 2016).
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21 Organizational tensions with paradoxical potential in Africa may involve the need to develop short-
22 term flexibility while preparing organizations for the long run (Sarala, Cooper, Junni, and Tarba,
23 2014), combine foreign management practice with local culture (Gomes, Sahadev, Glaister, and
24 Demirbag, 2014; Perrin, Rolland, and Stanley, 2007), offer standardized products or adapt them to
25 local markets (Ang and Massingham, 2007), share knowledge by traditional or technological means
26 (Kruger and Johnson, 2010), and deal with the tensions and contradictions of a colonial legacy in a
27 post-colonial (and anti-colonial) era (Nkomo, 2011).
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40 Paradox theory asserts that contradictions pervade social systems, and these contradictions are
41 constitutive and permanent rather than anomalies to be willed away (Putnam, Fairhurst, and
42 Banghart, 2016). Through a paradox lens, the combination of different, even antagonistic
43 frameworks, does not necessarily appear as a factor of weakness. On the contrary, finding a space
44 for creativity amid tension is a source of conceptual novelty. Cameron and Quinn (1988) referred
45 to a paradox as a concept embracing contradiction and the clashing of ideas, “contradictory,
46 mutually exclusive elements that are present and operate equally at the same time” (p. 2). Recently,
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3 Smith and Lewis (2011, p.382) define paradox as “contradictory yet interrelated elements that exist
4 simultaneously and persist over time”.
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10 The vibrant literature on paradoxes has mostly treated the theme following the traditions of East
11 and West. From an Eastern perspective paradox has been approached with the lens of ancient
12 Chinese philosophies such as the Yin-Yang (Li, 2016), which depicts the importance of balance
13 and sees paradox as synergy and trade-off. From a western perspective paradox has a crucial
14 philosophical lineage dating back to the ancient Greeks, which challenges the confidence in
15 common sense assumptions and introduces the notion of ontological plurality, sometimes involving
16 absurdities.
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28 This both/and approach (Smith et al., 2016) is particularly relevant for the case of the articulation
29 of Western/African management knowledge as there seem to be essential contributions for
30 development coming from *both* tested global insights and conceptualizations *and* from local,
31 situated contexts. Combining multiple and opposing perspectives and integrative approaches is
32 therefore, from a paradox lens, an essential condition for the development of management
33 knowledge that is *both* conceptually solid and empirically tested *and* valid for specific local
34 contexts. This formulation echoes the rigor vs. relevance debate, and is important in fast-changing
35 and increasingly global contexts in which different realities and people must interact, a view
36 epitomized in the popular slogan advocated in the international business literature stating that firms
37 need to think globally but act locally (Kefalas, 1998; Vendrell-Herrero et al., 2018). It requires the
38 ability to overcome simplistic and polarized views, and to recognize and combine complex,
39 diverse, and ambiguous realities into more integrative, yet pluralistic, understandings.
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5 Knowledge management, the process of continually managing knowledge of all kinds to meet
6 existing and emerging needs, to identify and exploit existing and acquired knowledge sets, and to
7 develop new opportunities within entities (Khiste, Maske and Deshmukh, 2018), has been examined
8 across disciplines, contexts, and levels. In a comprehensive review of the literature on management
9 of knowledge in Africa, Zoogah and Nkomo (2013, pp. 9) assert that “there is a dearth of meaningful
10 management knowledge in Africa.” Various other scholars argue that the existing theoretical
11 frameworks and managerial practices have been imported (mostly from the West) and without
12 taking sufficient account of the local context (Amankwah-Amoah, Boso, and Debrah, 2017;
13 Angwin et al., 2016). They argue for the development of management theories more suitable to the
14 context of Africa (Gomes, Vendrell-Herrero, Mellahi, Angwin, and Sousa, 2018; Zoogah, 2008).
15 For instance, while managerial knowledge and practices in African organizations have been mostly
16 shaped by individualistic, instrumentalist, and competitive western theories and concepts,
17 organizations face the paradox of having to operate in socio-cultural settings influenced by
18 relational humanistic attributes such as *shemsw* (Zoogah, in press) and *ubuntu*, which characterize
19 the collectivistic, paternalistic, and interdependent reciprocal obligations of Africa (Kamoche,
20 Chizema, Mellahi, and Newenham-Kahindi, 2012; Nansubuga and Munene, 2020).
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45 We conducted a search of the literature for studies on knowledge management in Africa. First, we
46 searched 28 top-tier journals in the management literature that we believe are likely to be interested
47 in knowledge management. Using the term “*knowledge management in Africa*” we searched each
48 journal’s site for studies related to knowledge management and Africa, carefully avoiding studies
49 that mention Africa or knowledge management but do not focus on knowledge management or the
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3 African context. We found only 15 studies, 10 in the *Journal of Knowledge Management* followed
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5 by 3 in the *Africa Journal of Management*, 1 in *Journal of Management*, and 1 in *Thunderbird*
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7 *International Business Review* .
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12 The paucity of studies in these major journals prompted us to conduct a second search in others
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14 using Google scholar. Most of the journals publishing studies on “knowledge management in
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16 Africa” are ranked low. The articles also range from the year 2006 (Kamoche and Harvey, 2006)
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18 in *Thunderbird International Business Review* to 2020 (Gomes et al., 2020; Lannon and Walsh,
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20 2020; Nansubuga and Munene, 2020; Tigharsi, Bouguerra, Golgeci, and Rofcanin, 2020; Vendrell-
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22 Herrero, Darko, and Ghauri, 2020; Wood and Bischoff, 2020) in *Journal of Knowledge*
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24 *Management*. Most studies focus on management (21); others on economics (2), Medicine (2),
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26 Agriculture (2), information technology (3), non-governmental organizations (3), and Tourism (3).
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28 Still others focus on construction (1), libraries (1), education (1), and law (1). Concerning location,
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30 most (23) were generic (i.e., all African countries). The rest focused on Kenya (9), South Africa
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32 (2), Botswana (1), Nigeria (1), and Ghana (1). This review reveals a great scarcity of knowledge
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34 management studies on Africa.
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42 **FINDINGS**

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44 Our literature review (see Table 1) identified several paradoxes in Africa. These are important to
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46 situate possible areas for creating knowledge about what is unique to African settings without
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48 ignoring other possible forms of knowledge. These paradoxes may be more applicable to Africa
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50 than other settings. Therefore, instead of considering that the major categories habitually identified
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52 cover the main types, we uncover possible local expressions of paradox. We identified 12
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3 paradoxes categorized as industrial, political, social, and scholarship. Industrial paradoxes include
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5 the *ingenuity paradox* – Africa as the source or origin of ingenuity although being the least
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7 innovative in the present world (Hart, 2000, Loftu, 2005), *organization paradox* – management is
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9 increasingly demanded to transform African countries but the conditions for effective and
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11 professional management are being eroded (Zoogah, 2019), *knowledge paradox* – Africa is the
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13 origin of formal knowledge and literacy while remaining the least knowledgeable in the world
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15 today (Armah, 2018), *capital flight paradox* – Africa is supposed to be a capital-starved region
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17 (Tigharsi et al., 2020) but it is a capital exporter, and *resource paradox* – Africa possesses abundant
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19 resources and yet has the greatest poverty in the world (Maathai, 2011; Sachs and Warner, 2001).
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21 Political paradoxes include the *chieftaincy paradox* – “the empowerment of unelected traditional
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23 leaders often improves the responsiveness of democratic governments” (Baldwin, 2016, p. 5),
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25 *policy paradox* – African countries need to develop policies that contribute to societal
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27 transformation yet the policies they develop constrain productivity (Ayuk and Marouani, 2007),
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29 and *reform paradox* – African countries adopted structural adjustment programs to boost economic
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31 transformation but these led instead to deterioration because of the measures associated with their
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33 implementation (Hutchful, 2002).
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42 Social paradoxes include aid, restoration, and wellbeing. The *aid paradox* (Moss, Petterson, and
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44 Van de Walle (2006) suggests that aid should enhance the welfare of African countries but instead
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46 it aggravates the penury by increasing dependency. The *restoration paradox* proposes that African
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48 countries have the greatest need for restoration but they have the greatest brain-drain (Skinner,
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50 1999; Vieira and Alden, 2011) because conditions for retention are so discouraging. An important
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52 overarching paradox, in the domain of scholarship, is the *paradox of erudition*. It states that
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3 Africans need to be different or unique in erudition, yet they focus on assimilative episteme. Not
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5 only do they use Western theories, but their logic also tends to be Greco-Roman. Further,
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7 philosophies and methodologies regarding empirical research tend to be Western (which ironically
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9 is transformed knowledge stolen from Africa in antiquity) (James, 1954). While industrial
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11 paradoxes focus on decision making, resources, and capacity, political paradoxes center on
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13 governance and its sub-processes of planning and change. Social paradoxes center on support
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15 structures, leadership, and identity. The overarching paradox focuses on general scholarship or
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17 epistemology.
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24 [INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE]
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28 These knowledge management paradoxes suggest a need for models that encourage theorizing and
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30 empirics. For this, we propose a framework. The purpose is to encourage theoretical and empirical
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32 research on the types of knowledge management and paradoxes identified in the above review.
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34 Our goal is consistent with other scholarly calls for such models (Amankwah-Amoah et al., 2018;
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36 Zoogah and Nkomo, 2013). There is, therefore, the need to develop more Africa-centered
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38 knowledge, management, and knowledge management rooted in the cultural context of Africa.
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44 **MODEL OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT IN AFRICA**

45 **The contextual characteristics of Africa**

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47 Africa is a duality of the modern and traditional (Michalopoulos and Papaioannou, 2015). Drawing
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49 upon Zoogah et al. (2015), who discussed the dual contexts of Africa, which involves urban and
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51 rural contexts, we classify the studies of knowledge management and paradoxes (see Table 2) into
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3 two types. Studies on the *modern context* deal with *autochthonous knowledge management (AKM)*,
4 the way autochthons (i.e., Africans) develop bodies of methods, tools, techniques, and values in
5 their organizations to acquire, develop, measure, distribute, and provide a return on their epistemic
6 outcomes. Even though African countries are not developed, they nonetheless possess unique
7 knowledge systems, which were mostly destroyed and replaced during colonialism (Armah, 2018).
8 The way Africans develop techniques and methods seems different from that observed in the West
9 (Armah, 2018; Zoogah, 2019). Knowledge management studies that center on the economy focus
10 primarily on the industrial economy, while those that focus on the financial aspect examine
11 knowledge management in the banking institutions. Technology-centered knowledge management
12 studies deal with global practices, while education-centered ones focus on western learning.
13 Knowledge management related to electoral systems are political, while those that look at the legal
14 domain focus on the courts. Studies that focus on the social aspects of knowledge management
15 discuss interpersonal networks.

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35 In contrast, studies that focus on the *rural context* deal with *autochthonous management*
36 *knowledge (AMK)*. This refers to the epistemic outcome that is independent of its imported origins,
37 and that stands on its own in addressing local problems and in providing its own local training and
38 scholarship. It focuses on leveraging the collective knowledge of Africa to enable African
39 organizations to compete (Zoogah et al., 2015). Zoogah (2019) suggests that “through meaningful
40 management knowledge African societies can be changed for the better” (p. 187), an echo of the
41 Africa Academy of Management, which established a journal based on the belief that “sustained
42 publication of rigorous, actionable, indigenous knowledge that first builds theory and empirically
43 documents management and organizational issues and practices in Africa” (p. 189). Studies in this
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3 category focus on the subsistence economy, communal finance, traditional practices, and learning
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5 as well as heritage systems, tribal councils, and family networks.
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8 9 10 **Dual Epistemes**

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12 Multiple levels characterize studies of episteme in Africa. First, Zoogah (2019) suggests that
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14 primary, secondary, tertiary, and quadruplex levels yield historical knowledge, disciplinary
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16 knowledge, critiqued knowledge, and transubstantiated knowledge, respectively. These forms of
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18 knowledge fit within the modern and rural dualism (Zoogah et al., 2015; Zoogah, 2019). The
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20 former tends to be dominated by Western episteme (theories, strategies, practices, and
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22 approaches), while the latter is dominated by traditional African episteme. As discussed above, the
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24 two contexts suggest two types of episteme - AKM and AMK, respectively.
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31 Second, the dominant Western knowledge system co-exists with traditional African knowledge
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33 systems. While Western knowledge systems tend to prevail in the urban context, the less dominant
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35 or traditional African knowledge system prevails in the rural context. Western episteme is
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37 characterized by several universally established management principles, theories, models, and
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39 systems, recognized as “best practices” for the World. These are perceived as global best
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41 management practices, and they have served to assess and rank the quality of management in
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43 different countries (Bloom et al., 2012). The assumption is that the set of practices identified by
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45 the West offers a universal benchmark against which the quality of management in a given sector
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47 may be assessed.
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54 The traditional episteme, defined as such because of its relatively lower density (i.e., lower
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3 contribution to the global scientific enterprise), is unknown mainly because of the disinclination
4 of the West to tolerate other knowledge systems (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2017). Scholars aligned with
5 the subordinate episteme are increasingly advocating not only tolerance but also acceptance of
6 their epistemes because of the role of knowledge systems in ontological experiences (Segalo,
7 2016). The subordination of the African episteme to the dominant Western episteme is
8 “legitimated” through the view that the latter emerged from advanced scientific methods available
9 only in modern Western countries. Imposed on African countries (and other regions) through
10 colonial influence and power, industrialization and international trade, Western management
11 knowledge is generally viewed as a measure of development and progress and applied as “best-
12 practice”.

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28 The diffusion and application of Western “best practices” across the globe seems to suggest a
29 convergence of management knowledge. However, research consistently points to national
30 differences triggering a reassessment of the role that different political, institutional, economic,
31 cultural, historical, and traditional systems play in creating diversity across organizations and
32 countries (Claver-Cortés et al., 2018). Such diversity creates tension between converging and
33 diverging dynamics, whereby the simple acceptance of “universal solutions” is challenged by the
34 complexities and peculiarities of different local contexts (Hussinki et al., 2017). At first sight,
35 globalization might be seen as a convergent force of management knowledge originating from the
36 “West”. However, *divergence* occurs as this knowledge is modified, extended, or even replaced
37 by local indigenous management knowledge that takes into account inevitable contextual
38 singularity.

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3 From a paradox perspective the contributions of Western and African knowledge, even when
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5 opposite, can be combined fruitfully as a duality in much the same way that urban and rural
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7 knowledge systems function in Africa today. In other words, even though they might oppose one
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9 another, this tension can be a source of creativity, discovery, and mutual appreciation.
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14 **Tensions**

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17 The increasing contentions of both epistemes as relevant, meaningful, and legitimate leads to
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19 tensions. Tensions are states resulting from the perception of opposition between relevant factors
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21 (Putnam et al., 2016). Organizational tensions with paradoxical potential, i.e. tensions resulting
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23 from mutually-defining persistent contradictions, in Africa, may involve the need to develop short-
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25 term flexibility while preparing organizations for the long run (Sarala, Cooper, Junni, and Tarba,
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27 2014), combine foreign management practice with local culture (Gomes et al., 2014; Perrin et al.,
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29 2007), offer standardized products or adapt them to local markets (Ang and Massingham, 2007),
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31 share knowledge by traditional or technological means (Kruger and Johnson, 2010), and deal with
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33 the contradictions of a colonial legacy in a post-colonial (and anti-colonial) era (Nkomo, 2011).
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35 Zoogah (2019) identifies four tensions associated with knowledge generation and management
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37 that span the levels of discourse: fused, allied, dependent, and independent. The tensions “vary in
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39 degree from weak (tensionless) to strong (very intractable tension)” (p. 199).
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47 One tension of major significance for the West is that of differentiation or domination.
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49 Differentiation refers to the strategic response of distinguishing the dominant episteme from the
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51 subordinate episteme (Huff, 2007). It calls for recognizing the subordinate episteme as relevant
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53 and imbuing it with legitimacy (Zoogah, Zoogah and Dalaba-Roohi, 2015). It presupposes equal
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3 standing with regard to knowledge generation and utility. Domination, the process by which the
4 superior episteme asserts authority over the subordinate episteme, neither recognizes the latter nor
5 regards it as relevant. Instead, the subordinate episteme is viewed as inferior and unworthy of
6 consideration regardless of the limited knowledge of agents of the dominant episteme about the
7 subordinate knowledge system.
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17 The development of African episteme is essential for the development of more contextualized
18 management knowledge. It is crucial because the development of management knowledge at a
19 global scale demands an understanding of the nuances and uniqueness of the African context.
20 Specific sociocultural, institutional, and economic factors prevalent in Africa present paradoxical
21 challenges not identified in Western contexts and, hence, require a combination of foreign
22 management knowledge and practices with the local realities. Since most of the existing
23 management knowledge has been developed from a dominant Western perspective, such theories
24 may need to be revised, modified, and extended when taking the African reality into account.
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26 Though Africa is very culturally, ethnically, politically, and economically diverse, Sub-Saharan
27 Africa is generally characterized by a traditional maatian philosophy, which influences social
28 interactions including those occurring in the context of management and organization (Karenga,
29 2004). Several management scholars have indicated that the lack of knowledge about the local
30 African context (Jackson, 2012; Kamoche et al., 2004) has led foreign managers to make decisions
31 resulting in conflict and frustration at various levels (Anakwe, 2002; Nwankwo, 2012). As asserted
32 by Amankwah-Amoah et al. (2018, pp. 556), in the case of Africa “there remains a need for the
33 development of indigenous concepts and issues to explain the effects of institution-based factors.”
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54 Therefore, developing management knowledge that takes into account Western scientific and
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3 traditional African epistemes becomes essential.
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6 7 8 **Identification** 9

10 The tensions we discussed above influence not only identification and representation in the global
11 environment, but also define the ontology of the people of the respective zones. By ontology, we
12 mean the being of those people characterized by the existence of absolute reality. Historical and
13 contemporary evidence suggests that the being of Africans is not optimal. Indeed, Fanon (1972)
14 suggests that people of the global north who are in the zone of being contrasts with those of the
15 global south in general and Africans specifically who are in the zone of non-being (i.e., their lives
16 are not that significant or meaningful). Ndlovu-Gatsheni (2017) suggests that this ontological
17 experience leads to a “confused sense of self, a crisis of consciousness, and a crisis of identity” (p.
18 xii). Zoogah (2017) refers to this state as “identity capture”.
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33 Management studies show that the cognitions, affect, and behavior of individuals determine their
34 individual and collective identity. Fleetwood (2005) suggests that “the way we think the world is
35 (ontology), influences what we think can be known about it (epistemology); how we think it can
36 be investigated (methodology and research techniques); the kinds of theories we believe can be
37 constructed about it; and the political and policy stances we are prepared to take” (p. 197). In other
38 words, the knowledge of individuals and their groups are linked to their ontology. It also influences
39 the connections they establish (i.e., what they identify with). Identification has been studied for
40 over 50 years in social psychological and organizational studies. Tajfel (1978) defines
41 identification as the self-awareness of one’s membership in a group, as well as the emotional and
42 evaluative significance of this membership. In this paper, identification refers to the sense of
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3 connection that members of the subordinate episteme feel about their episteme. To the extent that
4 they identify with their episteme, they might be perceived as deprived and unlikely to develop,
5 because knowledge deprivation diminishes the effectiveness of socio-economic transactions.
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10 People from the zone of the dominant episteme, on the other hand, are likely to perceive knowledge
11 gratification, which enhances their transactions.
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17 Representation refers to the agency of the subaltern in the sphere of knowledge. As Osberg, Biesta,
18 and Cilliers (2008) indicate, “schooling is organized around a representational epistemology: one
19 which holds that knowledge is an accurate representation of something that is separate from
20 knowledge itself” (p. 213). They add that “‘knowledge’ and ‘reality’ should not be understood as
21 separate systems which somehow have to be brought into alignment with each other, but that they
22 are part of the same emerging complex system which is never fully ‘present’ in any (discrete)
23 moment in time” (p. 213). Representation here refers to how difference is framed in the sense of
24 both *representation as depiction* and *representation as speaking* for (Nkomo, 2011, p. 366). It is,
25 therefore, associated with knowledge or epistemology. The lack of that representation is
26 “epistemicide,” understood as the destruction of different knowledge systems (Ndlovu-Gatsheni,
27 2017). In other words, the poor depiction of Africa and the inability of Africans to speak suggests
28 that their representation is inadequate. If representation is a form of contribution, then the inability
29 of Africans to contribute knowledge suggests that their representation in the global episteme is
30 limited. It also negatively affects the growth of Africa.
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51 The debate about what is vital for the growth of Africa has revolved around knowledge creation.
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53 While some scholars suggest adopting Western knowledge and practices because of its domination
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3 and diffusion (Briggs and Sharp, 2004), others advocate for African knowledge because the
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5 learning curve seems shorter given the familiarity of scholars with African phenomena (Ndlovu-
6
7 Gatsheni, 2017). Furthermore, it is argued that in addition to the epistemicide associated with
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9 Western episteme (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2016), adopting Western knowledge deprives scholars of a
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11 meaningful identity. A scholar studying social phenomena in Europe thus becomes a European
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13 expert in that social phenomena. Similarly, an African scholar studying political phenomena in
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15 Africa not only becomes an African expert in that political phenomenon but can generate insight
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17 that transforms the political sphere.
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24 As Zoogah (2019) points out, there are various ways by which African scholars can develop
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26 identity from African phenomena. The dominant paradigm, Afrocentricity (which refers to the
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28 philosophical and theoretical construct in the discipline of African Studies where laws,
29
30 generalizations, methodologies, and theories are created) (Asante, 1988), has psychological
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32 (cognitive, affective, conative, behavioral); structural, and functional elements that can elucidate
33
34 the African peoples' realities. The Afrocentricity paradigm can be used to study social phenomena,
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36 the social constructions that influence the psychological, structural, and functional interactions of
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38 individuals', groups', and societies' development; economic phenomena that focus on the
39
40 individual and collective choice distributions that determine productive activities within national
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42 and global spheres (Hicks, 1939), and technology, the body of knowledge devoted to creating
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44 tools, processing actions, and extracting materials (Child, 1987). In that regard, Afrocentricity
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49 seems to be a trigger for strategic research approaches.
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54 **Strategic Approach**

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3 Research in strategic behavior suggests that identification or representation may result from
4 several strategic approaches (Oliver, 1991). A strategic approach refers to the fundamental
5 direction to achieve an outcome or objective. Outcomes can be achieved using balanced (duality)
6 or unbalanced (dualism) approaches. An unbalanced approach (dualism) refers to the use of either
7 a local (African) or foreign (Western) epistemic approach. In their review of the management
8 literature, Zoogah and Nkomo (2012) found that all the studies applied Western theories. Even in
9 the area of qualitative studies, where constructionism is based on the subjective interpretations of
10 the local context, scholars resorted to Western interpretations. Other reviews on Western/Eastern
11 epistememes (Li, 2016) found similar effects. In other words, most scholars from Africa tend to prefer
12 Western paradigms – or at least to use them because of the academic norms that force authors to
13 frame their work theoretically. A balanced approach (duality), on the other hand, refers to the use
14 of both local (African) and foreign (Western) epistemic approaches, combining the Afrocentric
15 and Western paradigms. This approach seems promising because scholars doing this leverage
16 strengths of both worlds. However, they are also affected by the weaknesses of both paradigms.
17 The reality, however, is that African scholars rarely use a balanced approach. As depicted in Figure
18 1, both balanced and unbalanced approaches influence AKM and AMK.

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38 [FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE]

39 40 41 42 43 44 **Autochthonous Knowledge Management (AKM)**

45 The modern context of Africa is associated with knowledge originating in the colonial state
46 (Zoogah et al., 2015). Lewis (1954) argued that developing countries are characterized by an
47 advanced sector (usually associated with manufacturing and urbanization). The effectiveness of
48 modern organizations depends on modern knowledge management spanning multiple institutional
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3 levels (Zoogah et al., 2015). The generation and facilitation of knowledge that builds an efficient
4 industrial economy underpins industrial academies (e.g., Association of Ghana Industries).
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6 Banking systems that supplant traditional financial mechanisms require modern knowledge
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8 systems because of the global interconnection of financial institutions. The hyper-competition of
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10 modern organizations suggests that technological practices that enable advantages are diffused to
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12 the urban sector, especially from the West.
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19 In addition, organizations and ministries of African countries are dominated by technocrats who
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21 leverage Western knowledge acquired through affiliated educational systems. Knowledge
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23 management related to effective governance and legal systems underpin organizations in the urban
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25 context. For example, diffused property rights, which are based on western practices, enable not
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27 only domestic but also foreign companies to operate within African countries. Lastly, the modern
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29 context is characterized by interpersonal non-familial networking knowledge that supposedly
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31 supports organizational processes and operations. This seems different from AMK, as discussed
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40 **Autochthonous Management Knowledge (AMK)**

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42 There have been calls for autochthonous management research or indigenous management
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44 research in general (Holtbrügge, 2013) and specifically in Africa (Cunha et al., 2016; Gomes et
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46 al., 2011, 2016; Jackson, 2013; Nkomo and Zoogah, 2013), Latin America (Cuervo-Cazurra, 2008;
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48 Vendrell-Herrero et al., 2017), and Asia (Leung, 2012; Li, 2014, 2016). The motivation is to enable
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50 autochthons to join the scholarly conversation (Huff, 1998; 2008). Jackson (2013) systematically
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52 re-examines the concepts of indigenoussness and indigenous knowledge by drawing on “a range of
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3 disciplines and what these concepts mean to undertake management research that more thoroughly
4 reflect global realities while evaluating indigenous research methods that could be used effectively
5 and appropriately in this endeavor” (p. 13). Even though his objective is to “lay the foundations
6 for mainstreaming indigenous research within international and cross-cultural management
7 studies, taking sub-Saharan Africa as the primary and initial focus, and using the informal
8 economy as an example” (Jackson, 2013, p. 13), the problem is that the informal economy is a
9 contextual mechanism. It suggests that the formal economy is bereft of indigenous knowledge.
10 Nonetheless, Jackson (2013) indicates that the concept of indigenous knowledge refers to insider
11 knowledge or “a knowledge of the ‘local’ by local people ‘who know what will and will not work’”
12 (p. 25). Situating indigeneity within the informal economy is a static view. However, Jackson
13 (2013) points out that “a dynamic concept integrates indigenous management knowledge into the
14 wider global discourse and practice of international management” (p. 25).

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33 Given the negative political, historical, and geopolitical connotations of the term “indigenous”
34 (Jackson, 2013), the concept of autochthon seems a better alternative. An autochthon is a native
35 and therefore refers to Africans and their way of not only understanding, discussing, assimilating,
36 and appreciating knowledge, but also sharing that knowledge in a way that affirms their ontology
37 and episteme. Zoogah et al., (2015, p. 10) define autochthonous research within management as
38 “management research that is independent of its imported origins, and which stands on its own in
39 addressing local problems and in providing its own local training and scholarship.” They argue
40 that autochthonous management researchers are driven by a desire to generate theoretical and
41 practical knowledge to solve *local* management problems, in the actual *local* circumstances,
42 responding to *local* specificities and needs. Consequently, they called for autochthonous research
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3 that focuses on the “development of (1) management techniques for practice in the public and
4 private sectors (e.g., dynamic innovation) as well as (2) management theories that fit the informal
5 and formal economies.”
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10 11 12 **Outcomes**

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14 Outcomes of AMK and AKM cut across levels – individual, organizational, and societal (Zoogah
15 et al., 2015). In this paper, however, we focus on the last two. We begin with organizational
16 outcomes because the purpose of African management is to enhance organizational effectiveness
17 (Zoogah and Nkomo, 2012; Zoogah et al., 2015).
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26 *Organizational level.* The literature shows that organizational effectiveness is multidimensional
27 and manifested in various perspectives (Cameron and Whetten, 1983). Zoogah et al. (2015)
28 develop a typology of organizational outcomes based on the interconnectedness of dual economies,
29 the variety of African economic systems, and the diversity of the African management thought
30 system (Ahiauzu, 1986). The outcomes are either contextual (internal and external) and or
31 temporal (short term and long term) dimensions of organizational effectiveness. The contextual
32 dimension addresses the external and internal environments of organizations. Thus, some
33 outcomes focus on internal constituents (e.g., profitability, which enables wage increases for
34 employees) while others are external (e.g., customer satisfaction). Still, some outcomes are short
35 term (sales), while others are long term (societal transformation). Collectively, they depend on
36 autochthonous knowledge.
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54 The production of business knowledge is also likely to affect impactful business venturing. A
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3 voluminous literature exists on strategy, international business, and entrepreneurship linking
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5 knowledge production to business success. Psychological, economic, and organizational
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7 knowledge related to individual employees, managers, and executives influences not only the
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9 practices but also the operational and strategic outcomes of businesses. In the West, such
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11 knowledge influences business venturing, management, and growth.
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17 Several agencies, countries, and supranational entities (UN, UNDP, ILO, World Bank) suggest
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19 that business is important for growth and development in Africa (United Nations, 2008). The
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21 sustainability literature also shows that African countries cannot nurture economic sustainability
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23 without effective businesses (Maathai, 2009). For example, the literature on Africapitalism,
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25 referring to the private sector's commitment to the socio-economic development of the continent,
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27 is an idea proposed and championed by Tony O. Elumelu (in Amaeshi and Idemudia, 2015). It
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29 suggests that business operations should be consistent with African socio-economic and cultural
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31 standards (Finestone and Snyman, 2005). It requires efficient economic coordination by diverse
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33 actors, such as the state, civil society, and markets, which suggests drawing from actors' moral
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35 psychology (moral agents) and projecting human behaviors and needs of individuals in African
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37 societies (Amaeshi and Idemudia, 2015). To the extent that business is conducted consistently with
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39 the stipulations of Africapitalism, it is likely to influence the flourishing of African societies.
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47 The effect of these outcomes is to increase innovation and productivity. In response to various
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49 calls for testing and contextualizing established international business theories in Africa (and
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51 elsewhere) (Teagarden, Von Glinow, and Mellahi, 2017), Gomes et al. (2018) investigated the
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53 effect of productivity on African firms' exports. These authors tested the applicability of the widely
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3 accepted self-selection theory, which suggests that more productive firms export more (Melitz and
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5 Otoviano, 2008). Their findings show that this widely accepted self-selection theory is not
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7 applicable in high corruption contexts, where invisible barriers impair the capacity of African
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9 SMEs to compete in international markets. Their results show that while in low corruption
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11 environments it is more important to understand “the rules of the market” (competitiveness
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13 determined by productivity and efficiency), in high corruption contexts firms must also understand
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15 the “rules of the game”, and effectively use alternative networking mechanisms to “open the doors”
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17 of international markets (Gomes et al., 2018).
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24 *Societal level.* Production of business knowledge may also directly influence the flourishing of
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26 African societies. Business knowledge helps to increase organizational and industry productivity,
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28 which enhances economic wellbeing. Decades of research in the management and organization
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30 fields highlight business factors that influence the productivity of individuals, groups, and
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32 organizations. Even though the industrial base in Africa is limited, such knowledge can be
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34 leveraged to maximize economic operations in this sector (Sallinger, 2001). Furthermore, national
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36 policies derived from scientific business knowledge support organizations and industries by
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38 cultivating environments that maximize productivity (Eifert, Gelb, and Ramachandran, 2005).
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40 Such knowledge contributes to national development (Bloom et al., 2012), and to the extent that it
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42 is highly impactful, it can help transform societies (Zoogah et al., 2015).
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49 This might occur through economic mathesis, the science of order associated with empirical forms
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51 of business theory and knowledge. Economic mathesis creates two orders: one of knowledge and
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53 one of dependence. The order of knowledge is cognitive while the order of dependence is
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3 behavioral. The former refers to cognitive orientation of society emanating from scientific
4 evidence showing how relational structures join and function. It describes relationships not only
5 in society but also in businesses or organizations. The order of dependence refers to structure of
6 dependency deriving from behavioral orientation toward valid and reliable scientific evidence. For
7 business, it centers on the extent to which firms can rely on empirical knowledge to generate
8 valuable outcomes.
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12 Economic mathesis is likely to impact business venturing through the orders of knowledge and
13 dependence. Business needs practical and theoretical knowledge as well as scientifically valid and
14 reliable knowledge that shows how productive they are likely to be in leading the market.
15 Evidence-based management is based on this (Rousseau, 2006). Businesses also need knowledge
16 they can depend on continuously (Rousseau, 2006). For example, empirical evidence on effective
17 internationalization is likely to be meaningful for African multinational corporations interested in
18 penetrating markets in developed countries.
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38 The orders of knowledge and dependence are not limited to business; they are vital for the
39 flourishing of Africa. Africa's progress arguably depends on scientific knowledge and the degree
40 of dependence on that knowledge. Knowledge that is not meaningful is unlikely to influence the
41 functioning of society, just as it cannot influence entities' dependence on that knowledge. Both
42 meaningful and dependable knowledge are likely to affect economic, political, social, and even
43 cultural interactions and result in societal uplift.
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54 The primary effect of all these is epistemic equity and societal transformation. Epistemic equity
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3 refers to the realignment of knowledge systems in a way not to subordinate African episteme.
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5 Otherwise termed epistemic adjustment, it focuses on knowledge generation that optimizes the
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7 scientific contribution of African scholarship (Ndlovu-Gatsheni, 2017; Zoogah, 2019). Societal
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9 transformation, the degree to which a society is changed, especially in a positive way (Bell, 1973),
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11 is a function of knowledge (Stehr, 2007). We argue that the transformation of African societies
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13 depends first on the degree to which the knowledge generated by African scholarship rises to the
14
15 level of scholarship in developed societies, and second on the degree to which organizations are
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17 productive and innovative. The latter collectively contributes to industrial productivity. The
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19 societal outcomes are likely to be achieved when the profile of African episteme is boosted through
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21 autochthonous management. In his Presidential Address to the Africa Academy of Management,
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23 Zoogah (2019: 186) noted that “as a parrhesiatic organization, AFAM has to engage in value-
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25 creating practices through its discourses so that it can endow Africans with the right and ability to
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27 speak. These value-creating practices are means by which AFAM moves beyond its sacredness to
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29 the secular context of Africa. Unlike other scholarly communities, AFAM does not have the luxury
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31 of not ‘unliving’ the African challenge; it has a sacred duty to help provide a different and new
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33 living to Africans than the one they are currently experiencing.”
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42 DISCUSSION

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44 Management in Africa may benefit from an integration of local and Western epistememes via the
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46 creation of autochthonous management knowledge, joining Western and local elements
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48 paradoxically, providing it with roots (local groundedness) and wings (global resources to “fly”),
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50 to use Tigharsi et al.’s (2020) metaphor, like opposites that can coexist with vibrancy without
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52 negating one another. This can constitute an exercise in synergy and trade-off, in which
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3 professional management embraces local contingencies (see Table 3) without neutralizing
4 advantages from global knowledge (Vendrell-Herrero et al., 2020). We argued that this is a much-
5 needed exercise, given the fact that contexts pose unique challenges to managers and
6 organizations, meaning that good practice depends on proper contextualization. In our
7 interpretation, autochthonous management knowledge does not negate the importance of
8 universalistic attempts to define good management, but neither does it discount the power of
9 context. In this sense, African management should not necessarily reject Western management
10 knowledge outright, but should synthesize it with local specificities. Inspired by the literature on
11 paradoxes related to organizational tensions and contradictions, we see this effort of integration as
12 potentially fruitful (Gaim et al., 2018), as new knowledge can be created without rendering any of
13 the poles subaltern. In fact, what defines a paradoxical view of organizations and management is
14 the fact that it accepts that different – even opposite – visions and perspectives can coexist and that
15 this coexistence can be a form of vitality and discovery rather than one of dissonance.
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35 [TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE]
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37 AMK and AKM are important for Africa because they contribute to science. At the moment the
38 contribution of Africa to scientific enterprise is limited because of the paradox of knowledge. It is
39 replete with and urgently needs knowledge to escape its current socio-economic deprivation. Yet,
40 the knowledge that it generates is foreign and partly irrelevant. For future research, the
41 autochthonous perspective can contribute to paradox theory by revealing specific paradoxes and
42 the local conditions of their production. Paradox theory has rapidly converged toward four types
43 of paradoxes (Smith and Lewis, 2011) and has been criticized for this convergence (Cunha and
44 Putnam, 2019). Research on the African contexts can open new tensions in organizations in
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3 defying existing categorizations, helping to reframe Westernized views of paradox (for example,
4 with regard to traditional and rational forms of authority). The role of family and community,
5 tradition, and solidarity, may encourage the revision of the current state of the art on paradox as
6 suggested by preliminary, qualitative research (Cunha et al., 2016). Equally promising may be the
7 search for a synthesis of Western and African epistemes that transcends the poles, creating new
8 forms of theorizing that express a genuinely autochthonous ethos.
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19 **Implications for practice and policy**

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21 Managers are often interested in knowledge, especially best practices that enhance their operations.
22 Management knowledge focuses on the accumulation of such best practices. We suggested two
23 types of best practices associated with AMK and AKM. The distinction enables managers to
24 determine the appropriate type of knowledge management. Furthermore, the paradoxes identified
25 are mechanisms that enable managers in African organizations to complexify their knowledge
26 systems to gain sustained competitive advantage (Barney, 1991; Zoogah, 2019) without sacrificing
27 global or local knowledge. Demands on African managers may have specificities differing from
28 those on other continents, and we offered a map to raise awareness regarding paradoxes that may
29 be more appropriate in the African context. Instead of transferring “best practice” without
30 contextual consideration, we suggest that local and emergent competing demands need to
31 incorporate contextual nuances. In other words, the paradoxical tensions characteristic of Africa
32 may be considered as integral to business and policy rather than as local expressions to be solved
33 through international “best practice”. Lastly, the strategic approaches we propose will enable
34 managers to formulate their strategic directions with regard to knowledge management.
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CONCLUSION

Management in Africa may benefit from an integration of local and Western epistemes via the development of paradox-conscious autochthonous management knowledge, integrating Western and local elements through paradox: opposites that can coexist without neutralizing one another. This effort of synthesis unites professional management with local contingencies in a way that is fruitful because it takes into account the importance of general professional knowledge as containing universalistic trends. We identified some tensions around KM that managers in Africa will have to appraise.

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Table 1. The Paradoxes of Autochthonous Management in Africa

Paradox	Domain	Meaning	Dimension	Source
Ingenuity Paradox	Industrial	African countries are the sources or origin of ingenuity but they are the less innovative in the world	Decision-making	Loftus (2005), Hart (2000)
Resources Paradox	Industrial	Africa has abundant resources but it has the greatest level of poverty in the world	Resources	Maathai (2011); Sachs and Warner (2001)
Capital flight Paradox	Industrial	Africa is supposed to be a capital-starved region but it is a capital exporter.	Resources	Asiedu, Francois and Nti-Addae (2012)
Management Paradox	Industrial	Management is increasingly being demanded to transform African countries but the conditions for effective and professional management are being eroded.	Capacity	Zoogah (2019)
Knowledge Paradox	Industrial	African countries are the origin of knowledge and literacy but they are the least knowledgeable in the world	Scientific	Armah (2018)
Policy Paradox	Political	African countries need to develop policies that contribute to societal transformation but the policies they develop constrain productivity.	Planning	Ayuk and Marouani (2007)
Chieftaincy Paradox	Political	African countries viewed traditional chiefs as bottlenecks to democracy at the time of independence but use them for political and democratic governance	Governance	Baldwin (2016)
Reform Paradox	Political	African countries adopted structural adjustment reforms but deteriorated until they achieved stability.	Change	Hutchful (2002)
Aid Paradox	Social	Aid is supposed to enhance welfare of African countries but instead exacerbates it, increasing dependency.	Support structure	Moss, Pettersson, and Van de Walle (2006)
Restoration Paradox	Social	African countries have the greatest need of restoration but they have the greatest brain-drain.	Leadership	Skinner (1999); Vieira and Alden (2011)
Wellbeing Paradox	Social	African countries are the originators of the integrated being but they are the most splintered and vacuous in the world	Identity	Zoogah (2019)
Paradox of Erudition	Scholarship	Africans need to be different or unique in erudition, but they focus on assimilative episteme.	Epistemology	Nkomo (2011)

Table 2. Contextual Characteristics of Africa

Characteristics	African Context	
	Modern	Traditional
Sector	Urban	Rural
Proportion	30-40%	60 - 70%
Knowledge Management	Autochthonous Knowledge Management (AKM)	Autochthonous Management Knowledge (AMK)
<i>Economic</i>	Industrial economy	Subsistence economy
<i>Finance</i>	Banking institutions	Communal finance
<i>Technology</i>	Global practices	Traditional practices
<i>Education</i>	Western learning	Traditional learning
<i>Political</i>	Electoral systems	Heritage systems
<i>Legal</i>	Courts	Tribal councils
<i>Social</i>	Interpersonal networks	Tribe and family networks

Table 3. Contrasting global and autochthonous knowledge

	Global knowledge	Autochthonous knowledge
Definition	Global knowledge refers to epistemic outcome that has universal relevance because the phenomena of interest are not limited to a particular context.	Autochthonous knowledge refers to epistemic outcome that is independent of its imported origins, and which stands on its own in addressing local problems and in providing its own local training and scholarship.
Focus	Universal context	Local context
Goals	Solves university scholarship and practical problems	Solve local management scholarship and practical problems
Contributions	The utility, relevance, and application of the knowledge is boundary-less.	The utility, relevance, and application of the knowledge is bounded.
Limitations	Uncertainty of its relevance	Generalizability
Representative work	Williamson (2008); Riley (1994); Neal (2008); Smith (2002)	Zoogah, Zoogah, and Dalaba-Roohi, (2015); Jackson, (2013); Amaeshi, Jackson, and Yevuz, (2008); Mangaliso (2001); Mangaliso and Lewis (2013).
Example	<i>Corporate governance</i> , the system by which corporations are directed and controlled	<i>Ubuntu</i> , a distinctly African concept that has philosophical and management implications for research and practice

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Figure 1

A Conceptual Model of Knowledge Management in Africa

