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MASTER THESIS

Muhammed Buğrahan HATİBOĞLU



T.C.

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

**THE EFFECT OF SERVANT LEADERSHIP ON KNOWLEDGE
HIDING BEHAVIOR: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF
MEANINGFUL WORK**

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DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

Ankara, 2023

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Master of Science
In
MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

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APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis titled “The effect of servant leadership on knowledge hiding behavior: The mediating role of meaningful work” prepared by Muhammed Buğrahan Hatiboğlu was accepted unanimously by the following jury as a master thesis in the Department of Management and Organization, Institute of Social Sciences, Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University

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PLAGIARISM PAGE

I hereby declare that this thesis is my own work. that I do not have any unethical behavior that violates patents and copyrights at all stages from the planning to the writing of the thesis, that I have obtained all the information in this thesis within the academic and ethical rules, and that I have cited all the information and interpretations used in this thesis.

Date: 26/12/2023

Signature:

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DEDICATION PAGE

To my beloved family



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I hope my future life will be better and brighter than my past. Praise be to the One who created me.

ABSTRACT

The Effect of a Servant Leadership on Knowledge Hiding Behavior: The Mediating Role of Meaningful Work

Knowledge hiding behavior in organizations vary according to whether individuals intentionally hide or not. However, there is surprisingly little research to what degree this behavior is influenced by employees' perceptions of meaning and leadership. This study, based on Social Learning Theory (SLT), examines the impact of servant leadership on knowledge hiding behavior in the workplace through meaningful work perception. This paper consists of a survey study that examines the relationship between servant leadership, knowledge hiding (evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding), and meaningful work using a sample of 605 employees. The results show that, first, servant leadership is negatively related only to the playing dumb sub-dimension of knowledge hiding. Second, meaningful work has a full mediating effect between evasive hiding and servant leadership and playing dumb and servant leadership. This paper is the first study examining the relationship between servant leadership and knowledge hiding, as well as the mediating role of meaningful work in this. This study offers several insights for policymakers and managers.

Keywords: Knowledge Hiding Behavior, Servant Leadership, Meaningful Work

ÖZET

Hizmetkar Liderliğin Bilgi Saklama Davranışına Olan Etkisi: Anlamlı İşin Aracılık Rolü

Örgütlerde bilgi saklama davranışı, bireylerin bilgiyi kasıtlı olarak saklayıp saklamadıklarına göre değişmektedir. Ancak, bu davranışın çalışanların anlam ve liderlik algılarından ne derece etkilendiğine dair şaşırtıcı derecede az araştırma vardır. Sosyal Öğrenme Teorisi'ne (SLT) dayanan bu çalışma, hizmetkâr liderliğin işyerinde bilgi saklama davranışı üzerindeki etkisini anlamlı iş algısı üzerinden incelemektedir. Bu çalışma, 605 çalışandan oluşan bir örneklem kullanılarak hizmetkâr liderlik, bilgi saklama (kaçamak saklama, aptalı oynama ve rasyonelleştirilmiş saklama) ve anlamlı iş arasındaki ilişkiyi inceleyen bir anket çalışmasından oluşmaktadır. Sonuçlar, ilk olarak, hizmetkâr liderliğin bilgi gizlemenin sadece aptalı oynama alt boyutu ile negatif ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir. İkinci olarak, anlamlı iş, kaçamaklı gizleme ile hizmetkâr liderlik ve aptalı oynama ile hizmetkâr liderlik arasında tam aracılık etkisine sahiptir. Bu çalışma, hizmetkâr liderlik ile bilgi saklama arasındaki ilişkiyi ve anlamlı işin bu ilişkideki aracılık rolünü inceleyen ilk çalışmadır. Bu çalışma, politika yapıcılar ve yöneticiler için çeşitli içgörüler sunmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bilgi Saklama Davranışı, Hizmetkar Liderlik, Anlamlı İş

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SLT: Social Learning Theory

SL: Servant Leadership

KH: Knowledge Hiding

EH: Evasive Hiding

PD: Playing Dumb

RH: Rationalized Hiding

MW: Meaningful Work

1. INTRODUCTION

The acceleration of technical and scientific progress often depends on the efficient and sustained utilization of knowledge-based resources. In the last two decades, knowledge has become widely used by firms and knowledge began to appear more as value creation and accumulation of intellectual capital (Despres & Chauvel, 1999). Because among all the resources a company possesses, knowledge can give companies the ability to achieve sustainable differentiation and thus competitive advantage (Gupta et al., 2000). The fact that knowledge has become so visible and valuable has encouraged more research on knowledge, both for managers seeking to achieve sustainable competitive advantage and for academics seeking to understand the nature of this phenomenon.

Researchers are still intensively studying knowledge because of the high value of it. The nature of knowledge circulating within the organization, individuals' behaviors towards knowledge and their tendency to share it, or the management of knowledge are some of the topics that continue to be studied. Among them, the circulation of knowledge between employees within the company, from the bottom to the top management or from top management to the bottom, is a very popular theme. Because the success of knowledge management depends on the healthy circulation of knowledge within the company (Wang & Noe, 2010). However, the hiding behavior of knowledge can be a barrier to the circulation of knowledge flow and it is conceptualized as a new structure in the last decade (Di Vaio et al., 2021; Issac et al., 2022). Knowledge hiding is generally defined as “*an intentional attempt by an individual to withhold or conceal knowledge that has been requested by another person*” (Connelly et al., 2012). In that way, it is a representation of intentional behavior of employees in the workplaces when the requester desire to know a specific knowledge. Moreover, knowledge hiding behavior is contained of three dimensions which are evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding (Connelly et al., 2012). These dimensions include both conceal or falsify and rationalize the knowledge. In this respect, knowledge hiding behavior has a pattern of behavior that is both destructive and logical. When asked for specific knowledge, individuals consciously either provide it incorrectly or pretend not to know it. In logical behavior, when individuals are asked for knowledge, they provide a rationale for why the knowledge should be hidden. This behavior is important when the security of knowledge is required (Connelly & Zweig, 2015; Usman et al., 2022). Lack of knowledge sharing can also

occur when employees do not know or cannot remember exactly a piece of information (Anser et al., 2021). These types of behaviors or events are events outside of knowledge hiding. Thus, knowledge hiding is not exactly the opposite of knowledge sharing (Anser et al., 2021; Connelly et al., 2012).

This deliberate hiding behavior has been studied as the subject of various research such as individual or team level (Fatima et al., 2021; Xiong et al., 2021), impact on organizational performance (Serenko and Bontis, 2016; Singh, 2019), factors triggering knowledge hiding (Kuo et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2016), and the outcomes of knowledge hiding (Anand et al., 2021; Burmeister et al., 2019). In addition to these, there are also studies that examine the connection between leadership types and employees' knowledge hiding behaviors (Koay & Lim, 2022; Nguyen et al., 2022; Tan et al., 2022). In this relationship, the role of leaders can sometimes be decisive in reducing knowledge hiding (Xie et al., 2023) and sometimes in triggering knowledge hiding (Offergelt et al., 2019).

Servant leadership is a form of leadership that can negatively affect knowledge-hiding behavior (Anwaar & Jingwei, 2022; Tian et al., 2022; Usman et al., 2022), and can revive the culture of sharing knowledge (A. Bilal et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2022). Because servant leadership does not command its employees, it serves them (Greenleaf, 1970; van Dierendonck, 2011; Van Dierendonck & Sousa, 2016), and this reinforces the positive feelings of employees towards the job (Donia et al., 2016). Therefore, servant leadership as the type of leadership perceived by the employees is an important leadership behavior that connects the employees to their work (Rivkin et al., 2014). However, behind the individuals' gaze, there is very limited empirical evidence on what kind of knowledge hiding influenced by servant leadership perception. First of all, most of the studies in this field have treated knowledge hiding as a single dimension and tried to associate servant leadership with knowledge hiding only by treating it negatively (Usman et al., 2022). Second, existing studies examining servant leadership and knowledge hiding in the literature are also scarce. One is examining servant leadership from a teacher-student perspective (Anwaar, 2022), the other examining its impact on the team in organizations (Khan et al., 2023), and another one is examining its moderating effect (Tian et al., 2022). In addition to these studies, only Usman et al (2022) considered knowledge hiding in three dimensions and examined the effect of servant leadership in this context. However, more research is needed to examine this relationship.

Knowledge hiding is a deliberate behavior of individuals. Although there is a negative effect of servant leadership on knowledge hiding in the workplace environment (Usman et al., 2022; Anwaar, 2022; Khan et al., 2023), there may be other variables that can determine individuals' knowledge hiding behavior. From another perspective, employees may not hide knowledge whether they perceive servant leadership or not. Furthermore, it may be misleading to infer from only the environmental context of the organization or actors within the organization, such as leaders or peers. On the other hand, focusing only on the individual may also be a reductionist way to find out the reasons behind knowledge hiding behavior. In this context, it is important to examine knowledge hiding behavior together with determinants that both determine the individual's commitment to the organization or the individual's job satisfaction and directly affect the effectiveness of the individual within the organization. Accordingly, meaningful work is a variable that both directly concerns individuals and can be directly affected by where individuals work. That is, where there are servant leaders, employees can feel valued and could see that leaders want their best well-being (Spears, 2010). Therefore, employees who feel valued at work are also likely to at least reconsider their knowledge hiding behavior. However, the meaning which describing as how work is important and sustainable for them, can change the impact of these two dimensions. Because, what makes meaningfulness so powerful is that meaning is a psychological need for individuals (Fletcher and Schofield, 2021). On the other hand, what makes meaningfulness at work is also fundamentally based on the interactions and subjective interpretations of the work perceptions experienced by the employees in the work environment (Ghadi *et al.*, 2013; Rosso *et al.*, 2010). In this respect, employees will respond to servant leadership to the extent that they perceive their work as meaningful and thus their knowledge hiding behaviors may be affected. Thus, the link between knowledge hiding and servant leadership could rely on how people view meaningful work.

Especially in the last three years, layoffs, unpaid leaves, changes in working hours, etc. have caused career shocks for employees (Heath et al., 2022). For example, frontline employees who are shifted from face-to-face to remote work, or employees who are laid off altogether (Voorhees et al., 2020). Such decisions, or more precisely, organizational responses during the pandemic affected the role of work in individual life (van Zoonen et al., 2022). Therefore, uncertainties and sudden changes as a result of unexpected events, behaviors or decisions of employers that are not in line with employees' expectations may have affected employees'

meaning of their work (Heath et al., 2022). An example of a change in this perception may be that during the Covid-19 process, individuals re-evaluate the things that are important to them. In such circumstances, where environmental conditions can be decisive, it is likely that employees' knowledge hiding behaviors and the type of leadership they need will also be affected. This study therefore asks the following research questions:

- 1) How does servant leadership style affect knowledge hiding behavior of employees?
- 2) How does meaningful work as a mediating variable determine the boundaries of servant leadership and knowledge hiding behavior?

In the context of these research questions, this study examines whether the perception of servant leadership negatively affects knowledge-hiding behavior and whether it can increase employees' meaningful work perceptions. In the context of Social Learning Theory (SLT), the caring attitude of the servant leader within the organization is closely observed and modeled by the employees. Since servant leadership can directly affect meaningful work, employees will be very attentive of these behaviors. Hence, their engagement in sharing information is likely to be even higher. However, by using Social Learning Theory lenses, this study uses the meaningful work variable as a mediator and assumes that a high perception of meaningful work will decrease the knowledge-hiding behavior dimensions: evasive hiding, playing dumb and rationalized hiding.

This study contributes to the relevant literature in several aspects. First of all, this study seeks the relationship between servant leadership and sub-dimensions of knowledge hiding behaviors, which are evasive hiding, playing dumb and rationalized hiding. Such a study may pave the way for a more detailed insight into the influence of servant leadership on knowledge hiding dimensions. Because, in the existing literature, only Usman et al. (2022) addressed the relationship between servant leadership and knowledge hiding in all three dimensions. Second, the literature has also encouraged the integration of further variables into the relationship between the two. Assuming that new working conditions in the post-Covid-19 period (Uzkurt et al., 2023) may impact individuals' perception of meaning, we integrate the meaningful work variable into this relationship. This approach also provides support for Anser et al.'s (2021) future study recommendation. More specifically, this study extends Anser's work by recognizing servant leadership as a more inclusive type of leadership than ethical leadership.

Lastly, this study is the first to test the meaningful work variable between servant leadership and the dimensions of knowledge hiding.

The design of the thesis is as follows: This thesis firstly discusses the conceptual background of the variables used in the study in Chapter 2. Accordingly, Chapter 2 examines leadership theories in general from a historical perspective, leading up to servant leadership. It then goes on to describe what is knowledge hiding and what are behaviors at workplaces, while positioning what is meaningful work for employees. In the Chapter 3, this study continues to build the theoretical structure to present the hypotheses. Accordingly, it constructs the relationship between variables in the context of SLT. Chapter 4 includes methodological data such as sample selection, reporting of demographic data and presentation of the scales used in the study. Following, Chapter 5 gives the result of the normality test, hypothesis tests and mediation analyses. In the last section, Chapter 6 includes general discussions which are theoretical and practical aspects, limits of this thesis and suggestions for future work.

2. CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Leadership in the Organizations

Leadership is a very important element that enables the learning and development of today's organizations (Xie, 2020). It is also important for organizations together with the requirements of leadership and the traits that leaders possess. However, there are various debates discussion about who is a leader and what is a leadership in the literature (Yukl, 2012; Hunt & Fedynich, 2019). While leadership generally comes to the fore with their responsibilities, duties and objectives, a leader is characterized by its traits. In addition, Bass and Bass (2008) define the leader as an individual, the leader's behavior, the leader's influence, and the relationship between the leader and the followers (Stentz et al., 2012).

According to Rost (1993), there are about 226 definitions in the literature about what leadership is. While some definitions are more useful than others, there is no single right definition in the literature that captures the core essence of leadership (Yukl, 2012). As environmental influences have evolved and the focus on a manager profile has increased, definitions and requirements for leadership have been continually updated. Therefore, Hunt & Fedynich (2019) imply that a universally accepted concept of leadership remains elusive as the understanding of leadership continues to evolve to evolve. Still, leadership can be described also a duty carried out by dynamic and powerful individuals who lead a mass of certain weight behind it such as nations, armies, or corporates, and are responsible for those they lead (Yukl, 2012).

Leadership was not a subject of scientific debate until the 20th century (Yukl, 2012). Prior to that leadership from ancient times was more masculine, heroic, individualistic, brave and normative in orientation and nature (Grint, 2011). As the industrial revolution shifted the American economy from agriculture to industry, how leaders should treat their followers also changed (Stone & Patterson, 2022). Till then even though the concept of leadership remains unchanged in the last 100 years, as a context it as undergone significant changes (Aksoy, 2020). For example, there has been a transition from the great man to a more professional function of maintaining organizational stability towards the end of the 19th century (Grint, 2011). Moreover, with the contributions of Henry Fayol and Frederick W. Taylor, leadership has taken on a more static structure. That is, in accordance with that times, leadership function were

establish to enforce performance criteria to achieve organizational goals rather individual needs (Stone & Patterson, 2022). With the Hawthorne research, the focus on people has increased and leadership has changed again (Stone & Patterson, 2022). To sum it can be said that although the concept of leadership has not changed much, it has been reshaped according to the context.

Today, leadership has undergone significant changes due to the reasons of the context. These significant changes can be listed in various topics such as work-family balance, the spread of information communication technologies, and therefore, increasing the interaction between people, capital mobility, and especially, the recent emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic (Aksoy, 2020). In summary, the context, i.e., the organization, the employees, the environmental conditions, is crucial for leadership.

2.2. Leadership Approaches

Since formal studies began after the 1930s, the study of leadership has been replete with theories that challenge previous theories, theories that current existing theories, and new approaches (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). The fact that the concept of leadership has a structure that is highly affected by the social, technological, economic and political events of its time is a result of this continuity and development (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). Since the beginning of formal research, scholars use many different methods for classifying to conceptualize leadership effectiveness such as traits of leaders, and levels of analysis (Yukl, 2012). Such a categorization puts leadership types in a distinguishable form (Stentz et al., 2012). However, Northouse (2019) states that, in general terms, five basic approaches have emerged. These approaches can be divided into trait theories, behavioral approaches, situational and contingency approaches, charismatic–inspirational models—“heroic”, post heroic models (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). On the other hand, leadership theories can also be categorized under four main categories which are namely, trait approach period (before 1940), behavior approach period (1940-1960), contingency approach period (1960-1980), new leadership approaches period (1980) (Yeşil, 2016). However, in this chapter, it will be reviewed the four main periods in turn and then move on to servant leadership.

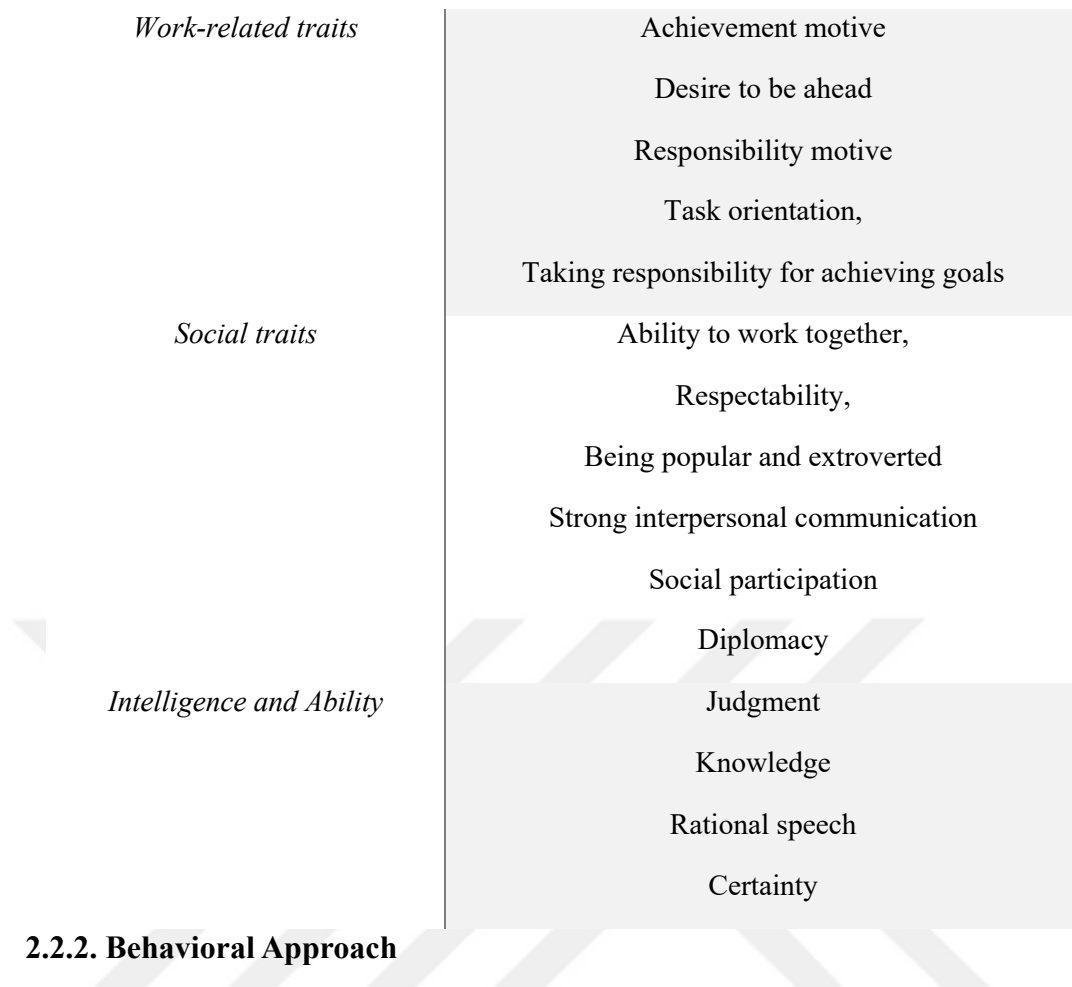
2.2.1 From the Great Man to Traits Theory

The Great Man Theory is often associated with Thomas Carlyle who argued God specially chooses great men to elevate the existence of humanity (Spector, 2016). Carlyle, in particular, created a public opinion due to his lectures in the 1840s and this theory took shape in this way (Spector, 2016). Especially, the idea that it was the leaders who created the stage of history was an important basis for this theory for the people of the time (Karsantik, 2021). In that way, Great Man Theory is known as one of the oldest leadership theories in the history (Karsantik, 2021). However, in today's narrative, scholars usually either ignore to mention this theory or mention it only when describing the background of the behavioral approach. Because the great man theory is an expression of belief rather than a theory (Spector, 2016).

Later on, research attentions shifted to the distinctive traits of ‘great’ leaders. Because while the trait is a type of usual behavior, thought and emotion, it is a structure that does not change much in the person. In that way, the trait approach showed up as first systematic attempt to analyze leadership studies by scholars (Northouse, 2019). Traits theory, in which the idea that leaders are born, was grounded to specify what the traits and personal qualities that distinguished leaders from followers (Alimo-Metcalf, 2013). The main idea was that some people become leaders because they have different characteristics than their followers. In addition to personality traits, researchers have also categorized traits such as social traits, work-related traits, physical traits, intelligence, and ability of leaders, as in the table below.

Table 1. Dimensions of Traits, Adopted from Güney (2021)

<i>Dimensions of Traits</i>	
<i>Personality</i>	Traits being creative. Being open-minded Honesty Ethical behavior
<i>Physical traits</i>	To be active Being energetic



After the empirical inconsistencies in the traits approach regarding leaders do not necessarily show the same traits, scholars have paid attention to how leaders behave (Harrison, 2017). Behavioral approach attempts to identify the behavior responsible to be able effective for leadership. Therefore, scholars started to examine leadership in terms of behavior. Behavioral theory differs from the traits approach in three aspects (Ergun-Özler, 2013). First, it examines the nature of leaders by revealing their behavior. Secondly, it identifies effective leadership behaviors that leaders demonstrate and enables them to be taught to others by training. Thirdly, it makes the interaction between leaders' behavior and followers' interaction observable. In other words, it can reveal the relationship between leader and follower.

On the basis of all these points of divergence, in this approach, both relationship and task behaviors types emerge (Northouse, 2019). Therefore, the main purpose of the behavioral approach is to examine how leaders combine task behaviors and relationship behaviors by influencing their followers to achieve a goal (Northouse, 2019). In this respect, it has made a valuable contribution to the field by both expanding behaviors in the leaders-followers

relationship and making distinctions between task-behavior and relational-behavior (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013).

While this approach does not show how leadership behaviors relate to performance, it has not become universal style (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). Nevertheless, several scholars have made important contributions to the development of behavioral theories. Especially with the research climate that developed starting from the late 1930s, many theories and approaches have found a response in the management literature.

2.2.3. Kurt Lewin Studies

Kurt Lewin, considered the founder of social psychology, studied leadership at the University of Iowa in 1939 with Ron Lippitt and Robert White. In these studies, Kurt Lewin divided them into two groups and placed an authoritarian leader in one group and a leader with democratic behaviors in the other group (Billig, 2015). According to these leadership types, authoritarian leaders have an approach in which all decisions and courses of action are determined by themselves, while democratic leaders create an environment in which the ideas of the group are taken into consideration. After reporting the results of the first experiment, he tested a third type of leadership: the laissez-faire style (Billig, 2015). In the laissez-faire style, leaders have complete freedom in individual and group decisions and are not involved in the process. After the inclusion of laissez-faire leadership, each group experienced every leadership style. As a result of all the studies, Kurt Lewin and his colleagues found that democratic leadership was the most effective type of leadership in the long run (Lewin et al., 1939).

2.2.4. Ohio State University Leadership Studies

An Ohio State University bureau conducted studies between 1945 and 1950 to investigate the dimensions associated with leadership roles. As a result of all these studies, the dimensions were grouped into two structures that stand out as '*initiating structure*' and '*consideration*' styles (Northouse, 2019). Initiating structure involves the leader organizing his/her and followers' roles in such a way that tasks are managed appropriately. Consideration involves developing mutual trust with followers. In this way, it aims to develop followers' self-efficacy in completing their tasks appropriately (Anderson & Sun, 2017).

2.2.5. University of Michigan Leadership Studies

The University of Michigan studies aimed to develop dimensions that could explain and classify leadership behaviors. However, studies focused on two types of leadership orientation: employee orientation and production orientation (Northouse, 2019). Employee orientation is a leadership behavior that approaches employees on the basis of strong human relationships. On the other hand, production orientation includes leadership behaviors that focus on the technical and production aspects of work (Northouse, 2019). However, unlike the Ohio studies, these studies conceptualized worker and production orientations as opposite ends of a single continuum (Northouse, 2019).

2.2.6. Contingency Approach

In areas where the traits and behavioral approach were insufficient in terms of some issues such as not being universal style, the contingency approach began to come to the fore after the 1950s. Especially after the emergence of the contingency theory, leadership started to be discussed as an abstract concept rather than a physical model (Yeşil, 2016). The main idea in this approach is that there is no single type of leadership style that is suitable in all situations (Yeşil, 2016; Northouse, 2019). That is, it is theoretically argued that different types of leadership are required in different situations (Northouse, 2019). In this respect, leadership studies have started to take place on a more contextual basis.

2.2.7. New Leadership Approaches

Characteristics traits and leadership styles of leaders can directly impact the performance, attributes, and behavior of employees at the individual and team levels, and also impact firm performance, and firm innovation at the organizational level. Leadership, for example, can ensure high performance through proper team development (Wing, 2005), while creating the structural elements that lead to the achievement of performance objectives regarding organizational strategies (Overstreet et al., 2014). Here, a leader who does not have a high hierarchy and tries to add value to the employees, and a leader who is ready to help employees is important. New types of leadership have emerged and developed that prioritize the development of employees, coach employees, serve them, pay attention to ethical boundaries, or lead them from a remote location. All these leadership types are separate

representations of new types of leadership in a contemporary world. Since this study focuses only on leadership that serves employees, the next section will focus only on servant leadership.

2.3. What is servanthood and Who is a servant leader?

Servant is a word that comes from the Greek word "*diakonien*" and means to serve (S. Taylor, 2013). It is a concept dating back to the 1200s, which etymologically means to serve a person who is superior to oneself in order to implement an order or task (Harper, n.d.). However, this kind of service is centered around the obligation of followers to serve their leader. In such a situation the leader has no responsibility towards his subordinates and must always be served. In the comprehensive view, as a concept of leadership, which has been applied, reviewed, criticized, and studied in various fields since ancient times, and as an actional construct, is defined as directing toward common goals between the leader and his or her subordinates (Northouse, 2019). With such definitions, the servant as a concept and leadership brings about a completely different structure. In this sense, servant leadership, first introduced by Greenleaf in his book "*Servant as a Leader*" in the 1970s has a top-down hierarchy in the workplace rather than a bottom-up one. In other words, it is a type of leadership in which followers gain importance and mutual value is produced in the workplaces.

Herman Hesse's novel *Journey to the East* was an important inspiration for Greenleaf for servant leadership (Bass & Bass, 2008; Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010; Kumar, 2018). The book shows how the group breaks up after the disappearance of Leo, who took care of the day-to-day affairs and the well-being of the group. After the group breaks up, it turns out that Leo was actually the spiritual guide and leader of the group (Bass & Bass, 2008; Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). This narrative, in turn, inspired Greenleaf that the servant and the leader could be combined in the same person (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010).

Servant leadership goes through a number of processes while it occurs. As Greenleaf explicitly explained, "*It begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first*" and "*then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead.*" (Greenleaf, 1970, p. 6). However, the important point here is that what Greenleaf describes as a servant leader is "naturally" present which comes from inside of leader and differentiates it from other types of leadership. Consequently, he defines this natural servant exactly as "*who is servant-first*" and states that

this feature is more likely to respond to needs than the leader-first (Greenleaf, 1970, p. 8). However, there is a view that non-natural servant leaders who have been shaped by their past experiences and have acquired the practices of servant leader over the years can also be servants (Claar et al., 2014). Therefore, it is a leadership style that can include both natural and an acquired feature for the leader.

Servant leadership is seen as very similar to ethical leadership and transformational leadership on the basis of ethics and values (Zarei et al., 2022). Ethical leadership is defined as the display of normatively appropriate behavior in personnel actions and interpersonal relationships (Brown et al., 2005). Ethical leadership therefore has a set of ethical codes that include treating employees fairly, listening to them and caring for them (Brown et al., 2005; Zarei et al., 2022). On the other hand, transformational leadership prioritizes the development of followers (Bass, 1990). Servant leadership is therefore similar to transformational leadership in terms of developing its followers (Zarei et al., 2022). In addition, according to Liden et al. (2008) there is a correlation between servant leadership and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). However, at the individual level, servant leadership is distinguished from both transformational leadership and LMX by its potential to uniquely explain community citizenship, in-role performance, and organizational commitment (Liden et al., 2008).

2.3.1. Servant Leadership in Organizations

Today, it is seen that for-profit and not-for-profit organizations are seeing a shift from autocratic and traditional forms of leadership to more diverse forms that encourage collaboration (Spears, 2010b). In other words, the perspective on good leadership has shifted from hierarchically oriented and heroic leadership styles to leaders who connect with other people, prioritize collaboration and have ethical behaviors (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). In today's world, leaders who are involved in scandals, make wrong decisions or do not listen to their followers have a negative impact on ethical codes and values in the workplace (Flint & Grayce, 2013; Kumar, 2018). Followers therefore need leaders who can respond to their needs, and servant leadership prioritizes the needs of others while having all the positive values needed for this, such as love, compassion, etc. (Kumar, 2018). The desirable demand for more ethical and people-oriented management may be something that organizations need through servant

leadership (van Dierendonck, 2011). Because leadership is more recognized as people "doing with" others rather than "doing to" others (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013).

Servant leadership is a type of leadership that benefits organizations by developing and engaging employees (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). Although effectiveness is seen as the most fundamental element for leaders in organizations, servant leadership has a very important potential as it emphasizes the ideal of service to followers (van Dierendonck, 2011). At this point, servant leadership is seen as paradoxical because of that it is a type of leadership that both has the power to influence its followers and prioritizes serving its followers (Harrison, 2017; Norhouse, 2019). While Norhouse (2019) asks the question of how a leader can serve and influence at the same time, he states that servant leadership offers a different perspective from other leadership approaches. Servant leadership, which first emerged on based on ethical and altruistic orientations to foremost the idea of serving followers (Greenleaf, 1977), is a holistic leadership approach that includes various dimensions such as relational, ethical, emotional and spiritual (Eva et al., 2019). Moreover, a servant leader takes a holistic approach to work, wants to foster a sense of community and wants power to be shared in decision-making processes (Spears, 2010b). It therefore gives the impression of being very consistent with today's understanding of good leadership.

2.3.3. Historical Development and Explicit Characteristics of SL

Servant leadership studies have generally been conducted in three phases (Eva et al., 2019). The first stage is the conceptualization of servant leadership based on the work of Greenleaf (1970). After servant leadership was established as a concept, there were attempts to try to measure it and then the testing relationship between servant leadership and its outcomes came to the fore. The third phase, which is currently ongoing today, is observed through more sophisticated models to understand the antecedents, successors, mediating mechanisms, and boundary conditions of servant leadership (Eva et al., 2019). This section will first describe the dimensions of servant leader characterization in the literature. Then the complex models of servant leadership will be presented.

With the conceptualization of servant leadership and its use in articles by academics, it has become a widespread and proven success leadership theory (Flint & Grayce, 2013).

However, who exactly is a servant leader and what kind of characteristics he/she possesses has been a subject of debate in various periods. However, only the dimensions of spears, van Dierendock and Liden (2008) will be analyzed in this section.

Accordingly, Spears (2010a, 2010b) lists the 10 characteristics of servant leadership for people who are meeting a servant leader for the first time.

1. *Listening*: For the Servant Leader, listening is one of the most fundamental characteristics, as well as in other forms of leadership. In particular, Servant Leader actively tries to listen to what is being said and what is not being said.
2. *Empathy*: People want to be recognized for their unique spirit. the most successful Servant Leader is one who has empathy for his or her followers. therefore, the Servant Leader must understand others and strive to empathize with them.
3. *Healing*: Heal means helping people “*to make whole*”. Most people are spiritually broken and can experience emotional sadness. The servant leaders heal their followers as they come into contact with inspire and connect with them.
4. *Awareness*: Awareness involves the servant leaders being highly sensitive and understanding of their social, physical, and political environment, while also being aware of one's own impact.
5. *Persuasion*: Persuasion can be defined as persuading followers rather than following a hierarchical chain of command. The leader should be kind and treat followers without judging others.
6. *Conceptualization*: Conceptualization is important for thinking beyond everyday realities. Being able to look at an organization or a problem in a conceptualizing way can be very useful for followers. Servant leaders, on the other hand, need to strike a balance between everyday tasks and the conceptual view.
7. *Foresight*: Servant leaders can anticipate the potential benefits and harms of events. They learn from the past, analyze the current time period well and anticipate potential future scenarios.
8. *Stewardship*: Servant leaders assume first a commitment to serving the needs of their followers. It is open to ideas and avoids controlling events.
9. *Commitment to the growth of people*: The servant leader is closely concerned with the development of everyone in the organization. He or she knows that it is his or

her duty to do all he or she can to nurture the personal, professional, and spiritual development of employees.

10. *Building Community*: Building community is a characteristic that the servant leaders consider important. They try to create a sense of unity and solidarity among the members, which develops from common interests. It endeavors to support activities outside of work.

Another study is conducted by Liden et al. (2008) in order to aggregate the dimensions of servant leadership which have a scattered structure. In this context, they defined 9 dimensions related to the characteristics of servant leadership. In detail.

1. *Emotional Healing*: It is defined as sensitivity to the concerns of others.
2. *Creating Value for the Community*: To have an intimate behavior and consciousness to help
3. *Conceptual Skills*: Having knowledge of the organization and the tasks at hand to influence followers
4. *Empowering*: Empowering and supporting followers through their issues.
5. *Helping Subordinates Grow and Succeed*: To help others, especially the career development of followers.
6. *Putting Subordinated First*: Making statements or using actions to indicate that meeting the business needs of their followers is a priority
7. *Behaving Ethically*: Being open, honest, and fair to others
8. *Relationship*: Make an effort to understand other people in the organization as the basis for building long-term relationships
9. *Servanthood*: A way of being whose priority is always to serve others

In these ways, the servant leader both prefers to put his followers first and impact in them a positive spirit. However, from another perspective, van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) defined servant leadership with 8 dimensions. In detail.

1. *Empowerment*: This dimension seeks to empower followers with personal power. Servant leader wants to strengthen followers' intrinsic values, as in the previously introduced characteristics.

2. *Accountability*: It involves assigning responsibility for results at work to individuals and teams.
3. *Standing Back*: It reflects the aim to prioritize followers as the recipients of achievements and rewards.
4. *Humility*: It stems from an accurate understanding of the followers' strengths and weaknesses.
5. *Authenticity*: To take a close interest in employees and make them feel part of the organization
6. *Courage*: It represents self-confidence in innovation and change
7. *Interpersonal Acceptance*: It includes acceptance and forgiveness of followers' mistakes.
8. *Stewardship*: Acts in the common interest. Open to ideas as in the dimension introduced earlier

Finally, van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) argued that these eight dimensions are the best representations of servant leadership and based on this, they conducted a scale study.

2.4. Servant Leadership Models

There are many models that try to examine servant leadership as a phenomenon and explain it in more detail. Since there are many studies that try to explain servant leadership with interrelated models, we will only include some of them here.

2.4.1. Patterson's Servant Leadership Model

Patterson, (2003) evaluates servant leadership in the context of a virtuous theory. Patterson (2003), creating a context for servant leadership of virtue going back to Aristotle, argues that it processes encompasses 7 virtuous constructs. These are namely (a) *Leader's agapao love*, (b) *humility*, (c) *altruism*, (d) *vision*, (e) *trust*, (f) *empowerment*, and (g) *service* as in the figure 1. Agapao essentially means "*it a sense of doing the right thing at the right time for the right reason*" (B. E. Winston, 2008). Patterson (2003) starts his model with the leader's agapao because a leader must first of all have this feeling. Only in this way can leaders focus on empowering individuals with the right service.

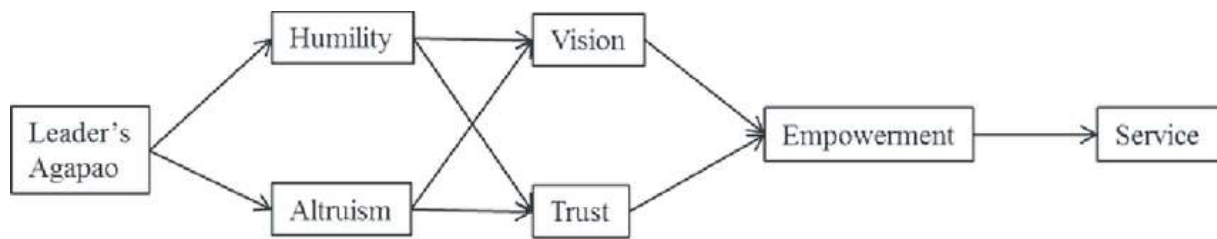


Figure 1. Patterson's Model

Source (Patterson, 2003)

2.4.2. Winston's Servant Leadership Model

Patterson's work has been a very influential model for further studies. In particular, the model proposed by her has been repeatedly analyzed and improved by further researchers. In this sense, Winston (2003) model developed Patterson's model in the context of dyadic interaction. As an example, Winston (2003) modeled it as it started from leader to follower and then it turns from follower to leader in flow as in the figure 2.

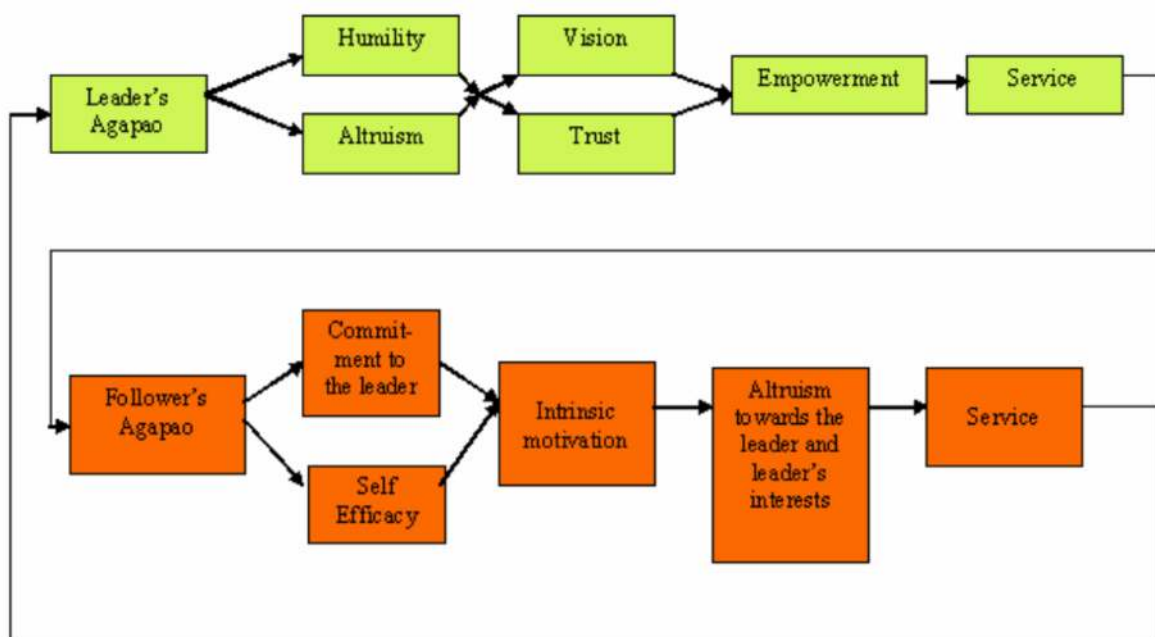


Figure 2. Winston's Model

Source (Winston, 2003)

2.4.3. Cerff & Winston's Servant Leadership Model

Another extender is the model of Cerff & Winston (2006). In this model, they added hope to the Patterson's servant leadership model (2003) and stated that hope is important for both leaders and followers as in the figure 3 (Cerff & Winston, 2006).

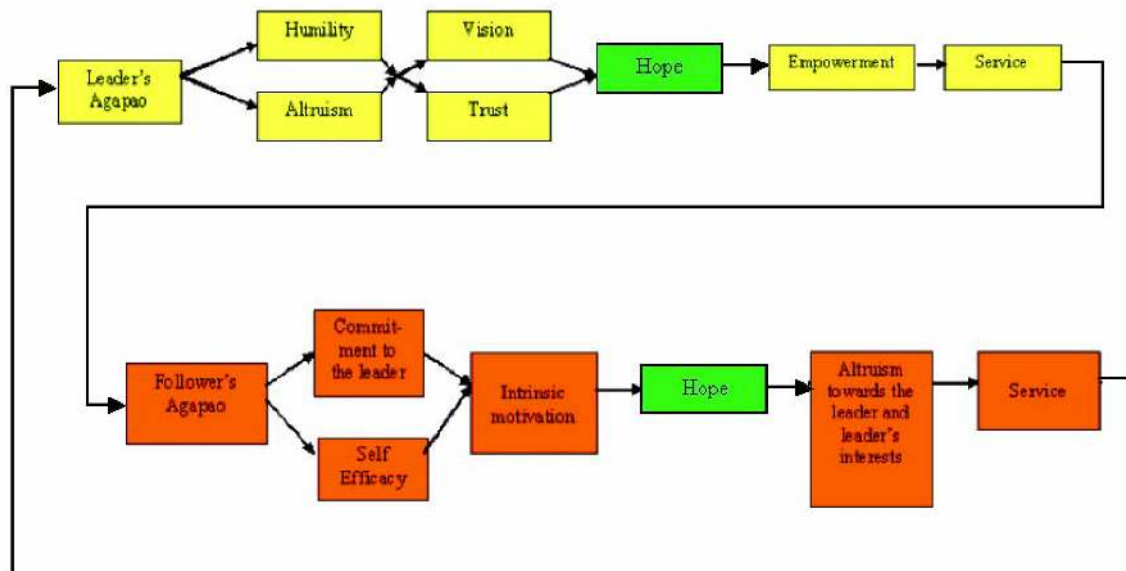


Figure 3. Cerff & Winston's Model
(Cerff & Winston, 2006)

2.4.4. Page and Wong's Servant Leadership Model

Another different structure in servant leadership models is Wong & Page's (2000) model. This model is composed of concentric circles and has a total of four different dimensions. These dimensions are listed as *character*, *relationship*, *leadership task*, and *leadership process*, respectively. At the center of these circles is the heart of the leader.

The primary goal of the servant leaders is to gratify, serve and meet the needs of their followers. Yet having a service-oriented personality may not always be enough. This is why the servant leaders must also have such a purpose at their hearts. In this context, the heart is at the center of the concentric circles model which constructed by Wong & Page's (2000).

This heart is defined by the authors as “*servant heart*”. In more detail, it is explained as “*At the very heart of servant-leadership is the genuine desire to serve others for the common good*” (Wong & Page, 2000). Then comes the character. This is the fundamental attitude of servanthood that influences how leaders work with their followers and how they fulfill their leadership role (Wong & Page, 2000).

Another dimension is the relationship dimension. The human resource is the main thing here and the servant leader focuses on developing others. The third layer is the leadership task and in this dimension leaders are generally concerned with ensuring efficiency and achieving success. The last layer is the process. It includes the ability of leaders to develop a flexible, efficient, and open model for getting things done.

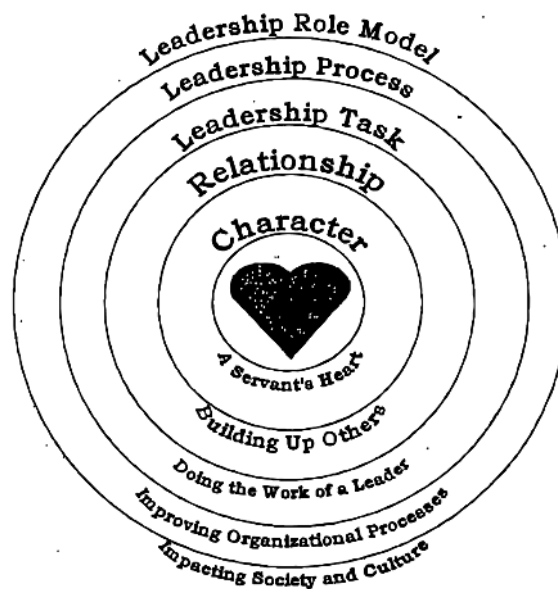


Figure 4. Page & Wong’s Model

Source (Page & Wong, 2000)

2.4.5. van Dierendonck’s Servant Leadership Model

Dierendonck's (2011) model emphasizes six key characteristics of servant leadership. Basically, he states that leaders who combine the need to serve with leadership motivation behave as servant leaders (van Dierendonck, 2011). In addition to the motivation dimension, it

has been extended to both culture and individual characteristics. According to Dierendonck (2011), the servant leader is primarily empowering and developing his/her followers. Likewise, he/she is expected to demonstrate humility, authenticity, interpersonal acceptance, providing direction, stewardship in his/her management. Once all these dimensions are in place, mediating processes such as a high-quality dyadic relationship between follower and leader, justice and fairness, positive work attitudes, performance, and corporate social responsibility should also be present.

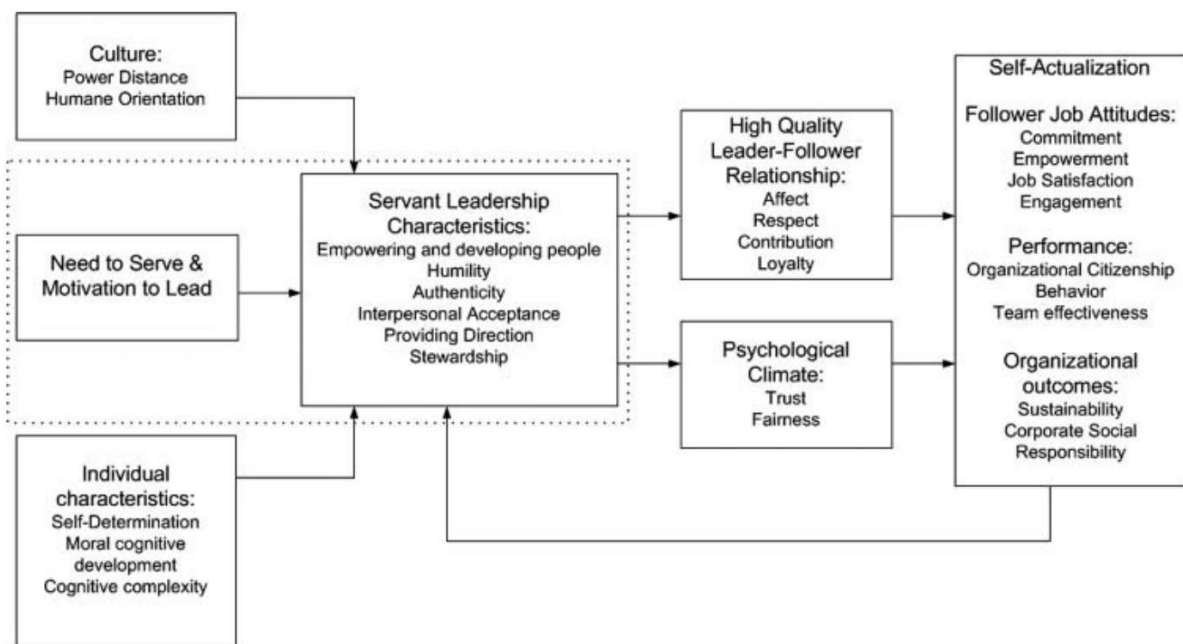


Figure 5. van Dierendonck's Model

Source (van Dierendonck, 2011)

2.5. From the Meaning and its Presence in the Work: Meaningful Work

2.5.1. Need for Meaning

Meaning in life is a fundamental need for individuals and has long been the mystery of human life (King & Hicks, 2021; Shafaei & Nejati, 2023). Therefore, the curiosity about what makes life meaningful has always attracted people throughout history, and many philosophers have tried to answer this question (R. Taylor, 2007). This curiosity appears as three questions that follow each other when the question of meaning is addressed among people; “*What are you*

talking about?", *"What is the meaning of life?"* and *"Is life actually meaningful?"* (Park, 2017; R. Taylor, 2007).

These curious questions have led to many philosophical inquiries, as well as various quests among people about what it means to live. Meaning is at the core of everyone's existence (Park 2017) because of that it is the most crucial concern of everyone's lives. At this point, however, dilemmas arise as to whether meaning is related to life itself or whether it is subjective for the individuals. In this dilemma, a subjective assessment of the search for meaning brings meaning to a more tractable (King & Hicks, 2021). In terms of traceability, meaning can be defined as *"a shared mental representation of possible relationships among things, relationships, and events"* (Mackenzie & Baumeister, 2014).

In order for the mental representation of possible relations to be possible, individuals need intrinsic motivation. As a matter of fact, in current business studies, motivation is considered as predictor of meaning at work (Autin et al., 2022; Frankl, 2023), or are taken together to better understand meaningful work (Lips-Wiersma & Wright, 2012). However, Frankl, who initiated scientific studies on meaning, considers meaning together with intrinsic motivation and states that the basic motivation of life is the search for meaning for individuals (2023, p. 105). The meaning that concerns individuals is also seen as highly subjective as it is limited to individuals. Nevertheless, empirical research has identified various events, responsibilities or activities that can increase or decrease the perception of meaning in individuals.

In the debate on meaning, the development around the two mainstream works of Maslow and Frankl seems important. At this point, Maslow divided human needs into certain categories and defined them as things that need to be fulfilled respectively. Individuals can only reach the point of self-actualization when they fulfill all of these needs. The lowest level leading to self-actualization is physiological needs. These include the basic needs of the human body, such as sleep, healthy metabolism, breathing, etc. The second level is security. Security refers to the security of possessions, such as being moral, living with a family, and the security of one's possessions. These two levels are the elements that cover the basic needs of human beings in general. So, they are categorized as basic needs. The next step is the social belonging environment, such as friendship. This circle, called affection and belonging, is the third step.

This environment, called love and belongingness, is the third step. The next step is a dimension referred to as esteem, which includes elements such as having self-esteem, self-confidence, and being respected by others in the context of one's environment. These two steps deal with the elements of psychological needs. This step includes basic needs that are important for the individual's own psychological world. The place after this dimension is the last step: self-actualization. At this stage, individuals have reached their potential. They are virtuous, accept the truth, do not harbor prejudices against others and are very sincere towards them, and are solvent in the face of any problem (Maslow & Lewis, 1987). In conclusion, Maslow characterizes the search for meaning as a human need (Schwartz, 2007 as cited from Frémeaux & Pavageau, 2022).

Another mainstream work, on the other hand, is the work of Frankl mentioned earlier. Especially, the scientific study of meaning, in fact, began after the publication of Frankl's inspiring book [2023 (1946)] "*Man's Search for Meaning*". In essence, this book argues that when people have meaning, they are more willing to live and more able to resist various difficulties in their lives. It is on this basis that Frankl developed the logotherapy method of finding meanings to connect people to life. However, the first wave of this meaning research focused on people's search for concrete meaning beyond physical, psychological and social needs, based on Frankl's theory of motivation (von Devivere, 2018). Meaning is a motivation that emerges in the minds of individuals and in their souls. Individuals hold on to life as long as they have meaning and can resist various difficulties as long as they have meaning. Therefore, meaning is positioned as a physical need for people.

2.5.2. Meaning of Work

Individuals are actively searching for meaning in their lives (Frankl, 2023; Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). For people who spend most of their time at work, work has a central position in people's search for meaning (Michaelson et al., 2014). Moreover, research shows that for employees, meaning in their work takes precedence over many other things, such as salary and working hours (Bailey & Madden, 2016). That is, the effort to make sense of the work can come before many needs for individuals.

Studies on the meaning of work is spread over a very broad perspective ranging from existentialist perspectives to positive psychology perspectives (Bendassolli et al., 2015). In the last decade, a body of research has made an effort to conceptualize and theorize meaningfulness as a distinct phenomenon (Lepisto, 2022). Although meaningfulness is associated with various disciplines and has been tried to be grounded in management theories, it finds its roots in the humanities (Lips-Wiersma & Wright, 2012). Because when a person experiences work as meaningful, it is an individual and subjective experience of the existential significance or purpose of work (Lips-Wiersma & Wright, 2012).

The process by which employees make sense of their work is a very dynamic issue that can be addressed from various perspectives. Meaningfulness in work, for instance, is experienced when a person feels worthwhile and valuable (von Devivere, 2018, p. 226). On the other hand, meaningfulness at work includes meeting the basic needs of the individual self, such as experiencing being part of a community and strengthening individual identity (von Devivere, 2018, p. 226). That is, meaning can be constructed in the workplace in the same way that meaning for individuals can be constructed both from within his/her social environment and through norms (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). However, because individuals vary, the meaning attributed to a work environment, or a job may vary both between individuals and across historical and physical contexts (Pratt & Ashforth, 2003). Therefore, the fact that meaning may differ in each individual has caused scholars working in this field to define meaning in the workplace in different ways. Before defining meaning in the workplace, it is necessary to determine the boundaries of the concepts of meaning or meaningfulness.

Meaning and meaningfulness are concepts that can be confused with each other. Therefore, the important point that is often overlooked in the literature is the definitions of meaning and meaningfulness (Rosso et al., 2010). From this point of view, the fact that a job has a specific meaning does not mean that the work is meaningful for individuals, whereas meaningfulness refers to the amount of importance that something carries for an individual. Meaning, on the other hand, represents how much meaning one's work corresponds to in one's own life (Rosso et al., 2010). In this respect, as a term, meaning of work broadly use to encompass concepts of meaning and meaningfulness, which are confused with each other (Rosso et al., 2010).

Pratt and Ashforth (2003) argue that there is no universal conception of meaning in the sense that everyone sees a task as meaningful for the same reasons. As a recent review article reveals, there is no consensus on how to define meaningful work, and so there are 28 different scales used to measure meaningful work (Bailey et al., 2018). This situation causes scholars to define meaning in their studies according to their own research questions or contexts. In doing so, the literature adheres to the most appropriate approach to the meaningfulness of work, which is through the components of meaningful work (Mitra & Buzzanell, 2017). Hence, most of the studies in the literature have either avoided defining meaningful work itself or have made a reductionist definition as a concept that is subjective to the individual (Bailey et al., 2018).

Nevertheless, studies show that there are clustering definitions and scales in the literature. According to Jitske M. C. Both-Nwabuwe et al. (2017), there are 14 different definitions of meaningful work in the literature. These definitions are generally differentiated in 4 different contexts. These 4 categories are respectively.

- (1) *Positive significance or purpose* is the most comprehensive category on meaningful work, focusing on the transmission of meaning through the purpose of the work.
- (2) *Constituents of meaningful work* includes the components that constitute meaningful work.
- (3) *Fit* focuses on the match between the individual and the work.
- (4) *Fulfillment* is the category focused on meeting a specific need.

This diversity in definitions of meaningful work has also led to diversity in the ways in which meaningful work is addressed. Like the categories in the definitions, there is a categorization in the dimension of meaningful work. Bailey and her colleagues (2018) identified six different themes in this context. These are categorized as,

- 1- *Meaningful work as a psychological state*: It adapted from Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model. In this model, meaningfulness was positioned between job design and its outcomes as psychological states. Later, meaningful work studies were positioned and developed within the job Characteristics model.

- 2- *Meaningfulness within the workplace spirituality literature*: In the workplace spirituality literature, meaningfulness is considered as the emotional dimension that is transferred to employees within a community. In this category, which emerged from the theoretical work of Ashmos and Duchon (2000), individuals are able to fulfill their spiritual needs in this way, and thus, can develop themselves.
- 3- *Meaningfulness within the humanities tradition*: The root of meaningfulness in the humanities can be found in the work of Frankl and Maslow. The main distinctive difference here is that meaning is an inherent drive for humans (Lips-Wiersma & Morris, 2009). That is, studies in this field have addressed meaningfulness separately from the literature on the job, referring to the internal state of the individual.
- 4- *Meaningfulness as a multifaceted eudaimonic psychological state*: The third perspective has benefited from and differentiated itself from the perspectives of positive psychology and the spirituality and humanities perspectives (Bailey et al., 2018). There are two main currents that have emerged in this context. The first is Steger et al. (2012) eudaimonic psychological state which include growth- and purpose-oriented. The second is Bunderson & Thompson's (2009) notion of callings. They have constructed meaningful work with the notion of callings. They also divided it into two by attributing it to two basic characteristics, namely, work that is important and meaningful to the individual and work that makes a difference in the world (Bailey et al., 2018).
- 5- *Meaningfulness as occupation-specific*: Studies in this context have examined meaningful work around specific occupations.
- 6- *Others*: Others have used meaningful work differently from all the above definitions.

All these studies have shown that a highly disorganized structure appears in the study of meaning. However, in 2010, Rosso et al. who tracing the literature on employees' search for meaning in their work across disciplines such as sociology, psychology, and philosophy, highlighted this scattered literature on meaningful work and aimed to bring a new structure to the literature and move it forward. In this context, they identified two main issues: "where the meaning of work comes from (i.e., sources of meaning) and how work becomes meaningful (i.e., underlying psychological and social mechanisms)". Again, as a result, in their analysis of the sources of work meaning, they identified four different sources: "self, others, work context and spiritual life". They thus reconfigured meaningful work as a multidimensional construct in accordance with its nature. On the other hand, they indicated the need for scales that represent

the complex interplay of factors that contribute to the meaning employees give to their work (Rosso).

In their study, Bailey et al. (2019) found that 28 different scales have been developed by various researchers to measure meaningful work. Many studies that have measured meaningful work have ignored various dimensions of meaningful work and measured it (Both-Nwabuwe et al., 2017). However, Nwabuwe et al. (2017) found that the two scales introduced as Lips-Wiersma and Wright's (2012) CMWS (the Comprehensive Meaningful Work Scale) and Bendassolli et al.'s (2015) MWS (the Meaningful Work Scale) are consistent with the characteristics that contribute to the fit between the individual and the job. Specifically, they argued that the CMWS is better suited to explain the complex interplay between dimensions and the relationships with antecedents and outcomes. Hence, this study both uses the definition of meaningful work proposed by Lips-Wiersma as a construct and considers the scale belonging to the same construct. That is, considering all the categories and definitions, in this study meaningfulness will be addressed in the theme of *humanities tradition* and in the category *positive significance or purpose*.

As can be inferred from all the definitions and themes, meaning at work is something that comes from the grassroots, that is, from individuals themselves (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2022). It is therefore seen as something subjective and differentiated between individuals. In this sense, meaning can be constructed either in terms of the individual's own goals and ideas or in the context of the work that individuals do (Bailey & Madden, 2016). For example, actions such as having a high level of awareness and engaging in dialog with others can increase individuals' meaning perception (Lips-Wiersma et al., 2022; Lysova et al., 2022). In other words, meaning can be highly influenced by the individual's interaction within and with the environment. At this point, Lips-Wiersma and Wright (2012) conceptualized four dimensions of meaningful work which are *developing and becoming self*, *unity with others*, *service to others*, and *expressing full potential*. The frame that covers these four dimensions includes *inspiration* on the inner side and *reality* on the outer frame. All these dimensions are positioned on the axis of *being/doing and self/others* (figure 6).

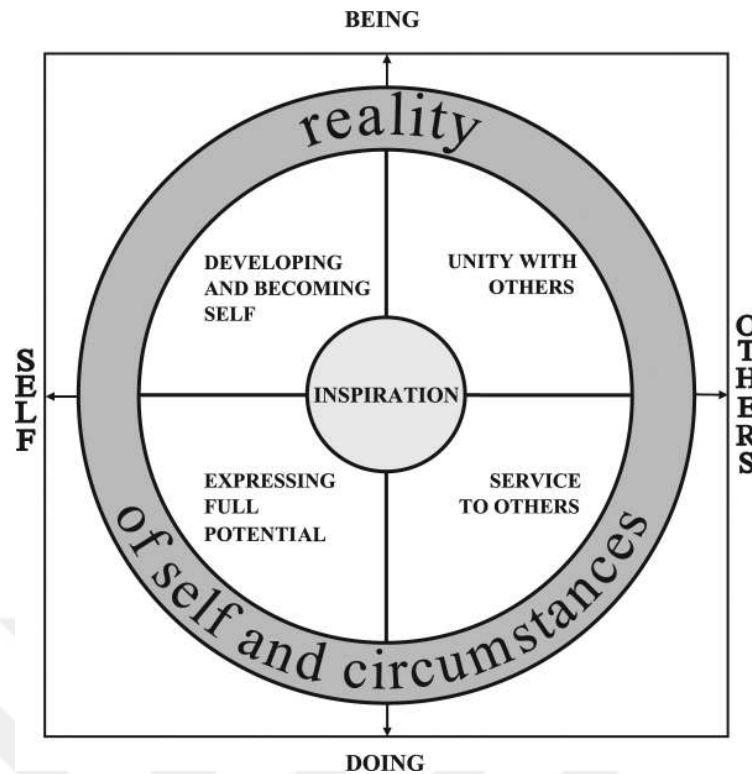


Figure 6. Meaningful Work Model

Source (Lips-Wiersma and Wrigt, 2012)

Being/Doing and Self/Others: It is very important for an individual at work to maintain a balance between meeting his/her own needs (*self*) and meeting the needs of *others* as well as the need for *being* and the need to do what he/she *doing*. Lips-Wiersma et al. (2022) found that an imbalance between them can lead to a loss of meaning.

Developing the inner Self: It can be based on being a good person or being the best we can be, depending on one's own worldview.

Unity with others: This dimension represents that it would be meaningful to work with other people. Shared values here include a sense of belonging.

Service to others: It involves contributing to a community and helping to make a different world.

Expressing full potential: This dimension represents the individual's ability to reach his/her potential by displaying his/her talents and sense of achievement.

Inspiration and Reality: For people, both inspiration and reality are inherent to the structure of being. Human beings are often caught between these two dimensions.



2.6. Knowledge Hiding Behavior at Workplaces

2.6.1. Knowledge Hiding as a Construct

Knowledge is such an effective tool for organizations to achieve competitive advantage in the long term by fulfilling their functions especially in knowledge-based economy (Asrar-ul-Haq & Anwar, 2016; Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Wang & Noe, 2010). Therefore managing the knowledge is seen as a crucial instrument of various institutional functions such as value creation which is also important in interpersonal relations with all stakeholders (Farooq, 2019), strategic human resource management to improve the employees' performance (Xiao & Cooke, 2019) and so on. That is, the effectiveness and success of an organization depends on both the quality and the quantity of the knowledge that it holds (Yeboah, 2023).

Knowledge in organizations can take two different forms and dimensions. The first of these dimension is whether the knowledge is *explicit* or *tacit*; the other is related to the form of the knowledge which is whether it can be *component* or *architectural* (Shrivastava et al., 2021). In this context, while tacit knowledge is an informal learning ability that can be very difficult to articulate, and consciously access, explicit knowledge can be clear and accessed consciously, and firms can be damaged when these types of knowledge were hidden (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Magnier-Watanabe & Senoo, 2010; Shrivastava et al., 2021). Component knowledge, on the other hand, is transparent and includes information such as the specialized function held by individuals and teams (Shrivastava et al., 2021). Architectural knowledge, on the contrary, is knowledge about the organization's operations. That is, it is more about generating new knowledge (Shrivastava et al., 2021).

Managing the knowledge has a structure that includes defining the knowledge, creating the knowledge and distribution of the knowledge in the organization (Ahmad et al., 2017; Farooq, 2019). In this context, knowledge sharing is a key part of all organization (Deng & Lu, 2022) and it enables both better utilization of existing knowledge and the generation of new knowledge (Khan et al., 2023). Contrary to the advantage of sharing knowledge, the literature over the past decade has been widely debated what the consequences of hiding knowledge by actors within the organization would be (Connelly et al., 2012, 2019; Connelly & Zweig, 2015). Eventually, knowledge hiding has found its place as a new multidimensional structure in the

field of knowledge management with the work of Connelly et al. (2012) (Di Vaio et al., 2021). The definition on which the structure based is “...an intentional attempt by an individual to withhold or conceal knowledge that has been requested by another person...” (Connelly et al., 2012). With this definition, knowledge hiding represents an intentionally behavior of individuals when a knowledge is requested (Anand et al., 2020; Connelly et al., 2012). Connelly & Zweig (2015), therefore, pointed out that hiding the knowledge involves subjective evaluations of individuals.

To sum up, knowledge hiding is an individual-based behavior that involves intentionally hiding a desired piece of knowledge within an organization. Although knowledge hiding can benefit the organization in very few respects (Xiao & Cooke, 2019; Xiong et al., 2021), it is a construct that can often harm it (Garg et al., 2022). Given that accurate knowledge management provides a competitive advantage, knowledge hiding can be highly detrimental for the organizations.

2.6.2. Sub-dimensions of Knowledge Hiding

Connelly et al. (2012) proposed that there are three sub-dimensions of knowledge hiding: Evasive Hiding, Playing Dumb and Rationalized Hiding. In later studies, knowledge hiding has generally been used either by addressing these three dimensions (Usman et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2016), or by taking knowledge hiding as a negative single dimension (Fatima et al., 2021). The vast majority of studies on knowledge hiding, however, ignore the content of knowledge and focus on its behavior (Usman et al., 2022). In this respect, while many studies have addressed knowledge hiding as one single dimension (Anser et al., 2021; Bari et al., 2020), other studies have preferred to examine knowledge hiding as a multidimensional structure with its sub-dimensions (Offergelt & Venz, 2023; Usman et al., 2022), or only in its specific dimensions such as evasive hiding (Hernaus et al., 2019, 2023), playing dumb (Chaudhry et al., 2023; Li, 2022). However, knowledge hiding is a construct that has been studied at various levels of analysis and with its nomological connections (Arain et al., 2022). In this respect, it is sometimes elaborated as interpersonal to understand the individuals (Peng, 2013), sometimes bottom-up, sometimes top-down (Butt, 2019). However, in some studies, different types of behaviors such as rhetorical (Kumar Jha & Varkkey, 2018) and bullying hiding (Yuan et al., 2020) have been put forward for knowledge hiding. In this context, rhetorical knowledge hiding

is a behavior that answering to the requester with a rhetorical tone of voice and directing the question to the knowledge requester (Yang et al., 2023). On the other hand, bullying hiding is the behavior of hiding knowledge with a derogatory attitude and language in a way that harms the self-esteem of the person who is requesting the knowledge (Yang et al., 2023). Still, the above three dimensions are the most widely accepted and used in the literature (Anand et al., 2021). Of these dimensions, evasive hiding and playing dumb are usually seen as negative, while rationalized hiding can be seen as positive or non-negative (Connelly & Zweig, 2015; Usman et al., 2022).

2.6.2.1. Evasive Hiding

Evasive hiding is a behavior that occurs more often in situations where the desired knowledge is not shared incompletely or properly or give information in the opposite direction (Yang et al., 2023) to the knowledge requester. Moreover, this behavior, which may also be considered unethical, includes providing misleading information in response to a request for information. In some cases, for example, where the knowledge is quite complex, evasive hiding behavior would be higher (Connelly et al., 2012). However, it is generally defined as “*providing incomplete information, concealing core knowledge while pretending to provide the requested information*” by Usman et al. (2022).

2.6.2.2. Playing Dumb

This type of hiding involves pretending not to know the knowledge requested. In other words, it is an attempt to deceive the person requesting the knowledge. It is defined more formally as “*withholding knowledge by pretending not to have the requested knowledge*” by Usman et al. (2022). However, if employees feel that their colleagues may perceive them negatively, they may behave in evasive or rationalized hiding (Connelly et al., 2012).

2.6.2.3. Rationalized Hiding

Rationalized hiding involves expressing the hiding information in a logical way that is justified. However, it is defined more settled as “*withholding knowledge to preserve confidential knowledge*” by Usman et al. (2022). Unlike other types, rationalized hiding does not involve disruptive behavior (Connelly & Zweig, 2015). That is, this type of knowledge-

hiding behavior is more logical in firms, while employees may be more likely to exhibit this behavior unless they have strict bounds with their colleagues.

3. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Social Learning Theory

Today, Social Learning Theory (SLT) is a theory that is frequently used in educational sciences (Suryani & George, 2021), psychology (Carton et al., 2021), criminology penology (Kruis et al., 2020; Pusch, 2022), business & management studies (Ku et al., 2021; A. Wong et al., 2022) and so on. SLT is a theory that is difficult to trace its origins, was first introduced by Rotter (1960) and expanded by Bandura & Walters (1977) (Crittenden, 2005). The basic premise is that behavior is caused by both the person and the situation (Crittenden, 2005). However, Rotter (1954) argued that an individual's personality arises from the relationship between the person and the environment, and that even the individual's personal life is influential in this relationship, such as background, history, etc. That is, the experiences of individuals come to the fore here as determinant factor. In later years, Rotter's work revealed the importance of expectation. In other words, the basis on which Rotter relies is not only the quality of the goals but also the expectations or anticipation that the goals will be realized (Carton et al., 2021). However, what is important here is how the individual makes sense of the situation in the context of his/her own past or cognitive state. On the other hand, in addition to the importance of expectation in social learning processes and the intrinsic process in behavior change, Bandura added a cognitive component. Accordingly, he suggested that people learn by observing, modeling or imitating others in a social environment. This means that in a social environment, individuals will start to behave by modeling, imitating, or observing like people who have bad behavior or with good behavior. According to Bandura, humans differ from other living creatures in this respect (Türkçapar & Sargın, 2012). In all these aspects, Bandura's contribution to social learning theory is the ideas that stimuli & responses and behavior are learned from the environment through the observational learning process (McLeod, 2011).

Social learning theory states that through analyzing and modelling their environment at work, employees can develop a work behavior that matches themselves. In this regard, both coworkers and leaders are observable and modellable figures in business life. In the framework of the theoretical model, it may be possible to prevent or reduce knowledge hiding behaviors, which are like a representation of active isolation in at work, by employees modeling others in a good sense. Servant leaders can give responsibility and feedback to their employees and provide them with opportunities to learn and develop by giving value and prioritizes serving them. Finally, these behaviors can help employees feel that their work is meaningful and makes a difference. Thus, knowledge hiding behavior, specifically evasive hiding and playing dumb will be negatively affected while rationalized hiding can be expected to be positively affected. because employees who can create meaning in their work by modeling their servant leaders are more likely to work to produce more benefits. Therefore, they can avoid negative behaviors.

3.2. Knowledge Hiding and Servant Leadership

Leaders have the potential to influence employees' work behavior both by virtue of their position, and their personal power (Khan et al., 2023). Among leadership types, servant leadership (SL) influences employees by serving them in almost everything (Harrison, 2017; Khan et al., 2023; Northouse, 2019; van Dierendonck, 2011). SL involves employees in decision-making processes (Spears, 2010a) and provides them with opportunities for development and learning (Winston & Fields, 2015; Zarei et al., 2022). In addition, servant leaders both exhibit exemplary role models with their moral behaviors like ethical leaders and give importance to the development of their subordinates like transformational leadership (Zarei et al., 2022).

In addition to leadership types such as ethical leadership (Anser et al., 2021) and transformational leadership (Scuotto et al., 2022), literature illustrates that SL is also effective in reducing employees' knowledge hiding behavior (Anwaar & Jingwei, 2022; Khan et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2022; Usman et al., 2022). However, the literature has generally missed out the nature of knowledge hiding without considering its sub-dimensions (Usman et al., 2022). For this reason, the possible effect of the servant leader on the dimensions of knowledge hiding has not been adequately examined (Arain et al., 2022). Therefore, while this study considers knowledge hiding as a three-dimensional construct, we argue that SL may differently affect these sub-dimensions of knowledge hiding. Based on Social Learning Theory (Bandura & Walters, 1977), this study assumes that employees perceive SL behaviors as positive role

models. In this way, it leads employees to anticipate a reduction in their knowledge-hiding behaviors in the workplace by being influenced by the SL they emulate (Khan et al., 2023).

In the context of SLT (Bandura & Walters, 1977), employees are likely to positively adjust their negative behaviors in the workplace by modeling servant leaders. Because of the fact that SLT is an important theoretical approach to grasp the link between leaders' behaviors and their impact on employees (Zulfiqar et al., 2023), SL is likely to negatively affect employees' both playing dumb and evasive hiding behaviors. In other words, employees' evasive hiding and playing dumb behavior are more likely to decrease when they encounter with SL. Moreover, regardless of the nature of the information, whether it is confidential or not, individuals are inclined to share their knowledge with the servant leader. Since rationalized hiding is a representation of the rational behavior of individuals (Connelly et al., 2012), in return for the good behavior of the servant leader, employees are expected not to hide the knowledge that should be shared. Therefore, we expect that knowledge hiding behavior will decrease with the effect of servant leadership that will make employees feel valuable (Russell, 2001; Russell & Gregory Stone, 2002) and we embed this understanding in the actors within the organization and their behaviors through the SLT lens.

H₁: Servant Leadership is negatively related to evasive hiding behavior of employees.

H₂: Servant Leadership is negatively related to playing dumb behavior of employees.

H₃: Servant Leadership is negatively related to rationalized hiding behavior of employees.

3.3. Meaning of Work as a Mediator

Employees tend to have an emotional connection to the knowledge they possess (Pierce et al., 2001). The reason for this may be that it is a reflection of the effort they have made to acquire knowledge or the privilege that knowledge brings to individuals (Pan et al., 2016; Peng, 2013; Shrivastava et al., 2021). The emotion they feel at work can directly regulate individuals' sense of meaning. However, given the environment in which information is exchanged, hiding knowledge may unintentionally cause various damages to individuals or organizations (Serenko and Bontis, 2016; Sukumaran and Lanke, 2021).

Since servant leadership gives people courage, inspiration, and a culture of sharing knowledge (A. Bilal et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2022), it can prevent knowledge hiding. Likewise, servant leaders can create meaningfulness at work through humility, sacrifice, vision, trust and service (Bhatti et al., 2022; Spears, 2010a). That is, servant leadership is highly effective in situations such as the failure of feeling a team with the peers (Bilal et al., 2020), behaviors such as not feeling belong to the workplace (Steger, 2016), and preventing the knowledge hiding from the others in the workplace (Anwaar & Jingwei, 2022; Usman et al., 2022). The servant leader can ensure that the employees work efficiently both mentally and physically in every aspect (Chiniara & Bentein, 2016; Parris & Peachey, 2013). For example, servant leader wants to increase the internal motivation of their employees and therefore it can affect their creativity and innovative behaviors (van Dierendonck & Rook, 2010).

This apparent positive effect of servant leadership, however, may depend on the degree of meaning that individuals have. For example, the degree of meaning that individuals have connects them to their work. Therefore, employees who do not have a meaningful perception of work do not feel connected to their workplace. Therefore, for employees to refrain from engaging in knowledge hiding, they may need to perceive their work as meaningful. On the other hand, the positive effects of servant leadership can be expected to regulate employees' perceptions of meaningful work. Although meaningful work differs from each other in terms of definition and content (Magrizzos et al., 2022), the perception of servant leadership can provide a meaning construction for employees through hints to employees that their work is valuable and essential (Cai et al., 2018). Moreover, based on SLT (Bandura & Walters, 1977), this study suggests that employees can enhance their perceptions of meaning at work by modeling the behaviors of the servant leader. In this regard, when servant leadership perception creates a sense of meaning for employees, they will not find an excuse to hide the knowledge within the organization they are a part of. More specifically, trusting, altruistic, and serving behaviors of a servant leader can influence employees' perceptions of meaning, while negatively affecting employees' evasive hiding and playing dumb behaviors. On the other hand, rationalized hiding behavior represent the knowledge that needs to be hidden. Therefore, high, or low levels of meaningful work are not expected to affect rationalized hiding behavior. Overall, this study argues that the mediating effect between servant leadership and knowledge hiding may be determined by the meaning that individuals attach to their work.

H_{4a}: Employee meaningful work perceptions mediate the negative relationship between servant leadership and evasive hiding when perceived meaningful work is high.

H_{4b}: Employee meaningful work perceptions mediate the negative relationship between servant leadership and playing dumb perceived meaningful work is high.

H_{4c}: Employee meaningful work perceptions mediate the negative relationship between servant leadership and rationalized hiding perceived meaningful work is high.

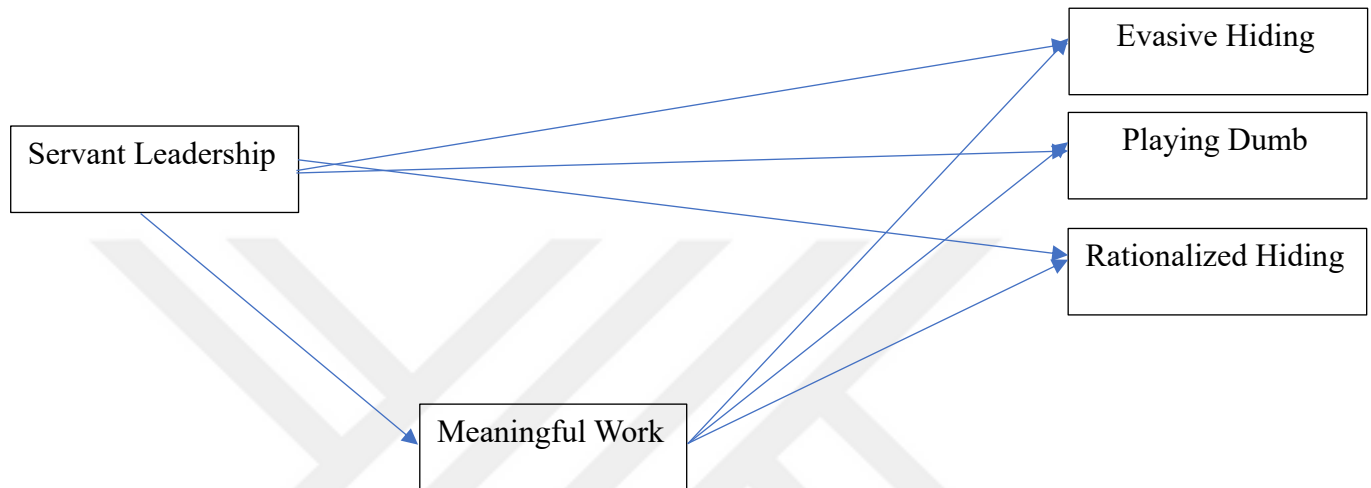


Figure 7. Theoretical Model

4. METHODOLOGY

This chapter will examine how the variables in the research model are worked with the theoretical background. In this context, the purpose of this thesis is to understand how the perception of servant leadership in organizations will affect knowledge hiding behavior in the mediator role of meaningful work. Therefore, a quantitative research design was preferred for this study. The designed research model is given in the *theoretical model*.

4.1. Sample of this Study

This thesis, which examines the relationship between servant leadership and knowledge hiding with the mediation of meaningful work, utilized employees from various sectors as the sample. By using student-recruiting sampling strategy which is seen as trustworthy and reliable (McLarty et al., 2022; Offergelt & Venz, 2023; Wheeler et al., 2014), these employees were reached via students. The questionnaires were prepared on Google Forms and delivered to employees. Accordingly, data were collected from the employees between March 1 and May 31. All these procedures were approved for data collection by the Ethics Committee of Ankara Yildirim Beyazıt University (2023-34).

The choice of online survey collection method is very convenient for employees. Especially in an online survey, respondents are claimed to feel more comfortable (Braun et al., 2021). Because those who complete the survey will remain anonymous and will be able to answer the questions more comfortably. In the form accessed by the participants, it was stated that there were no right or wrong answers in the study, and it was also written that their answers would remain confidential. Therefore, respondents were informed that the answers will be kept confidential, and they can be more comfortable answering the questions.

A total of 635 employees were reached during the data collection process. When the collected data were analyzed in detail, a total of 26 questionnaires were excluded from the sample. Since the targeted sample was employees, the questionnaire completed by 11 part-time working students was excluded from the analysis. The remaining 15 questionnaires were found to be inappropriate due to the random filling of the survey questions and not included in the

evaluation. Finally, this study reached a total of 605 participants. In the next section, demographic information of the participants will be given in detail.

4.1.1. Gender

A total of 605 samples participated in the study. Of these, 318, which corresponds to 52.56 percent, were male and 287, which corresponds to 47.44 percent, were female as shown in the table 2 below.

Table 2. Gender

<i>Gender</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Male</i>	318	52,56%
<i>Female</i>	287	47,44%
<i>Total</i>	605	100%

4.1.2. Age Distribution

30.5% of the participants in our sample are between the ages of 18-24. 42,3% of the participants are between the ages of 25-33. 12% of the participants are between the ages of 34-43. 8,4% of the participants are between the ages of 44-50. The remaining 6.6% are 50 years of age and above.

Table 3. Age

<i>Age Range</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>18-23</i>	185	30,5%
<i>24-33</i>	256	42,3%
<i>34-43</i>	73	12%
<i>44-50</i>	51	8,4%
<i>50 and above</i>	40	6,6%
<i>Total</i>	605	100%

4.1.3. Education

0.49% of the participants in our sample graduated from primary school, 0.66% from secondary school, 19.5% from high school, 65.2% from university, 12.7% from master's degree and the remaining 1.3% from PhD.

Table 4. Education

<i>Educational Background</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Elementary School</i>	3	0,49%
<i>Secondary School</i>	4	0,66%
<i>High School</i>	118	19,5%
<i>University</i>	395	65,2%
<i>Master's Degree</i>	77	12,7%
<i>PhD</i>	8	1,3%
<i>Total</i>	605	100%

4.1.4. Monthly Income

The sample for the study was collected on March 1, 2023, and May 31, 2023. Since the minimum wage in Türkiye was 8500 during this period, this income was chosen as the lower limit. Therefore, 19,83% of the respondents receive a salary of minimum wage and below. 25,9% receive a salary between 8.500 and 1200. 24,9% receive a salary between 12001 and 18000. 13,7% receive a salary between 18001 and 24000. The remaining 15,5% receive a salary above 24000.

Table 5. Income

<i>Income</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>8500 and less</i>	120	19,83%

<i>8501 – 12000</i>	157	25,9%
<i>12001 – 18000</i>	151	24,9%
<i>18001 – 24000</i>	83	13,7%
<i>24001 and above</i>	94	15,5%
<i>Total</i>	605	100%

4.2. Scales Used in this Study

The questionnaires distributed to the participants in for this research consists of two sections. The first part consisted of demographic information, while the second part included questions about the variables. While demographic information included questions such as age, gender, income, educational status, and monthly income as shown above, the second part included questions measuring knowledge hiding, servant leadership and meaningful work. Therefore, in the second part of the study, the participants were asked statements measuring three different variables.

4.2.1. Knowledge Hiding

It was introduced to the literature as a new construct in 2012 by Connelly et al. This questionnaire contains 12 questions in total and has three sub-dimensions and these dimensions are evasive hiding, playing dumb and rationalized hiding respectively. Demirkasimoglu, (2015) was the first to use the scale in her study in Türkiye. Recently, Kürü & Beğenirbaş (2023) conducted validity and reliability tests of the scale of knowledge hiding in organizations and found that the scale is reliable and valid for the future studies.

There are four questions for each sub-dimension in the scale. Every question is measured 5-point Likert scale with the lowest level being strongly disagree (1) and the highest level being strongly agree (5). Items 1-4 in the scale are questions related to Evasive Hiding. Items 5-8 in the scale are questions related to Playing Dumb. Lastly, items 9-12 in the scale questions related to Rationalized Hiding. In general, these questions are “*Agreed to help him/her but never really*

intended to”, “Said that I did not know, even though I did”, and “explained that the information is confidential and only available to people on a particular project”.

In general, this scale indicates that the higher the score, the higher the knowledge hiding behavior. The results of Cronbach tests for the sub-dimensions of knowledge hiding are given in the table 6.

4.2.2. Servant Leadership

Servant leadership was first introduced as a concept by Greenleaf in (1977). As we have discussed in the previous sections, servant leadership has been subject to various conceptual development processes and has been tested with different models. In addition, many researchers have developed various scales to measure servant leadership. These scales include various questions measuring servant leadership such as Liden et al. (2008) and van Dierendonck & Nuijten (2011) or the characteristics of servant leadership like Barbuto et al. (2014).

In the context of this study, Liden's servant leadership scale, which was firstly developed in 2008 and simplified in 2015, was preferred. The 2008 version had 28 questions in total, while the 2015 version has 7 questions in total. The 7-question scale was adapted by Kılıç & Aydın, (2016). They also conducted a validity and reliability analysis in Türkiye.

There are 7 questions in total in this scale. The scale is a 5-point Likert scale with the lowest level being strongly disagree (1) and the highest level being strongly agree (5). Some of these questions are as follows *“My leader emphasizes the importance of giving back to the community”* and *“My leader puts my best interests ahead of his/her own”*.

4.2.3. Meaningful Work

Even if there are considerable lots of meaningful work scales, these different scales do not differ from the results (Allan et al., 2019). This is due to the fact that the concept of meaningful work differs according to individuals. In this study, The Meaningful Work Scale used, developed by Lips-Wiersma & Wright (2012), which consists of 28 items and is explained by seven sub-dimensions

The related construct includes four different dimensions with two matrices. These matrices are *Self/Others* and *Being/Doing* respectively. This construct was considered appropriate for use with the variables of servant leadership and knowledge hiding in the research model.

There are 28 questions in total in the questionnaire applied to the participants. These questions are in a 5-point Likert format, with the lowest being strongly disagree (1) and the highest being strongly agree (5). Some of the questions are "*I experience a sense of spiritual connection with my work*" and "*I have a sense of belonging*".

This scale has been chosen because, in Turkey, Ünal (2017) conducted the reliability test of the scale and found it quite high (Cronbach Alfa (α) = .95).

5. RESULTS

5.1. Reliability and Normality Test of the Scales

Before testing the hypotheses in the research model, a reliability analysis was conducted for each scale. Reliability analysis shows the extent to which a measurement tool consistently measures (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018). Cronbach alpha coefficient was used to measure the reliability of the scales, which suggests that values should be between 1 and 0. Coefficient values close to 1 are considered very good, while values close to 0 are considered unacceptable. The lower limit at the point of acceptability is 0,7 (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018). In the light of this information, the Cronbach alpha values of this thesis' scales are shown in the table below.

Table 6. Cronbach's Alpha

<i>Scales</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>
Meaningful Work (MW)	0,963
Servant Leadership (SL)	0,838
Evasive Hiding (EH)	0,838
Playing Dumb (PD)	0,892
Rationalized Hiding (RH)	0,897

According to the table 6, the reliability of the scales is higher than 0,7. This is show that the scales are valid to use.

On the other hand, the distribution of the data set must be normal or very close to normal on the variables in order to be subject to further statistical analysis. According to George & Mallery (2019), for a normal distribution of the data to be presumed, the values for skewness and kurtosis should be between 2,0 and -2,0. As seen in the table, since all values are below +2,0 and -2,0, it can be said that the data set is normally distributed.

Table 7. Normality Test

<i>Variables and Sub-Dimensions</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>Kurtosis</i>
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Meaningful Work (MW)	-0,698	0,198
Servant Leadership (SL)	-0,597	-0,213
<i>Evasive Hiding (EH)</i>	1,523	1,810
<i>Playing Dumb (PD)</i>	1,458	1,576
<i>Rationalized Hiding (RH)</i>	0,914	-0,161

5.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Since each of the scales which are servant leadership, meaningful work, and knowledge hiding, used in this study has been previously applied in Türkiye, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used to determine how well the data set of this study is compatible with the scale. More precisely, CFA is used to determine whether the original structure of previously used scales can be confirmed with the collected data (Gürbüz & Şahin, 2018; Yaşlıoğlu, 2017). SPSS Amos 24 was used for CFA in this study.

The program provides some crucial values for CFA such as GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), χ^2/sd (chi square), AGFI (Adjustment Goodness of Fit Index), SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square), CFI (Comparative Fit Index), RFI (Relative Fit Index), IFI (Incremental Fit Index), NFI (Normed Fit Index), TLI (Tucker Lewis Index), PNFI (Parsimony Normed Fit Index), RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation) as a result of the measurement.

In order to measure whether the research model was compatible with the study of data Hair et al. (2010) procedures were followed. According to these procedures, Chi-square, CFI, RMSEA, TFI, IFI and SRMR values were taken as basis for a healthy CFA. Accordingly, first, CFI, TLI, IFI fit indices values of 0.9 and above indicate that the values are compatible (Bentler, 1992; Byrne, 1994; Schreiber et al., 2006). Secondly, it can be said that it is appropriate for RMSEA values to take a value between 0.05 and 0.08 (Byrne, 1994). Finally, a chi-square value less than 5 is an appropriate range of values for the data (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996).

Table 8. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

χ^2/df	CFI	NFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA	PNFI
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3,137	0.899	0.859	0.899	0.893	0.059	0.808
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According to these criteria, CFI, IFI and TFI are close to 0.9, χ^2/df is less than 5, RMSEA and PNFI values are adequate as shown in the table. However, after removing the ones with factor loadings below 0.6, a new measurement was made.

Table 9. Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results After Removing

χ^2/df	CFI	NFI	IFI	TLI	RMSEA	PNFI
2,781	0.920	0.881	0.921	0.915	0.054	0.824

After the low factor loadings were removed from the analysis, CFI, TLI and IFI values were found to be above 0.9 as shown in the table. The standardized factor increases of the questions belonging to the variables in the scale were calculated and then their convergent validity was tested.

Table 10. Factor Loadings of the Variables

Variables	F1	F2	F3
Meaningful Work			
MW1	0.75		
MW2	0.76		
MW3	0.77		
MW4	0.88		
MW5	0.87		
MW6	0.88		
MW7	0.72		

MW8	0.79		
MW9	0.87		
MW10	0.87		
MW11	0.82		
MW12	0.80		
MW13	0.82		
MW14	0.80		
MW15	0.87		
MW16	0.91		
MW17	0.81		
MW18	0.81		
MW19	0.78		
MW20	0.75		
MW21	0.82		
MW22	0.86		
MW23	0.85		
MW24	0.76		
MW25	0.77		
MW26	0.85		
MW27*	0,64		
MW28	0.70		
Knowledge Hiding			
EH1*		0,61	
EH2		0.71	
EH3		0.80	
EH4		0.80	

PD1		0.88	
PD2		0.87	
PD3		0.86	
PD4		0.67	
RH1		0.81	
RH2		0.85	
RH3		0.87	
RH4		0.75	
Servant Leadership			
SL1			0.61
SL2			0.80
SL3			0.73
SL4			0.83
SL5			0.88
SL6			0.69
SL7			0.76

* Excluded from the analysis since factor loadings are low.

In the next stage of the analysis, convergent and discriminant validity were tested. The discriminant validity test was conducted for the second time by taking Fornell & Larcker (1981) recommendations into consideration and testing whether the correlation coefficient and AVE values of the variables were lower than the square root. That is, $CR > AVE$ and $AVE > 0.5$ are considered in this case. As seen in the table, the values are consistent with the values suggested by Fornell & Larcker (1981).

Table 11. Validity Test Report

Variables	Factor loadings	Cronbach's α	CR	AVE
Evasive Hiding	0.71-0.80	0.83	0.81	0.60

Playing Dumb	0.67-0.88	0.89	0.89	0.689
Rationalized Hiding	0.75-0.87	0.89	0.89	0.683
Servant Leadership	0.61-0.88	0.83	0.90	0.58
Meaningful Work	0.70-0.91	0.96	0.94	0.70

Notes: CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; Cronbach's $\alpha > 0.70$; CR > 0.70 ; AVE > 0.50 ; CR $> AVE$

5.3. Test of Common Method Variance

In the study, Podsakoff et al. (2003) common method variance procedures were performed to test whether the variables were sufficiently differentiated. In order to test the common method variance Harman's one-factor test was used. According to the results, one factor solution explains only 36% of the total variance. That is, the total variance in this study is below 50%. In this respect, it indicates that the common method variance is considered satisfactory.

Table 12. Correlations

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.Gender	1,47	,49	-									
2.Age	2,18	1,15	-,277**	-								
3.Education	3,93	,66	-,025	,220**	-							
4.Income	2,79	1,33	-,257**	,467**	,386**	-						
5. Work Routine	1,28	,55	-,036	-,086*	,031	-,069	-					
6.EH	1,63	,83	-,136**	-,135*	-,059	-,068	,092*	(,776)				
7.PD	1,69	,88	-,061	-,145**	-,068	-,116**	-,051	,726**	(,830)			
8.RH	1,69	1,10	,044	-,135**	-,007	-,016	,091*	,575**	-,624**	(,826)		
9.SL	3,47	,98	,047	-,080*	-,075	-,047	-,011	-,069	-,113**	-,024	(,765)	
10.MW	3,75	,81	-,025	-,087*	-,055	-,130**	,010	-,126**	-,147**	,015	,598**	(,839)

Notes: n = 605; Values in parentheses on the diagonal are the square of AVE of each scale; SD = standard deviation; * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed) $p < 0.05$; ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) $p < 0.01$; EH= Evasive Hiding; PD= Playing Dumb; RH= Rationalized Hiding

5.4. Hypothesis Testing

5.4.1. Structural Equation Model

After the validity of the measurement model was established, Structural Equation Model (SEM) was used to test the hypotheses. AMOS software was used for hypothesis testing. The results of the related path model are shown in the table below.

Table 13. Structural Equation Model

Paths	Estimate	S. E	C.R.	P
SL → EH	-,052	,036	-1,441	,150
SL → PD	-,107	,039	-2,722	,006**
SL → RH	-,031	,041	-,750	,453

Notes: CR = composite reliability; SE = Standard Error; SL = Servant Leadership; EH = Evasive Hiding; PD = Playing Dumb; RH = Rationalized Hiding; $\chi^2/df = 2,781$, NFI = 0,881, CFI = .920, IFI = .921, TLI = .915, PNFI= .824 RMSEA = .054; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$

Considering the results of confirmatory factor analysis ($\chi^2/df = 2,781$, NFI = 0,881, CFI = .920, IFI = .921, TLI = .915, PNFI= .824 RMSEA = .054), it can be said that research model has suitable fit indices. However, according to the results of the path analysis, there was found significant effect between servant leadership and playing dumb while no significant effect with others at 0,05 confidence interval. Therefore, it was seen that while H2 was supported, H1 and H3 was not supported.

5.4.2. Mediation Analysis

Mediation analysis procedures were applied to measure the mediating role of meaningful work in the relationship between servant leadership and evasive hiding, playing dumb and rationalized hiding. To assess the indirect effect in the mediation role of meaningful work (H4a, H4b, H4c), bootstrapping analysis was conducted on 2,000 bootstrap samples using

a 95% confidence interval. As shown in the table, considering the induced effect as significant when the CI do not contain zero (Mallinckrodt et al., 2006), it can be concluded that H4a and H4b exhibit a significant mediation effect at %95 confidence interval. Therefore, the results show that servant leadership has a significant effect on evasive hiding (H4a) and playing dumb (H4b) through meaningful work while H4c does not exhibit this effect.

Table 14. Standardized Direct, Indirect and Total Effects

	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect
SL→MW	,60	,60	-
SL→MW→RH	-,024	-,024	,000 (LLCI = -,048; ULCI = ,049)
SL→MW→PD	-,113	-,039	-,074* (LLCI = -,125; ULCI = -,022)
SL→MW→EH	-,069	,01	-,079* (LLCI = -,137; ULCI = -,022)
MW→EH	-,133**	-,133**	-
MW→PD	-,123*	-,123*	-
MW→RH	,000	,000	-

Notes. n =605, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$, SL = Servant Leadership, MW= Meaningful Work, EH = Evasive Hiding, PD = Playing Dumb, RH= Rationalized Hiding; LLCI = lower levels for confidence interval; ULCI = upper levels for confidence interval LLCI.

6. DISCUSSION

This chapter provides the detailed discussion of the results obtained from the model tested in this thesis. In this regard, the relationships between variables, the theoretical contribution in the field, the practical implications, the study's limitations, and the potential contribution to future research are thoroughly examined.

This study tested the hypotheses regarding whether employees' perception of servant leadership has a negative impact on their knowledge hiding behaviors with meaningful work as a mediator. In order to test the hypotheses, first of all, questionnaires were distributed to employees via students. Subsequently, the collected data were analyzed using SPSS and AMOS 24. According to the results, while hypotheses 1 and 3 were not supported, hypotheses 2 were supported. The results indicate that employees' perception of servant leadership does not have a negative impact on evasive hiding but positively affects rationalized hiding behaviors. Additionally, the perception of servant leadership has a negative impact on playing dumb behaviors among employees.

As for mediation analysis testing, thesis' results indicate that meaningful work mediates between servant leadership, evasive hiding, and playing dumb behaviors in a negative manner. In other words, hypotheses 4a and 4b were supported. In this respect, the potential theoretical and practical contributions of the study are discussed under the next heading.

Table 15. Hypothesis Testing Results

Hypotheses	Hypotheses Number	Result
<i>Servant Leader is negatively associated with evasive hiding</i>	H_1	Not Supported
<i>Servant Leader is negatively associated with playing dumb</i>	H_2	Supported
<i>Servant Leader is negatively associated with rationalized hiding</i>	H_3	Not Supported

Employee meaningful work perceptions mediate the negative relationship between servant leadership and evasive hiding when perceived meaningful work is high.

H_{4a}

Supported

Employee meaningful work perceptions mediate the negative relationship between servant leadership and playing dumb perceived meaningful work is high.

H_{4b}

Supported

Employee meaningful work perceptions mediate the negative relationship between servant leadership and rationalized hiding perceived meaningful work is high.

H_{4c}

Not Supported

6.1. Theoretical Contributions

Given the results of the analyses testing the hypotheses, this study raises several points for discussion. The findings of this study, first of all, contribute to the literature in the context of the scarcity of studies evaluating knowledge hiding in three dimensions mentioned by Usman et al. (2022). That is why, the relationship between servant leadership and knowledge hiding sub-dimensions were tested in this thesis. Secondly, by considering servant leadership, this thesis responds to future calls for new research on the relationship between knowledge hiding and its additional antecedents (Arain et al., 2022). Third, it was the first study to investigate the relationship between knowledge hiding and servant leadership with meaningful work as a mediator. In this respect, since servant leadership is seen as a combination of both

transformational leadership and ethical leadership, it makes a theoretical contribution to previous studies in the literature (Zarei et al., 2022).

In the research model, servant leadership addressed knowledge hiding in all its sub-dimensions. The consideration of knowledge hiding in all its sub-dimensions is an assessment that only Usman et al. (2022) have considered in the previous literature. Prior studies addressed that servant leadership has demonstrated that there is a negative relationship with knowledge hiding (Anwaar & Jingwei, 2022; Khan et al., 2023; Usman et al., 2022). Additionally, there is also the moderating effect of servant leadership to buffer negative situations in the workplace, such as knowledge hiding (Tian et al., 2022). However, as Connell and Zweig (2015) mentioned before, knowledge hiding behavior is not only a negative construct but also includes justified rationalized knowledge hiding behavior. In fact, these contributions show that knowledge hiding is not a one-dimensional behavior, but rather has behavioral patterns that require in-depth investigation. For this reason, this study considers knowledge hiding as a construct with three different behavioral patterns. In this context, in the theoretical model servant leadership would expect to negatively interact with three dimensions, evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding of knowledge hiding. However, in this study, the results show that servant leadership interacts with only playing dumb.

In this respect, this result dissociated from the general views which include the negative relationship between servant leadership and knowledge hiding (Anwaar & Jingwei, 2022; Khan et al., 2023; Tian et al., 2022), and the negative relationship between servant leadership and evasive hiding, playing dumb, and the positive relationship between servant leadership and rationalized hiding (Usman et al., 2022). In this regard, results made out that servant leadership is ineffective with evasive hiding, and rationalized hiding while playing dumb behavior has been negatively affected by servant leadership. As the results are differentiated from the literature, several points can be made to interpret the results. Firstly, the behavior of servant leadership may put employees off playing dumb behavior in the workplace. That is, this may indicate that employees could be under the positive influence of servant leaders and with their behaviors including caring about, feeling valuable, and supporting. This may be important because playing dumb has a more cynical attitude than evasive hiding behavior, which may account for the difference in attitude towards the servant leader. Second, while servant leadership might be expected to influence the adverse dimensions of knowledge hiding, the

results suggest that this may not be the case. This may be other variables between the two mechanisms behind the individuals' knowledge hiding behavior. Employees, for example, may not be influenced by the transformative, uplifting, moral, and always-serving characteristics of the servant leader and tend to perform knowledge hiding behaviors within the organization. The results may reveal that there may be other reasons why individuals hide knowledge.

The signal of results that individuals may hide the knowledge for other reasons, this study asserted meaningful work as a mediating mechanism. At this point, the results revealed that employees can hide knowledge whether they perceive servant leadership or not. Beyond this, meaningful work can be a more determinant variable in terms of not hiding knowledge. Besides, meaningful work is, in this respect, a variable that is both influenced by the external context and subject to the individual perception (Frémeaux & Pavageau, 2022). Therefore, it is important to examine knowledge hiding behavior by evaluating it in both the individual's internal reflection and the external organizational context. However, meaningful work may transfer the positive effect it receives from servant leadership to a reduction in knowledge hiding behavior. The results reveal that when meaningful work is in a mediating role, employees' knowledge hiding behaviors decrease. Meaningful work plays a mediating role between servant leadership and evasive hiding and playing dumb.

It was previously known that leadership can positively influence individuals' perceptions of meaningful work by touching their intrinsic values (Frémeaux & Pavageau, 2022). In fact, ethical leadership is included in the nomological network of meaningful work, and it negatively affects knowledge hiding through meaningful work (Anser et al., 2021). However, seen as more comprehensive than ethical and transformative leadership (Zarei et al., 2022), servant leadership is much more efficient in meaningful work mediation and this efficiency affects employees' knowledge hiding behaviors. In this context, this study has shown that servant leadership has a negative effect on both evasive and playing dumb indirectly through meaningful work. As a result, servant leadership affects to decrease the destructive knowledge hiding dimensions when they have meaningful work perceptions. From this aspect, it can be argued that despite the suitable nature of servant leadership, it does not affect employees' rationalized knowledge hiding behavior. Furthermore, although employees both perceive meaning and the positive aspects of servant leadership at work, it does not have an impact on the constructive side of knowledge hiding.

In the context of social learning theory, the results showed that employees were able to positively influence their own meaning perceptions by modeling the behaviors of servant leaders, which in turn negatively influenced their evasive hiding and playing dumb behaviors. Meaningful work has a very important place here. Only playing dumb behaviors of employees are negatively affected in the perception of servant leadership. This shows that when employees' perceptions of meaning increase, their hiding behaviors can be decreased. However, this effect is limited in the context of rationalized hiding.

To sum up, the results of the study contribute to the literature in several ways. The findings of this study, first of all, contribute theoretically to the literature in the context of the scarcity of studies evaluating knowledge hiding in three dimensions. This scarcity has already been mentioned by Usman et al. (2022). Secondly, this study responds to future calls for research on the relationship between knowledge hiding and servant leadership (Arain et al., 2022). Third, it was the first study to investigate the relationship between knowledge hiding and servant leadership with meaningful work as a mediator. In this respect, since servant leadership is seen as a combination of both transformative leadership and ethical leadership, it makes a theoretical contribution to previous studies in the literature.

6.2. Practical Contributions

Since the introduction of the concept of knowledge hiding, many scholars have conducted research to identify its antecedents and outcomes. In this direction, factors that can positively or negatively affect knowledge hiding behavior at work have also been tested such as coworkers (Bilal et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2016), firm policies (Zhang, 2020), or leaders (Anser et al., 2021; Chaudhry et al., 2023; Islam et al., 2021). In this regard, the relationship between servant leadership, one of the positive leadership theories (Lu et al., 2019), and knowledge hiding has been tested in various studies, and found that there is a negative effect between them (Anwaar & Jingwei, 2022; Khan et al., 2023; Usman et al., 2022). This study could only determine a negative interaction between servant leadership and knowledge hiding sub-dimensions with playing dumb. In other words, employees perceive the servant leader's behaviors only enough to affect the dimension of playing the dumb. Moreover, this study

showed a negative relationship between servant leadership and evasive hiding and playing dumb in meaningful work mediation. This can have various practical consequences.

Servant leadership is a leadership style that is generally associated with being a very kind, respectful, and understanding leader. Moreover, it has the dedication to the empowerment of its employees. In this respect, it is considered to cover both ethical leadership and transformative leadership from a broader perspective (Zarei et al., 2022). However, in this study, servant leadership negatively affects employees' playing dumb behavior, except for evasive hiding. Considering that both dimensions are destructive dimensions of knowledge hiding, it becomes clear that servant leadership can only influence the behavior of employees who pretend to not know. When it is considered meaningful work as a mediator, destructive hiding knowledge behaviors, i.e., both evasive and playing dumb behavior, are negatively affected by servant leadership. Since this situation only emerged under the mediating effect, it reveals that employees' perceptions of meaningful work should be evaluated constructively by policymakers. Although the comprehensive style of servant leadership has an impact on employees, it is a fact that employees' perception of meaningful work is a priority for them. Therefore, leadership policies carried out independently of employees' meaning perceptions may be problematic in achieving the expected revolutionary effect. That is, only employees who have meaningful work respond fully to leadership influence and can reduce knowledge hiding behaviors.

Managers should foster servant leadership behaviors to increase employees' sense of meaning and therefore to ensure the flow of knowledge within themselves. First and foremost, it is very important to develop employees' sense of meaning, especially for a proper flow of knowledge. Even if meaning is subjective in employees' minds, servant leadership can increase employees' sense of meaning (Bhatti et al., 2022; Shao et al., 2022; van Dierendonck et al., 2023). Our findings also indicate that servant leadership has a positive effect on meaningful work. So, organizations should expand servant leadership policies and engage in activities to increase employees' perceptions of meaning.

Changes in business life over the last three years have altered traditional working methods. This situation has been seen in many organizations that offer more online-based services where usage of the virtual environment has become widespread in the last three years

(Byrd, 2022). However, servant leadership can make employees feel like they belong to the company, even in virtual environments (Zada et al., 2022). The importance that current research on organizational identity attaches to the issue of remote working reveals the nature of this issue (Weisman et al., 2023). As a result, organizations' implementation of servant leadership policies can be quite suitable for both traditional and virtual environments. Considering its impact on employees' perception of meaning, our results support this practical conclusion.

6.3. Limitations and Future Studies

Meaningful work, first of all, is a subject on which there is no consensus in the literature as a definition and scale (Magrizos et al., 2022). The fact that meaning varies according to individuals and that the definitions in the literature vary makes it difficult to treat it as a single construct. Although the scale used in this study fits the meaningful work structure (Both-Nwabuwe et al., 2017), the theoretical background and scales of meaningful work constitute the limits of the research. Therefore, more detailed studies in the context of meaningful work need to be done. Future research can reveal objective aspects of meaningful work regarding working in public or private institutions, positions held, whether they have families, etc.

Another limitation of this study is the challenge of assessing the nature of information concealed or protected by employees and its potential future implications. In terms of employees' behavior, there could be a potential question mark as to what kind of knowledge is hidden and why it is reflected in the context of playing dumb or evasive hiding behavior. Although these behaviors can be prevented around the positive reflection of the servant leader or meaningful work, qualitative studies are needed for more permanent solutions to understand the nature of the hidden information and to highlight its relationship with other variables. More succinctly, future studies should therefore measure the perception of meaningful work after considering the nature of knowledge.

Thirdly, this study aimed to reach to the employees without considering any distinctive profession or sector. In economically unstable or developing countries, the socio-economic status of cities may also vary. Therefore, the lifestyles of employees may also vary. This can significantly change employees' perceptions of meaning. Future studies should assess the

perception of meaningful work and its possible outcomes, taking into account the cities where employees live.

Finally, in this study, we have considered servant leadership as an effect independent variable for meaningful work and knowledge hiding, but future studies should consider selecting different types of leadership across sectors. For example, in non-profit organizations such as aid organizations or training centers, servant leadership can be more effective and important. However different types of leadership should also be tested in innovation-driven, or technology-driven sectors.

7. CONCLUSION

Knowledge hiding behavior is a variable that has entered the literature in the last decade and continues to be widely researched. With its conceptualization as a behavior that employees intentionally engage in, issues concerning employees have become a priority. Meaningful work represents both the subjective perspectives of employees and can be directly affected by factors in the work environment. Therefore, it is an important variable because of that it more or less has the potential to determine the intent and actions of the employees. In this study, we examined how the positive effect of servant leadership is reflected in knowledge hiding behavior by considering meaningful work as a mediator. With this, both the effect of servant leadership on knowledge hiding was tested and the mediating role of meaningful work in this relationship was tested. According to the results, servant leadership had an effect on playing dumb, which is only one dimension of hiding knowledge. However, behind this, the fact that individuals' perception of meaning has a determining role has revealed the necessity of testing the mediating role of meaningful work. In this regard, this study revealed that servant leadership negatively interacted with only two of the knowledge hiding dimensions, evasive hiding and playing dumb, through meaningful work. Thus, this study has shown that individuals' sense of meaning has a primary role in their behavior and can influence knowledge hiding in this way.

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9. APPENDIXES

9.1 Questionnaire

Hizmetkar Liderlik ve Anlamlı İş Algısı: Bilgi Saklamanın Moderatör Rolü

Değerli Katılımcı.

Sizi Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Yönetim ve Organizasyon Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi Muhammed Buğrahan HATİBOĞLU ve Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi Öğretim Üyesi Dr. Semih CEYHAN tarafından yürütülen “Hizmetkar Liderlik ve Anlamlı İş Algısı: Bilgi Saklamanın Moderatör Rolü” başlıklı **araştırmaya** davet ediyoruz. Bu araştırmaya katılıp katılmama kararını vermeden önce, araştırmanın neden ve nasıl yapılacağını bilmeniz gerekmektedir. Bu nedenle bu formun okunup anlaşılması büyük önem taşımaktadır. Eğer anlayamadığınız ve sizin için açık olmayan şeyler varsa, ya da daha fazla bilgi isterseniz bize sorunuz.

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılmama veya katıldıktan sonra herhangi bir anda çalışmadan çıkma hakkında sahipsiniz. Çalışmayı yanıtlamanız, araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz biçiminde yorumlanacaktır. Size verilen formlardaki soruları yanıtlarken kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmayın. Bu formlardan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacak olup gizli tutulacaktır. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur.

Araştırmaya sağladığınız katkılardan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederiz

Bölüm 1

	<u>18-23</u>	<u>24-33</u>	<u>34-43</u>	<u>44-50</u>	<u>50 ve üzeri</u>
<u>Yaşınız?</u>	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Erkek	Kadın
<u>Cinsiyet</u>	☐	☐

<u>Çalışılan Pozisyon</u>	
----------------------------------	--

	<u>İlkokul</u>	<u>Ortaokul</u>	<u>Lise</u>	<u>Üniversite</u>	<u>Yüksek Lisans</u>	<u>Doktora</u>
<u>Eğitim durumu?</u> <u>(En son tamamlanan eğitim)</u>	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Ofisten Çalışma	Hibrit	Uzaktan Çalışma
<u>Çalışma Rutini</u>	☐	☐	☐

Bölüm 2

Aşağıda iş yerindeki hizmetkar liderlik davranışını ölçen ifadeler yer almaktadır. Lütfen hizmetkar liderlikle ilgili her bir ifadeye ne kadar katılıp katılmadığınızı uygun seçeneği işaretleyerek belirtiniz.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Şahsi bir problemim olduğunda yöneticimden yardım isteyebilirim	1	2	3	4	5
Yöneticim topluluğa geri vermenin (yardım etmenin) önemini vurgular	1	2	3	4	5
Yöneticim eğer bir şeyler yanlış gidiyorsa bunu söyleyebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
Yöneticim zor sorunları en iyi hissettiğim yolla idare etmem (çözmem) için bana serbestiyet verir	1	2	3	4	5
Yöneticim kariyer gelişimime öncelik verir	1	2	3	4	5
Yöneticim benim en iyi çıkarlarımı kendi çıkarlarının önüne koyar	1	2	3	4	5
Yöneticim başarı elde etmek amacıyla etik ilkelerinden (etiksel değerlerinden) taviz vermez	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen herhangi bir iş arkadaşınızın sizden bir konuda bilgi talep ettiğini ve sizin de bilginizi ya da uzmanlığınızı onunla paylaşmayı reddettiğiniz veya ihtiyaç duyulan bilginin tamamını vermediğiniz bir olayı düşünün. Örneğin, bu iş arkadaşınıza bir şeyin nasıl yapılacağını göstermemiş, gereken bilginin sadece bir kısmını vermiş, bilmesi gereken bir şeyi söylemeyi reddetmiş veya önemli bir şeyi öğrenmesine yardımcı olmamış olabilirsiniz. Bu doğrultuda aşağıdaki ifadeleri iş yerinde ne sıklıkla yaptığınızı düşünerek size en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. İş yerinde herhangi biri benden bir bilgi istediğinde.	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Ne Katılıyorum Ne Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
Yardım etmeyi kabul ederim ancak istediğinden farklı bilgileri söylerim	1	2	3	4	5
Yardım etmeyi kabul ederim ancak gerçekte hiç istemem	1	2	3	4	5

Yardım etmeyi kabul ederim ancak elimden geldiğinde oyalarım	1	2	3	4	5
Yardım etmemi istediği konu yerine farklı bir konudaki bir bilgiyi vermek isterim	1	2	3	4	5
Bir konuda bilgim olsa da bilmiyormuş gibi davranırım	1	2	3	4	5
Bir konuda bilgim olsa da bilmediğimi söylerim	1	2	3	4	5
Ne hakkında konuşulduğunu bilmiyormuş gibi davranırım	1	2	3	4	5
Konu hakkında çok bilgim olmadığını söylerim	1	2	3	4	5
Sahip olduğum bilgiyi paylaşmak istediğimi ancak söyleyemem gerektiğini açıklarım	1	2	3	4	5
Sahip olduğum bilginin gizli olduğunu ve sadece belirli kişilerle paylaşabileceğimi söylerim	1	2	3	4	5
Patronumun sahip olduğum bilgiyi paylaşmama izin vermediğini söylerim	1	2	3	4	5
Sahip olduğum bilgiyi vermeyeceğimi söylerim	1	2	3	4	5

Lütfen iş yerinizdeki yöneticileriniz veya iş arkadaşlarınızla olan ilişkilerinizi ve işinizle ilgili yaptıklarınızı düşünerek aşağıdaki ifadelerin sizde ne sıklıkla meydana geldiğini işaretleyiniz.	Hiçbir Zaman (1)	Arada Bir (2)	Bazen (3)	Sık Sık (4)	Her Zaman (5)
İş yerinde;					
1. Kendimi çalışma grubuma ait hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Çalışma grubumla bir karar alacağımız zaman kendi değerlerim hakkında açıkça konuşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bizim için önemli olan konular üzerine konuşuruz.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Birbirimizi destekleriz.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Birbirimize güven veririz	1	2	3	4	5
6. Beraber çalışmaktan keyif alırız.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Müşterilerimize gerçek anlamda yardım edebildiğimi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. İnsanlığın refahını veya çevreyi iyileştiren O ürünlere ve hizmetlere katkıda bulunuyoruz.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kayda değer şeyler yapıyoruz.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Gerçekten önemli olan şeyler üzerine çok vakit ayırırız.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Yeni fikirler oluşturup uygulamam.	1	2	3	4	5
12.İnsanların önemseydiği konularda fark yaratırım.	1	2	3	4	5
13.Başarılı olduğumu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bana sunulan fırsatlardan dolayı heyecan duyuyorum	1	2	3	4	5
15. Çalışırken neyin doğru ve yanlış olduğuna dair sezgilerim güçleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Çalışırken, sahip olduğum olumlu vasıflarım daha da güçleniyor.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Çalışırken kendim gibi davranırım.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Çalışırken gerçeği cesaretle karşılarım.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Hoşgörölü insanlarız.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Yaşamın karmakarışık olduğunu fark etsek de bunu sorun etmeyiz.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Çalışırken ilhamla dolduğumu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Yaptığımız iş beni gelecek hakkında umutlandırıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Gelecekte olmayı hayal ettiğimiz konum için çalışmamız bana ilham veriyor.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Yaptığım işin insanlığa veya çevreye faydalı olması işimle manevi bağ kurmamı sağlıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
25- işimi yaparken düşünmek için zaman ve mekâna sahibim	1	2	3	4	5
26. İşlere odaklanma ile insanların nasıl hissettiğini fark etme arasında iyi bir denge kurarım.	1	2	3	4	5
27.Kendime yeterli zaman ayırıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Kendi ihtiyaçlarım ile diğer insanların ihtiyaçlarını karşılama konusunda iyi bir denge kuruyorum	1	2	3	4	5

9.2. Ethical Committee Report



ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT ÜNİVERSİTESİ (AYBÜ) SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER ETİK KURULU PROJE ONAY BELGESİ



Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Yönetim ve Organizasyon bölümü öğrencilerinden Muhammed Buğrahan Hatiboğlu'nun, *The effect of servant leadership on meaningful eyes and the moderating role of knowledge hiding* adlı araştırması değerlendirilmiştir. (Bu kısım başvuru sahibi tarafından doldurulmalıdır)

Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmuştur.



Proje etik açısından geliştirilmesi gerekmektedir.



Proje etik açısından uygun bulunmamıştır.



AYBÜ SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER ETİK KURULU KARARI (Etik Kurul tarafından doldurulacaktır)	
Araştırma kodu (Yıl – Araştırma sıra no)	2023-34
Başvuru formunun Etik Kurula ulaştığı tarih	10.02.2023
Etik Kurul Karar toplantı tarihi ve karar no	15.02.2023 - 02/34
Yer	Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, Esenboğa Külliyesi
Katılımcılar	Formda imzası bulunan üyelerimiz toplantıya katılmıştır.

KURUL BASKANI VE ÜYELER:

		İMZA
Prof. Dr. Hakkı ODABAŞ	Başkan	
Doç. Dr. Musa ÖZTÜRK	Üye	
Doç. Dr. Ömer ASLAN	Üye	
Doç. Dr. Özge GÖKBULUT ÖZDEMİR	Üye	
Doç. Dr. Ali POLAT	Üye	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Nur Betül ATAKUL	Üye	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Recep YORULMAZ	Üye	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Semih CEYHAN	Üye	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Keziban Büşra KAYNAK EKİCİ	Üye	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Gülay YAZICI	Üye	
Öğr. Gör. Dr. İrem ŞENGÜL	Üye	