



Munich Personal RePEc Archive

Aligning Leadership Styles for Effective Knowledge Management in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq

Abdulwahab Mohammed, Sana

Tishk International University

18 June 2023

Online at <https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/118425/>
MPRA Paper No. 118425, posted 31 Aug 2023 13:50 UTC

Aligning Leadership Styles for Effective Knowledge Management in the Kurdistan Region of Iraq

Sana Abdulwahab Mohammed, Tishk International University, Business
And Management Department, sanatiu00@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

This study investigates the relationship between leadership styles and knowledge management within organizations. The main objective is to identify the most appropriate leadership style that fosters effective knowledge management practices and encourages knowledge sharing among employees. To achieve this, a quantitative research approach was adopted, employing questionnaire surveys as the primary data collection method. The reliability of the research instrument was assessed using Cronbach's alpha. The study employed regression analysis to analyse the collected data and determine the influence of various leadership styles on knowledge management outcomes. By analysing the data, the study aimed to identify the leadership style that demonstrated the greatest positive impact on knowledge sharing within organizations. The findings of this research suggest that democratic leadership style is the most appropriate for knowledge management initiatives. The data indicated a significant positive correlation between democratic leadership and knowledge sharing, indicating that leaders who adopt a democratic approach facilitate an environment that encourages open communication, collaboration, and knowledge exchange. Based on the results, this study recommends that leaders embrace a democratic leadership style to enhance knowledge management practices. Organizations should prioritize creating an inclusive and participative culture that fosters employee engagement, empowerment, and involvement in decision-making processes.

Keywords: Leadership styles, Knowledge management, Democratic leadership, Autocratic Leadership, Laissez-Faire Leadership, Knowledge sharing, Knowledge Hiding.

1. Introduction

Employee performance is a multidimensional concept that refers to how well an employee performs the tasks and responsibilities assigned to them, as well as how well they align with the aims of their organization (Bakotić, 2016). This can include factors such as job knowledge, task accomplishment, productivity, and teamwork (Chen & Guo, 2019; DeChurch & Mesmer-Magnus, 2010; Zaim et al., 2020).

In addition, employee motivation, job satisfaction, and leadership can all play important roles in shaping employee performance outcomes (Devadass & Shanthi, 2015; Judge et al., 2004; Yukl, 2010). It can also be described as "the extent to which employees are able to accomplish the tasks that make up their job requirements, while also contributing to the overall success of the organization" (Salanova et al., 2010). This definition emphasizes the importance of both individual task accomplishment and alignment with organizational goals, as well as the capability of employees to work effectively with their colleagues.

Employee performance is essential for organizations for several reasons. First, it is a key driver of productivity and efficiency, as employees who perform well are better able to accomplish duties and responsibilities in a timely and effective manner (Demir et al., 2023; Yeh & Liu, 2020). This, in turn, can help organizations achieve their objectives more efficiently and effectively. Secondly, employee performance is also closely linked to organizational outcomes such as customer happiness, retention, and productivity (Gupta & Kumar, 2019; Harter et al., 2002; Budur and Poturak, 2021a).

Employees who perform well have more potential to deliver high-quality products to customers and to remain loyal, which can be a reason for rising loyalty of customers and income. Finally, employee performance is also important for employee development and career growth (Hadzahmedovic et al., 2022). Employees who perform well are often seen as more valuable to the organization and are more likely to receive promotions, salary increases, and other forms of recognition and rewards (Lee & Bruvold, 2003). This, in turn, can help to improve employee morale, job satisfaction, and retention.

Knowledge in organizations refers to "the understanding and use of information, expertise, and experience that can be applied to improve organizational effectiveness" (Alavi & Leidner, 2001, p. 107). This includes both explicit knowledge that is easily codified and shared, such as written and documented procedures or guidelines, and tacit knowledge that is more difficult to articulate and transfer, such as personal expertise or intuition (Budur et al., 2023; Demir et al.,

2023). Effective knowledge management is crucial for organizations that they have a business environment full of competitors, as it enables them to capture, create, and share knowledge more effectively and efficiently (Grant, 1996; Zack, 1999). This, in turn, can help organizations to innovate, improve performance, and achieve a competitive advantage (Tajeddini et al., 2023).

Knowledge is a crucial factor in employee performance, as it enables employees to make informed decisions, solve problems, and innovate in their work (Gherardi & Nicolini, 2002). Those employees who have access to knowledge resources and are able to effectively use them are more likely to perform well on the job (Chen & Huang, 2013; Teo & Wong, 1998). Furthermore, knowledge sharing and collaboration among employees can lead to increased performance and productivity (Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2018; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). When employees share their knowledge and expertise with one another, they can build on each other's strengths and create new solutions to complex problems. Finally, continuous learning and development are essential for employee performance in today's rapidly changing work environment (Budur and Demir, 2019; Liao et al., 2008). Employees who are able to acquire and apply new knowledge and skills are better equipped to adapt to changing job demands and to stay competitive in their careers.

Knowledge affects employee performance by enabling employees to make better decisions, solve problems, and innovate in their work (Grant, 1996; Zack, 1999; Demir & Bulut, 2018). It has been shown that employees who have access to knowledge resources and are able to effectively use them are more likely to perform well on the job (Chen & Huang, 2013; Teo & Wong, 1998). Furthermore, the transfer of knowledge and skills from one employee to another can lead to increased performance and productivity (Lee, Kim, & Kim, 2018; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). On the other hand, a lack of knowledge can hinder employee performance, leading to decreased productivity and poor decision-making (Liao et al., 2008).

In organizations, there are knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding. Knowledge sharing is the act of willingly and openly sharing one's knowledge, skills, and expertise with others in the organization (Connelly & Zweig, 2015). It is a critical component of knowledge management, as it enables organizations to create and disseminate new knowledge, promote learning, and improve performance. On the other hand, knowledge hiding refers to the intentional concealment or hoarding of knowledge by individuals in the organization (Connelly et al., 2012).

Knowledge hiding can take several forms, such as avoiding questions, withholding information, or providing incomplete or misleading information (Connelly et al., 2012). Knowledge hiding can have a detrimental impact on employee performance and organizational outcomes. For example, it can impede problem-solving, decision-making, and innovation, and may lead to decreased productivity and poor job performance (Connelly & Zweig, 2015; Connelly et al., 2012).

When knowledge is shared in organizations, it can have several positive effects. Firstly, it can enhance individual and collective learning, which can lead to improved performance and innovation (Connelly & Zweig, 2015). Knowledge sharing can also foster collaboration and team cohesion, which can result in increased job satisfaction and commitment (Wang & Noe, 2010). Furthermore, it can help to create a culture of openness and trust, which can contribute to a positive work environment and reduce turnover rates (Wang & Noe, 2010). On the other hand, when knowledge is hidden or hoarded in organizations, it can have negative consequences.

Knowledge hiding can impede problem-solving and decision-making and may result in decreased productivity and poor job performance (Connelly et al., 2012). Moreover, knowledge hiding can lead to conflicts and negative social dynamics in the workplace, as it erodes trust and creates a sense of suspicion among colleagues (Connelly et al., 2012). Overall, the sharing or hiding of knowledge in organizations can have significant impacts on organizational outcomes, including employee performance, innovation, job satisfaction, and turnover rates.

Leadership can have a significant impact on the knowledge-sharing and knowledge-hiding behavior of employees in organizations. One of the main ways in which leadership can affect knowledge sharing is through the creation of a supportive organizational culture. Leaders who encourage and reward knowledge-sharing behaviors, provide opportunities for collaboration and communication, and promote a positive work environment can foster a culture of knowledge-sharing in the organization (Wang et al., 2011). On the other hand, leaders who adopt a controlling or authoritarian approach can have a negative impact on knowledge-sharing behavior. This type of leadership is often associated with fear, mistrust, and a lack of psychological safety in the workplace (Wang et al., 2011). Employees may be hesitant to share their knowledge for fear of retaliation or punishment from their superiors.

In addition to knowledge sharing, leadership can also influence knowledge-hiding behaviors. Leaders who create a climate of fear and mistrust, through abusive supervision or other

negative leadership behaviors, can encourage knowledge hiding among employees (Miao et al., 2013). Employees may hide their knowledge to protect themselves from negative consequences, such as punishment. Overall, leadership has a significant impact on the knowledge-sharing and knowledge-hiding behaviors of employees in organizations. Leaders who create a supportive and positive work environment can foster a culture of knowledge-sharing, while leaders who adopt a controlling or authoritarian approach can have a negative impact on knowledge-sharing behavior and encourage knowledge hiding among employees.

Although knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding are important parameters, still there is no sufficient number of studies conducted in this field in the Kurdistan region of Iraq. Therefore, the aim of this research is to understand the effects of different leadership styles on the employee's knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding behaviors and consequently their behaviors. In this regard, Ethical leadership, wise leadership, Autocratic leadership, Laissez-Faire leadership parameters will be studied. Two of them are relatively negative and two of them are relatively positive. So, let's see how they affect knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding performances.

We have developed a questionnaire to collect data from the employees of the public sector in Sulaymaniyah City of Kurdistan region of Iraq. The collected data has been used to test the hypothesis by utilizing and proposing the regression analysis after their validation.

The remaining parts of this graduation project flows in the second section we have detailed the prior studies in this field in the literature review part. In the third section which is the methodology section we explained how the sample was collected how the measures were developed and adopted and which procedures were used to test the hypothesis. In the fourth section, the hypothesis of the current study has been conducted and have been reported. In the fifth section, we have explained the reasons for the accepted and the rejected hypothesis and we have given suggestions to the practitioners in the market.

2. Literature review

2.1. Leadership

Leadership is a process by which an individual influences a group of people to achieve a common goal (Rashid et al., 2020). It involves creating a vision, setting goals, motivating and inspiring others, and guiding them towards the achievement of those goals (Mohammed et al.,

2020). Leadership can take various forms and styles depending on the leader's personality, the situation, and the type of organization (Northouse, 2018). The practice of guiding, inspiring, and motivating others to reach a common objective is known as leadership, and it has a positive impact on society (Yukl, 2013). It involves both the ability to set a vision and direction for a group, as well as the ability to manage and coordinate the efforts of others towards achieving that vision (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Budur, 2018).

Effective leadership demands a variety of abilities, such as those for communicating, making decisions, and solving problems, and the ability to manage and resolve conflicts (Northouse, 2018). Another definition of leadership is the capacity to inspire, encourage, and enable others to make a contribution to the success of a team, organization, or group (Bass, 1985). This involves not only setting a clear vision and goals, but also communicating those goals effectively, empowering others to take ownership of their work, and building strong relationships with followers (Gardner, 1990). Effective leaders have to be capable to modify their strategy and style to suit the requirements of those they lead and the circumstances (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977).

Many people mistakenly believe that leadership is a position or seniority, but it is much more than that. It goes beyond being only a synonym for influence. A leader is someone who is motivated, capable and trusted to communicate, represent, and help realize a story of possibilities for a group of people at a particular time rather than someone who dominates a certain position or behaves in a particular manner. Using social influence to maximize others' efforts to achieve a goal, leadership is additionally a social influence strategy. In order to accomplish goals, a leader must be successful in influencing their people. "Leadership is lifting a person's vision to high sights, the raising of a person's performance to a higher standard, the building of a personality beyond its normal limitations" (Drucker, 1996)

There are several distinct leadership types, and each one can affect an organization differently. The success or performance of an organization may be impacted by different leadership styles. A leader's methods and actions when managing, inspiring, and guiding people are known as their style of leadership. Leadership style determines how someone develops and implements strategies that take into consideration stakeholder expectations, the development and wellbeing of the staff, and other factors. The impact of a leader's own style on people they directly influence can be ascertained when a leader understands it. Additionally, it enables them to identify their areas for improvement in terms of their leadership skills.

According to (Barrow, 1977) any economic, political, or organizational system's ability to succeed depends on how effectively its leaders carry out their duties. The following traits of effective leaders have been noted by Avolio and Gardner (2005): (1) a strong ethical view; (2) self-awareness; (3) positive behavior modelling; (4) the followers are acknowledged personally and socially by their leader and the others in the group; 5) the leader and the followers have constructive social relations. There are clear situations where positive leadership and several of the leadership styles examined overlap. Clearly, there are three fundamental elements of positive leadership: (1) It emphasizes people's talents and capabilities, reinforcing their potential as human beings; (2) It places a focus on outcomes and encourages above-average performance from both individuals and organizations; and (3) its area of action is focused on the elements that can be seen as basic human qualities.

Leaders that exhibit behaviours that go toward the positive side are considered to be positive (Wooten & Cameron, 2010). Members of teams with positive leaders have been observed to have greater levels of satisfaction with their work and the prevalence of pleasurable feelings (Kelloway et al., 2013). Also, it has been discovered that positive leadership strengthens employee engagement and performance, enhances personal interactions and connections, makes it possible to create a positive work atmosphere, and fosters innovation (Cameron, 2013). Last but not least, possessing a strong leadership style seems to have facilitated business mergers and increased consumer satisfaction (Cameron & Plews, 2012).

One of the leadership styles is the Transformational Leadership style. It is a leadership approach that prioritizes transformation and change (Budur and Poturak, 2021b). The needs and personal development of followers are the main priorities of transformational leadership. The development and growth of individuals' systems of values, as well as their level of motivation and ethical standards, in addition to their skills, are priorities for leaders with a transformational leadership style (Poturak et al., 2020).

Another style of leadership is Transactional leadership style. In the eyes of a transactional leaders, human relationships are nothing more than a series of transactions. Reward, punishment, economic cooperation, both physical and emotional interaction, and other transactions are the bases of this leadership style. According to Burns (1978), transactional leaders heavily depend on organizational incentives and penalties to influence staff performance and frequently give job accomplishment and compliance among employees' top priority.

Another style of leadership is participative leadership which is based on the skills, expertise, and involvement of the entire team. By including subordinates in organizational management and decision-making, participative leadership effectively increases employees' feelings of involvement and actively ties personal objectives to organizational ones (Wang et al., 2022).

Another style is called servant leadership style. Before becoming a leader, a servant leader serves his or her followers. The primary values of servant leaders are respect, inspiration, a can-do attitude, and service. These leaders view and respect their followers as equal partners. Followers thus assume responsibility for outcomes (Maslennikova, 2007).

Another type of leadership is goal-oriented leadership. Goal-oriented leadership is a set of actions made by the leader to set the direction and act in a way that significantly encourages others to accomplish the primary goals required for the reaching desired outcome. It has been argued that goal-oriented leadership may act as a trigger to activate the accomplishment, dependability, and detail orientations of highly conscientious workers, resulting in effective performance (Colbert & Witt 2009).

Total quality management leadership is also another style of leadership. Total quality management is a procedure created to put the customer first, minimize issues, increase employee loyalty, and encourage open decision-making (Buch & Rivers 2001; Torlak et al., 2019). According to Ulle & Kumar (2014) TQM leaders establish goals, develop a customer-focused culture, and establish clear, observable values and establishes high standards. "In total quality leadership there is freedom, yet there is control (Demir, 2021). There is the freedom to discover new markets, to develop new systems, to gain greater mastery over the process, and there is control of a data-based approach to improvement" (Ulle & Kumar, 2014; Demir, 2022).

A toxic leadership style is one that hinders employees' passion, independence, and capacity for original thought. Over time, this damages the firm as well. Toxic leaders spread their poison by exerting an excessive amount of control. For them Leadership is being in charge (Wilson-Starks, 2003). There is proof to back up the claim that toxic leadership can result in poor employee wellness, higher benefit expenses for the company, absenteeism and turnover, increased employee withdrawal, inferior productivity, group working (Dyck, 2001; Macklem, 2005; Wilson-Starks, 2003; Flynn, 1999). Other styles of leadership which are styles we study on in this research explained in detail below.

2.1.1. Democratic Leadership

Democratic leadership, often referred to as participative leadership, is a form of leadership where the leader actively engages their team members in the process of goal-setting, decision-making, and problem-solving (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). This style of leadership emphasizes collaboration, teamwork, and shared responsibility. The democratic leader mentors and encourages their group, but ultimately allows the team members to have a say in the final outcome of a decision or project. This style of leadership has been shown to improve job satisfaction, creativity, and motivation among team members (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

Democratic leaders will make the final decisions, but they will also consult with the rest of the team before making them. The development of skills is aided through involving other team members or employees in the action, which enhances job satisfaction. More than merely financial incentives, such as earning the promotion they deserve, employees and team members feel in control of their own careers, which motivates them to work hard. Because involvement requires time, this tactic may slow down the process, but the results are frequently superior. The approach may be most useful when cooperation among team members is essential and when market productivity prioritizes quality over speed.

Smith (1998) claims that Employee effectiveness will be high if a work is well-structured and the leader has good relationships with the team. Furthermore, according to his research, democratic leaders take great care to involve every team member in debates and may work well with a small but highly motivated workforce.

According to Kearney and Gebert (2009), a democratic leader values diversity of opinions and encourages team members to express their ideas and thoughts openly. Additionally, a democratic leader builds trust and respect with their team members by treating them with dignity and respect, listening to their ideas, and recognizing their contributions (Kearney & Gebert, 2009).

Democratic leadership has its roots in the early 20th century, when Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White conducted a series of studies on leadership styles (Lewin et al., 1939). These researchers found that there are three primary sorts of leadership styles: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. One of another key early contributors to the development of democratic leadership was Mary Parker Follett, a management consultant and author who was active during the first half of the 20th century (Follett, 1941). Follett emphasized the importance of collaboration and teamwork in organizations, and argued that effective

leadership requires a democratic and participatory approach. She believed that the most effective leaders are those who are able to bring together diverse perspectives and work collaboratively with their team members

The concept of democratic leadership was further developed in the 1950s and 1960s by scholars such as Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, who emphasized the importance of participative decision-making in effective leadership (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), democratic leadership was developed in response to the shortcomings of authoritarian leadership, which was prevalent during the early part of the 20th century. Since the early 20th century, democratic leadership has become increasingly popular, and is now widely recognized as an effective leadership style in many organizations. It is particularly well-suited to organizations that value innovation, creativity, and collaboration, as it encourages team members to participate actively in decision-making and problem-solving processes (Avolio et al., 2009).

Democratic leadership is characterized by several key aspects, including: first inclusivity, Democratic leaders encourage team members to participate in decision-making processes and request their opinions (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Another one is collaboration in which democratic leaders emphasize teamwork and collaboration, fostering a sense of collective ownership and responsibility for achieving team goals (Follett, 1941). Third is transparency that democratic leaders are open and transparent in their communication with team members, sharing information and soliciting feedback (Avolio et al., 2009). Another aspect is flexibility, democratic leaders are adaptable and open to change, recognizing that effective leadership requires the ability to respond to new and unexpected challenges (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958).

Final aspect is accountability that democratic leaders are responsible for their decisions and actions, and they hold both themselves and their team members accountable, while also recognizing and celebrating successes (Follett, 1941). These aspects of democratic leadership are intended to create a work environment that is collaborative, participatory, and inclusive, and that promotes teamwork and innovation.

2.1.2. Autocratic Leadership

Another style of leadership is autocratic leadership. Autocratic leadership is a leadership style in which the leader makes decisions independently, without input from team members or subordinates, and expects team members to follow their directives without question or

challenge (Fiedler, 1967). Autocratic leaders often rely on their authority and power to enforce compliance, and may use fear and intimidation to maintain control over their team members (Graen, 1976).

According to Fiedler (1967), autocratic leaders tend to be directive, task-oriented, and focused on achieving results. They are often confident and decisive, and may see their role as making tough decisions on behalf of the team or organization. However, autocratic leaders may also be seen as domineering and controlling, and may create a work environment that is hierarchical, rigid, and focused on rules and procedures rather than innovation or creativity. Research has suggested that in some circumstances, such as when hasty choices need to be taken in an emergency, authoritarian leadership can be beneficial. and there is little time for collaboration or consultation (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). However, in most situations, autocratic leadership can lead to reduced morale, decreased job satisfaction, and higher levels of turnover (Graen, 1976).

The origins of autocratic leadership can be traced back to early forms of government, in which rulers held absolute power and control over their subjects (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005). In these systems, leaders were often seen as having a divine right to rule, and their decisions were rarely questioned or challenged by their subjects. In modern times, autocratic leadership has been associated with a range of historical figures, including military leaders such as Napoleon Bonaparte and Adolf Hitler (Fiedler, 1967). These leaders were known for their authoritarian style and their ability to enforce compliance among their followers through fear and intimidation. During the early 20th century, autocratic leadership was studied by researchers in the field of psychology and organizational behavior. For example, Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph White conducted a well-known study in 1939 in which they manipulated the leadership style of camp counselors to be either autocratic or democratic, and measured the effects on group behavior (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Since then, autocratic leadership has been studied extensively by researchers and is recognized as one of the main leadership styles, along with democratic and laissez-faire leadership (Graen, 1976).

A leader who practices autocratic leadership tends to have a lot of control and decision-making authority, with little input or participation from subordinates (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Here are some aspects of autocratic leadership: the first one is authoritarian decision-making in which the autocratic leader makes decisions without consulting with their followers or considering their opinions (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Another one is top-down communication that the

communication flows primarily from the leader to their subordinates, with little opportunity for feedback or discussion (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The third aspect is centralized power when the leader holds all the power and authority in the group or organization, with little delegation of decision-making or responsibility to others (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Another one is fear-based motivation in which the leader may use fear or punishment to motivate their subordinates, rather than positive reinforcement or rewards (Gupta & Krishnan, 2016). The final aspect is strictness in rules and regulations the autocratic leader establishes strict rules and procedures for their subordinates to follow, with little flexibility or deviation allowed (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These aspects of autocratic leadership can create a highly structured and efficient organization, but can also lead to low levels of job satisfaction and creativity among subordinates (Gupta & Krishnan, 2016).

2.1.3 Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is another style of leadership, it is a leadership style characterized by minimal guidance and direction provided by the leader to their subordinates, allowing them to make their own decisions and take responsibility for their work (Northouse, 2018). According to Northouse (2018), in laissez-faire leadership, the leader delegates significant authority to their followers and allows them to operate independently. The leader provides little to no guidance or direction, and decisions are made by the subordinates without much interference or oversight from the leader.

When the followers are extremely talented and experienced, this leadership style can be effective, and do not require close supervision or direction. It can also be effective in creative fields, where subordinates need the freedom to experiment and explore new ideas without being constrained by rigid guidelines (Northouse, 2018). However, laissez-faire leadership can also lead to confusion and lack of direction among subordinates, particularly if they are not sufficiently motivated or do not have the necessary skills and expertise to make effective decisions on their own (Northouse, 2018). Therefore, it is important for leaders to assess the capabilities and motivation of their subordinates before employing this leadership style.

The 18th century is when laissez-faire leadership first emerged. French economist, Vincent de Gournay, who coined the phrase "Laissez faire, laissez passer" (let it be, let it pass) as a call for government non-interference in economic affairs (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). In the context of leadership, the laissez-faire style emerged in the early 20th century as a response to the highly autocratic leadership styles that were common at the time. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the laissez-faire style gained popularity as a reaction to the abuses of power by

autocratic leaders in the early industrial era. One of the early advocates of laissez-faire leadership was Mary Parker Follett, a pioneer in the field of management theory. Follett believed that effective leaders should create an environment of collaboration and empowerment, where employees are given the authority to decide for themselves and resolve issues on their own (Follett, 1924). However, the laissez-faire style of leadership has been criticized for its potential to lead to organizational chaos and confusion, as well as its tendency to create a lack of accountability and direction among subordinates (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Today, most leadership theorists advocate for a more balanced approach that incorporates aspects of both laissez-faire and more directive leadership styles, depending on the situation and the needs of the organization (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

There are several key aspects of laissez-faire leadership one of them that “laissez-faire leaders delegate authority and responsibility to their subordinates, trusting them to make decisions and take action in the best interests of the organization” (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). According to (Avolio & Bass, 2004) another aspect is that "Laissez-faire leaders provide minimal direction or guidance to their subordinates, instead allowing them to work independently and use their own judgment" (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Another one is that "Laissez-faire leaders are flexible and adaptable, able to respond to changes in the environment and adjust their leadership style accordingly" (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Lastly "Laissez-faire leaders trust their subordinates and believe that they are capable of making decisions and taking action without constant supervision or direction" (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

2.2. Motivation

Motivation can be defined as "the internal and external factors that drive and influence behavior, including the direction, intensity, and persistence of that behavior" (Ryan & Deci, 2000, p. 54). In other words, motivation is what prompts us to take action toward a particular goal or objective. Motivation is a complex concept that involves a variety of psychological, social, and biological factors. Some of the key factors that influence motivation include needs and desires, incentives and rewards, goals and expectations, self-efficacy, and personal values (Budur and Demir, 2022; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Understanding motivation is important in many different fields, including businesses as it can help individuals and organizations identify what drives behavior and develop strategies to increase motivation and improve outcomes. Motivation can be driven by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Intrinsic motivation comes from within, and is based on an individual's personal interests, values, and beliefs (Demir and Budur, 2022).

Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, comes from external factors, such as rewards, punishments, or the expectations of others (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The motivation of employees refers to the factors that drive and influence employees' behavior and performance within the workplace (Torlak et al., 2021). According to Latham and Pinder (2005), employee motivation is "the psychological forces that determine the direction, intensity, and persistence of an employee's behavior in the workplace". Employees who are motivated have a greater likelihood to be devoted, engaged, and successful at work. They are also more likely to be satisfied with their jobs and less likely to experience turnover or absenteeism (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Torlak et al., 2021).

Employee motivation can have a wide range of positive consequences for both employees and organizations (Demir et al., 2020). Some of the key consequences of employee motivation include: it increases productivity, Motivated workers have a greater probability to be devoted, focused, and engaged at work, which can increase output and efficiency (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Employee motivation increases job satisfaction because motivated workers are more likely to be pleased with their job and their organization-related contributions (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

Motivation also reduces turnover, motivated employees are less likely to leave their jobs, reducing the costs associated with turnover and recruitment (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Motivation of employees enhances creativity and innovation, because when employees are motivated, they are more likely to think creatively and come up with innovative ideas that can help drive the organization forward (Ryan & Deci, 2000). It improves customer satisfaction, motivated employees are more likely to provide high-quality customer service, leading to increased customer satisfaction and loyalty (Latham & Pinder, 2005). Overall, employee motivation is a critical component of organizational success, impacting everything from employee satisfaction and retention to productivity and customer service.

Employee motivation is critical for organizations for several reasons. Firstly, motivated employees tend to be more productive and engaged, which can lead to better overall performance and improved business outcomes. As Latham and Pinder (2005) note, "motivated employees are more likely to put forth effort, persist in the face of obstacles, and maintain goal-directed behavior, which in turn leads to higher levels of job performance". Secondly, employee motivation can have a positive impact on employee satisfaction and retention. When employees are motivated, they tend to feel more satisfied with their work and their

contributions to the organization, which can reduce the likelihood of turnover (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Finally, employee motivation can help organizations to foster a culture of creativity, innovation, and continuous improvement. When employees are motivated, they are more willing to take chances, think creatively, and generate fresh concepts that might help the business remain competitive and adjust to shifting market conditions (Latham & Pinder, 2005).

2.3. Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge sharing is the process of disseminating information, skills, or expertise among individuals or groups within an organization (Wang & Noe, 2010). It has been identified as an essential factor in enhancing organizational learning, innovation, and problem-solving (Argote, McEvily, & Reagans, 2003). Knowledge sharing can occur through various means, such as interpersonal communication, documentation, training, or mentoring (Wang & Noe, 2010). Numerous studies have emphasized the significance of information sharing for effective and successful organizational performance (Chen & Huang, 2018; Lin, 2017; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995).

Knowledge sharing can lead to several benefits for organizations, including increased productivity, better decision-making, and improved performance (Chen & Huang, 2018; Demir, 2019). Furthermore, knowledge sharing can facilitate the development of social and intellectual capital, which are essential for innovation and competitive advantage (Chen & Huang, 2018). However, knowledge sharing can also face several challenges, such as lack of trust, fear of losing job security, and lack of incentives and rewards (Wang & Noe, 2010). To promote knowledge sharing, organizations can implement several strategies, such as creating a culture of trust and openness, providing incentives and rewards, establishing knowledge management systems, and fostering social and intellectual capital (Chen & Huang, 2018; Wang & Noe, 2010).

Furthermore, organizations can also encourage knowledge sharing by promoting effective communication, promoting a collaborative and friendly work atmosphere, offering chances for training and growth (Lin, 2017). Organizational culture and climate play a significant role in promoting knowledge sharing. A positive organizational culture that values learning, collaboration, and innovation can facilitate knowledge sharing behaviours among employees (Choi & Lee, 2013; Lin, 2017). Knowledge sharing can contribute to individual and organizational learning and innovation. By sharing knowledge and expertise, employees can develop new insights, perspectives, and solutions to problems, leading to improved performance and competitive advantage (Argote & Ingram, 2000).

2.4. Knowledge Hiding

Knowledge hiding is when someone consciously tries to conceal or hide details that someone else has sought out (Connelly et al., 2012b). Knowledge hiding can be a reason for creating distrust and increase in competition between employees. (Connelly et al., 2019d) knowledge hiding is a multifaceted concept with three dimensions. Connelly et al. (2012) determined that reasoned knowledge hiding, in which the person hiding the information explains why it won't be made available, is the least deceptive manner of knowledge hiding. Other methods of knowledge hiding include evasive hiding, which involves the information hider giving the person making the request incorrect or incomplete information while playing dumb to avoid giving the requestor any information at all.

Knowledge concealment is more than just not sharing; it's a conscious effort to keep something from someone who has requested for it. Although behaviorally both of these factors may appear to be relatively similar, the reasons for keeping information to oneself and not sharing it are very different (Connelly et al., 2012b).

People still think about the possible personal cost they may incur by sharing knowledge, such as the fear of losing power or prestige (Ulrike et al., 2005) or the worry of being undervalued (Bordia et al., 2006). This is true even when they are aware that sharing knowledge may benefit the larger group. As a result, many people don't actually disclose everything they know (Babic et al., 2019; Connelly and Zweig, 2015; Cress et al., 2006).

3. Hypothesis Development

3.1 Impact of Democratic Leadership Style on Motivation

A study “The Impact of Democratic Leadership Style on Employee Motivation: A Study on Banking Sector in Bangladesh” that has been done in banking sector of Bangladesh shows that democratic leadership has positively effects employee motivation. The study shows that democratic leadership increase intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is a motivation that pushed by internal factors, and extrinsic motivation is driven by external factors.

This study shows that there are factors that affect the relationship of democratic leadership and employee motivation such as participation of employees in decision- making, observed support of the organization, and the exchange communication between the leader and the employees.

In general, the research proposes that democratic leadership style positively affect employee motivation.

Another research done in Saudi Arabian public hospital with the title of “The Impact of Leadership Style on Employee’s Motivation” the research studied about the effect of leadership styles on employee motivation.

The research also shows that democratic leadership style has a positive effect on motivation of employees in organizations. The study found that democratic leadership style has the ability to improve employee motivation by designing a helpful and supportive environment for employees which can help employees in encouraging them participate, involve and engage in decisions of the organization.

Based on these two studies we can come to the conclusion that democratic leadership style has significant relations with motivation of employees. Therefore, the following hypothesis have been developed;

H1 Democratic leadership significantly effects motivation of employee

3.2. Impact of Autocratic Leadership Style on Motivation

The study in Saudi Arabi (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016b) shows the impact of autocratic leadership style on employee motivation. The study found that autocratic leadership negatively affect the motivation of employees in the organizations, because autocratic leadership style makes a negative environment n workplace which leads to decreasing employee motivation. Leaders whose styles are autocratic do not lead employees to participate in decision making processes and they make decisions themselves without asking and consulting other employees. In conclusion, the study shows that autocratic leadership style is not a successful and efficient leadership style in for increasing motivation of employee in that sector.

Another study done by Iqbal, Anwar, and Haider (2015) in Pakistan, show that autocratic leadership style negatively impacts employee motivation. Since the autocratic leadership style has a nature that it limits participation of employees in participating in decision making, this leads employees to not engage and dissatisfaction. Autocratic leaders may also make extreme pressure on employees because they are result oriented and the most important thing for them is the target, this will lead to stress and employee burnout and causes reducing of motivation. In conclusion, the study shows that autocratic leadership style is one of the reasons for low employee motivation, reduced job satisfaction and high turnover.

Based on these two studies we can come to the conclusion that autocratic leadership style has significant relations with motivation of employees. Therefore, the following hypothesis have been developed;

H2 Autocratic leadership significantly effects employee motivation

3.3 Impact of Laissez-Faire Leadership on Motivation

a study done by Judge and Piccolo (2004) which data were gathered by using Literature Search (chapters, dissertations, papers, books, and unpublished reports; published between 1887 and 2003). They applied the meta-analytic procedures, divided the studies into moderator analyses, and performed regression analyses to arrive at the results. They discovered a negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and follower motivation.

According to Webb's 2003 study, "Presidential Leadership Behaviours Associated with Followers' Job Satisfaction, Motivation toward Extra Effort, and Presidencia," He obtained the data using a sample (MLQ) of 315 top student affairs, academic, and financial officers who were selected from among the 105 organizations that make up the Council for Christian Universities and Colleges. 70.8 percent of the participants—223—returned questionnaires. Results were obtained using descriptive statistics, which were used to explain the sample Means and SD. They discovered a strong and negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and the motivation for additional effort.

As a result, we determine that laissez-fair leadership negatively affects employe motivation n organizations. Thus, the hypothesis below developed;

H3 Laissez-Faire Leadership Significantly Effects Employee Motivation

3.4. Impact of Motivation on Knowledge Sharing

(Cruz et al., 2009) in their study “The influence of employee motivation on knowledge transfer” test if there is any relationship between motivation of employees and knowledge sharing in organisations. The study shows that employees that are motivated are more presumably engage in knowledge sharing and transferring events, this leads to an effective employee and organizational performance. Based on the findings there is a positive correlation between knowledge sharing and employee motivation.

Another study by Gagné (2009) suggests a knowledge-sharing motivation model, the model shows that motivation has a critical and important role to determine either individuals in an organization will engage for sharing knowledge or they will not engage for sharing knowledges

with others. There are six factors of motivation that effect knowledge sharing. The model includes six motivational factors that influence knowledge-sharing performances such as intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, perceived competence, positive affect, autonomy, and relatedness. According to Gagné (2009) when employees feel motivated in organizations to share their knowledge, they will also be more engaged and have willingness for supporting sharing knowledge behaviours, such as seeking feedback, collaborating with others, and actively participating in training and development programs.

An investigation of the effect of intrinsic motivation on organizational knowledge sharing was conducted by Todorova et al. in 2012. The study's findings demonstrated that intrinsic motivation significantly enhances knowledge sharing. Additionally, the study discovered that the link between intrinsic drive and information sharing is mediated by perceived organizational support. The study's conclusions point to the need for organizations to concentrate on enhancing intrinsic motivation through a variety of strategies, including giving workers challenging tasks and chances for personal development, as well as encouraging a culture of trust and collaboration to boost knowledge sharing among staff members.

Based on these three articles the following hypothesis was developed;

H4 Motivation of employee effects knowledge sharing Behaviour.

3.5. Impact of Motivation on Knowledge Hiding

Due to not having a study about impact of motivation on knowledge hiding, we predict that motivation has a negative impact on knowledge hiding by employees since it is kind of opposite of knowledge sharing. Not exactly opposite but the impacts and how they work are inversely.

So, the following hypothesis can be developed;

H5 Employee Motivation has Negative Impact on Knowledge Hiding Behaviour

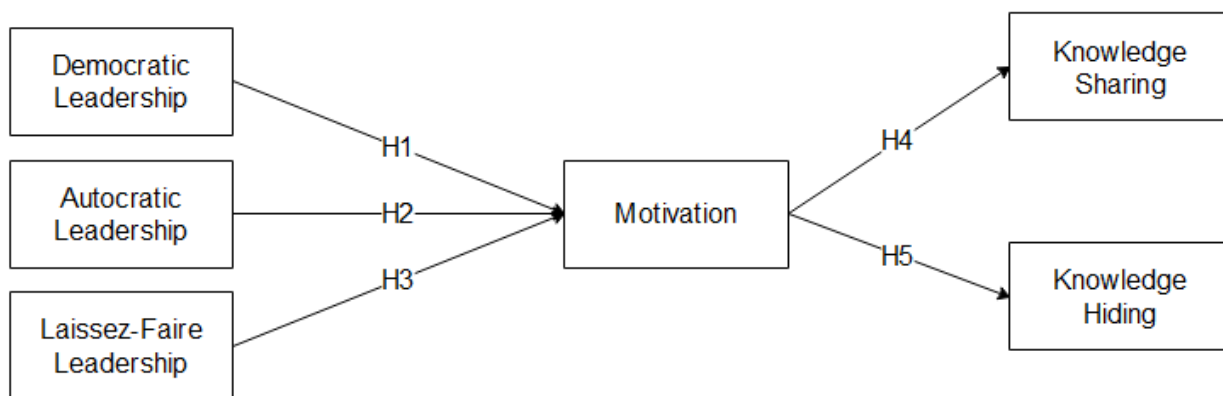


Figure 1 Hypothesis Development Diagram

Figure 1, shows the diagram of our hypothesis. It shows that, Democratic, Autocratic, Laissez-Faire leadership are dependent variables that are influenced by motivation which concluded in H1, H2 and H3. In addition, in H4 and H5 motivation is the dependent variable and Knowledge sharing and hiding are dependent variables that are influenced by motivation.

4. Methodology

4.1 sample

This study adopts a quantitative research design to investigate an appropriate leadership style for knowledge management in Kurdistan region of Iraq. The study targeted population which includes employees from different industries and sectors, including diverse job roles to capture a range of perspectives. A structured questionnaire was developed for collecting data.

Data collected from public and private sectors in Sulaymaniyah/Kurdistan Region of Iraq, such as (Directorate of Power Transmission of Sulaymaniyah, South Kurdistan Company).

We have distributed questionnaire to 203 employees in and we asked them to complete it in two or three day and we take it back. Before they answer we explained that this research is totally research oriented and no other motivation is behind it in order to make them aware of what they are filling, so we told them that they can quit any question they want which they may not be comfortable to answer. We did not force them to fill the questionnaire. After three days we collected all questionnaires back and entered data in to the excel.

As shown in Table 1, 133 of participants are male and 65 of them are females, with missing value of 5. Majority of participants age are above 46 years old, 60 of them are between 36 to 45 years old, 16 of them from 26-35 years old and 11 of the participant's age are between 18

to 25. We separated education levels into two parts 109 of responders have bachelor's degree or higher and 87 of them have high school degree or less. Majority of responders which are 123 responders have experience in there organization for more than 3 years, 40 of them have experience between 1 to 3 years, and 29 of them have experience of less than one year. 105 of participants are from public sector and 98 of them are from private sector.

Table 1 Demography Table

	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE	MISSING
GENDER			5
MALE	133	65	
FEMALE	65	32	
AGE			5
18-25	11	5.4	
26-35	16	7.9	
36-45	60	34	
46+	102	50.2	
EDUCATION			7
BECHELOR'S DEGREE OR MORE	109	53.7	
HIGH SCHOOL OR LESS	87	42.9	
EXPERIENCE			10
LESS THAN ONE YEAR	29	14.3	
1-3 YEARS	40	19.7	
MORE THAN 3 YEARS	123	61.1	
SECTOR			-
PUBLIC	105	51.3	
PRIVATE	98	48.3	

5. Research Finding

In this section, initially Cronbach's alpha was tested to find the reliability level of each dimension. Secondly, hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to find the effects of each independent variable on the dependent variables. To do this, we have utilized SPSS 24 software.

Reliability was tested to find how reliable the data was. In this context, reliability can be defined as the chance that one can get as result in case the same questions were asked to the same population in the same conditions. It is accepted that the data is reliable if that chance is above 0.7 or 70%.

Table 2 Cronbach's Alpha of Democratic Leadership Dimension

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
DL1	11.23	26.297	0.821	0.866	0.902
DL2	10.72	26.926	0.771	0.878	
DL3	11.22	28.876	0.731	0.886	
DL4	11.19	28.630	0.755	0.881	
DL5	11.01	28.793	0.705	0.891	

Given in the Table 1, it was observed that Cronbach's Alpha value of democratic leadership dimension was 0.902 which is considered as highly reliable. By another meaning, if the same questions related to the democratic leadership was asked to the same participants in the same conditions, 90% of chance the same results would be received back. Hence, dimension is concluded to be reliable enough. Secondly, Cronbach's alpha if item deleted section shows in case any question from the dimension is deleted, how the new Cronbach's Alpha would change. Based on the results, it was observed that in any item was deleted, new Cronbach's alpha would be less than 0.902, which is original Cronbach's Alpha value with all questions included. It shows that we already have sufficient Cronbach's Alpha which doesn't require any question to be deleted. As a conclusion, democratic leadership dimension of the questionnaire was highly reliable and no needed to delete any questions.

Table 3 Cronbach's Alpha of Autocratic Leadership Dimension

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
AL1	12.6	20.66	0.596	0.715	0.774
AL2	12.05	20.524	0.657	0.694	
AL3	12.5	21.207	0.588	0.718	
AL4	12.14	23.628	0.424	0.772	
AL5	12.13	23.049	0.474	0.756	

Table 2 shows the Cronbach's alpha analysis of autocratic leadership dimensions which the level was 0.774. the level is acceptable since it is more than 0.7 and that means it is reliable. This means if we ask same questions about democratic leadership to the same people in the same conditions, 77 percent of chance we would have the same responses. Therefore, dimension is reliable enough. Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted shows that if any question would be deleted, Cronbach's alpha would be less than 0.774, so there is no need to delete any question. As a result, based on Cronbach's alpha analysis dimension of the autocratic leadership of the questionnaire is reliable and no need to be changed.

Table 4 Cronbach's Alpha of Laissez-Faire Leadership Dimension

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
LF1	10.62	17.121	0.425	0.662	0.7
LF2	10.75	17.466	0.423	0.663	
LF3	10.88	16.164	0.488	0.636	
LF5	11.00	16.701	0.457	0.649	
LF6	10.91	15.982	0.480	0.639	

In Table 3 shows Cronbach's Alpha of Laissez-Faire Leadership Dimension, when we first run the Cronbach's alpha the level observed to be 0.63. this level is not acceptable, because dimension's Cronbach alpha level should be minimum 0.7 to be reliable and accepted. In this case, we should look at Cronbach's alpha section, there when deleted a dimension if the Cronbach's alpha increased then we must run the Cronbach's alpha analysis again by deleting the one which increases the level. When examined Laissez-Faire Leadership Dimension, by deleting question 4 Cronbach's alpha level observed to be 0.7. In this case, by removing fourth question from Laissez-Faire Leadership, and using question one, two, three, five and six, Cronbach's alpha test applied. Therefore, we came to the conclusion that by the result of reaching 0.7 which is enough level of reliability, we came to the conclusion that no other questions need to be deleted and no additional change is needed.

Table 5 Cronbach's Alpha of Motivation Dimension

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
M1	13.62	31.120	0.240	0.908	0.843
M2	12.59	24.667	0.663	0.807	
M3	12.56	22.829	0.803	0.767	
M4	12.56	22.717	0.788	0.771	
M5	12.69	22.940	0.801	0.768	

Table 4 shows the Cronbach's alpha of motivation dimension, and the level was 0.84 which is measured as reliable. Cronbach's alpha if Item Deleted section show us that by taking out first question, we can increase Cronbach's alpha to 0.9, but we do not do that because 0.84 is high and sufficient enough and can be continued with. As a conclusion, there is no immediate need to delete any questions because motivation dimension is reliable.

Table 6 Cronbach's Alpha of Knowledge-Sharing Dimension

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
KS1	16.72	31.688	0.351	0.732	0.738
KS2	16.66	30.213	0.477	0.701	
KS3	17.20	29.844	0.548	0.685	
KS4	17.26	31.136	0.465	0.704	
KS5	17.30	31.142	0.449	0.707	
KS6	17.17	34.313	0.309	0.736	
KS7	16.86	28.941	0.566	0.679	

Table 5 illustrates Cronbach's alpha of knowledge-sharing dimension. With the level of 0.74 it shows the items within the scale or questionnaire are reasonably correlated with each other. Cronbach's Alpha is Item Deleted shows that no need to take out any questions because by taking none of them the Cronbach's alpha level will increase and, in any case, it will reduce the level. Therefore, we continue with this result in which reliability is acceptable.

Table 7 Cronbach's Alpha of Knowledge-Hiding Dimension

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted	Cronbach's Alpha
KH1	7.67	15.074	0.552	0.768	0.793
KH2	7.70	14.332	0.640	0.723	
KH3	7.71	14.864	0.639	0.725	
KH4	7.85	15.501	0.584	0.751	

Cronbach's alpha of knowledge-hiding dimension shown in Table 6, it is observed that Cronbach's alpha level of knowledge-hiding in organizations is 0.79 which is an acceptable rate. as it is obvious in Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted section, in any case by deleting any question from the knowledge-hiding section, the Cronbach's alpha will reduce. 0.79 is a good level of internal consistency reliability for the measured construct. As a result, Cronbach's alpha of knowledge-hiding dimension is reliable enough and no need to delete any questions from the scale.

Table 8 Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results of the Hypothetical Framework

Independent	Dependent	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R Square
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
Democratic Leadership	Motivation	0.418	0.057	0.459	7.393	0.000	22.50%
Autocratic Leadership	Motivation	0.036	0.074	0.034	0.483	0.630	0.02%
Laissez Faire Leadership	Motivation	-0.232	0.095	-0.170	-2.432	0.016	2%

Table 9 Hierarchical Regression Analysis Results of the Hypothetical Framework 2

Coefficients ^a							
Independent	Dependent	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Adjusted R-Square
		B	Std. Error	Beta			

Motivation	Knowledge Sharing	0.310	0.050	0.405	6.242	0.000	16%
	Knowledge Hiding	-0.221	0.072	-0.211	-3.052	0.003	4%

Table 7, shows the hierarchical regression results, which shows us the relationship between variables such as democratic leadership, autocratic leadership, Laissez Faire Leadership, motivation, knowledge sharing, and knowledge hiding. Since we want to know how leadership styles effect motivation, the leadership styles here are independent variables and motivation is the dependent variable. We also want to understand if motivation has impact on knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding in organizations. In this case, motivation is the independent variable and knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding are independent variables.

Firstly, the positive coefficient of democratic leadership on motivation is 0.418, which indicates that democratic leadership positively effects motivation. With the high range of t-value which is 7.393, we can see that there is a strong and significant relationship between democratic leadership and motivation. There is a standardized coefficient of 0.459 which shows a moderately high impact of democratic leadership style on employee motivation level. A standardized coefficient of 0.459 shows that when a standard deviation of democratic leadership increases then 0.459 standard deviation of motivation increases. The adjusted r-square section shows how well the democratic leadership explain the motivation of employees. Here, around 22.5% of change in motivation can be influenced by democratic leadership.

Secondly, the coefficient of autocratic leadership on motivation is 0.036. It is positive but so weak that show a really weak positive relationship between autocratic leadership and motivation. The coefficient is not significant due to high range in p-value and low range in t-value. For coefficient in order to be significant p-value should be less than 0.05 and t-value farther from zero, more significant it is. In this case, p-value is 0.63 and t-value is 0.48. The standardized coefficient of autocratic leadership on motivation is 0.034. It is low because standardized coefficient where -1 represents a strong negative impact, 1 represents a strong positive impact. The weaker the coefficient, the weaker is the impact. The variance in motivation from autocratic leadership is too low, because adjusted r-square is 0.02% which is extremely low. This suggests a very weak impact of autocratic leadership on motivation.

Thirdly, based on the analysis, Laissez Faire Leadership has negative impact on employee motivation. Since the coefficient is -0.232, which when laissez-faire leadership increased by

one unit, motivation decreases by 0.232 if we assume that other factors are constant. The relationship between laissez-faire leadership and motivation is significant, but we understand from the coefficient that it is negatively significant. Which means, the more laissez-faire leadership style associated, the less employees will have motivation. The t-value is -2.432 which shows sufficient strength of the impact of laissez-faire leadership on motivation.

Following in Table 9, the coefficient of 0.310 is observed that there is a positive relationship between motivation and knowledge sharing. Increase in one unit of motivation increases 0.310 unit of knowledge sharing if all other variables stay constant. The standardized coefficient of 0.405 there is a positive and meaningful impact of motivation on knowledge sharing. Since higher t-value means stronger is the relationship and higher is the significance, therefore with the t-value of 6.242 we can conclude that motivation has significant positive impact on knowledge sharing in organizations. When motivation increases, knowledge sharing desire increases as well.

Lastly, there is an inversely relationship between motivation and knowledge hiding. We have a coefficient score of -0.221. which means that for one unit increase in motivation, there will be 0.221 unit reduction in knowledge hiding if other variables stay constant. The t-value of -3.052 indicates that there is a strong significant relationship between motivation and knowledge hiding, and the negative sign indicates that when motivation increases, knowledge hiding in the organizations reduces.

6. Conclusion

The aim of this research was to identify an appropriate leadership style for knowledge management and determine which leadership style has the most significant impact on motivation within the Kurdistan Region of Iraq. By conducting an analysis of leadership styles and their effects on motivation, this study sought to provide insights into effective leadership practices that enhance knowledge management and motivate individuals in the unique context of the Kurdistan Region.

For this purpose, we collected data from public and private organizations in Kurdistan such as (Directorate of Power Transmission of Sulaymaniyah, South Kurdistan Company). By using Cronbach's alpha an order to test the reliability of the data and regression analysis used to investigate [how leadership styles affect motivation and how knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding are influenced by motivation. Through the utilization of regression models, key relationships and factors contributing to motivation have been explored and analysed. The

findings of this study provide clarification on several important aspects, which are discussed below.

We found that, democratic leadership has positive impact on motivation, while autocratic leadership does not really impact motivation and laissez-faire leadership negatively affect employee motivation.

In other words, when there is an increase in democratic leadership, motivation of employees also increases, and vice versa, a reduction in democratic leadership, decreases motivation of employee. When a leader is a democratic leader and seeks input and ideas from team members and encourage participation in decision-making processes, it positively influences employee motivation. Because employees with democratic leader will not have the fair from results of decision making, they liked to ask about their opinion, but they will not be responsible for the decision making.

Results also show that autocratic leadership style does not influence motivation at all. Which means people in Kurdistan do not have problem with autocratic leaders at all, but it does not increase by increasing autocratic leaders either. This means employees in Kurdistan are fine with autocratic leader whose decide on things themselves and not let employees participate with their opinions. Hence, they prefer democratic leaders in order to increase their motivation.

According to the results, laissez-faire leadership affect motivation in a negative way, because generally employees in Kurdistan Region want someone to give them tasks and they finish the task without thinking critically. In case of any problem, they want their manager to solve for them and they do not want to be busy with it. In case of not getting these from there manager, their motivation decrease.

another finding is that motivation positively affects knowledge sharing. When employees have enough motivation, they will be able to share knowledge they have with their colleagues. Motivation is the trigger of behaviours of employees. If they work well, they will be motivated well. So, they have the willing for working well that is why they work well. Based on literature, motivation is the trigger of performance of employees and knowledge sharing is one of the performances of employees. Performance divided into mainly two parts, task performance and contextual performance. Contextual performance is a kind of organizational citizenship behaviour, such as how committed they are to their work. If they are committed to their work, they will also have the desire to help others, which is called helping behaviour. Sharing

behaviour such as knowledge sharing is a helping behaviour. As a result, if employees are motivated well their helping desire with other will be positively impacted.

Knowledge hiding is kind of opposite of knowledge sharing. Our results also prove that. When the employee is not well committed to the organization and not well motivated in the work environment, so it effects the knowledge hiding negatively an ill reduce. But it is necessary to mention that knowledge sharing and knowledge hiding are not opposite of each other, if they were totally opposite, motivation would affect 0.310 to the sharing and -0.310 to the hiding, but it is not so. But it affects knowledge hiding less strongly.

Positive things might have effect on the positive results more, than the positive things has on negative things. For example, democratic leadership has a big impact on motivation and motivation has a big impact on knowledge sharing, but autocratic leadership and Laissez-Faire leadership does not have such an impact on motivation and motivation does not have a big impact on knowledge hiding, because one is positive and one is negative.

REFERENCE LIST:

- Alavi, M., & Leidner, D. E. (2001). Knowledge management and knowledge management systems: Conceptual foundations and research issues. *MIS Quarterly*, 25(1), 107-136.
- Alghazo, A., & Al-Anazi, M. (2016). The Impact of Leadership Style on Employee's Motivation. *ResearchGate*.
- Amini, M. Y., Mulavizada, S., & Nikzad, H. (2019). The impact of autocratic, democratic and laissez-fair leadership style on employee motivation and commitment: a case study of Afghan wireless communication company (Awcc). *IOSR Journal of Business and Management*, 21(6), 45-50.
- Argote, L., & Ingram, P. (2000). Knowledge transfer: A basis for competitive advantage in firms. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 82(1), 150-169.
- Argote, L., McEvily, B., & Reagans, R. (2003). Managing knowledge in organizations: An integrative framework and review of emerging themes. *Management Science*, 49(4), 571-582.
- Avolio, B. J. & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: *Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership*. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (3), 315-338.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). *Mind Garden*.
- Avolio, B. J., & Yammarino, F. J. (2013). *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead*. Emerald Group Publishing.
- Babič, K., Černe, M., Connelly, C. E., Dysvik, A., & Škerlavaj, M. (2019). Are we in this together? Knowledge hiding in teams, collective prosocial motivation and leader-member exchange. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 23(8), 1502–1522.
- Bakotić, D. (2016). Relationship between employee motivation and job performance. *Business Systems Research Journal*, 7(1), 43-56.

- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Developing Transformational Leadership: 1992 and Beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 14(5).
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). Psychology Press.
- Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications. Free Press.
- Blanch, J., Gil, F., Antino, M., & Rodríguez-Muñoz, A. (2016). *Positive leadership models: Theoretical framework and research*. Psychologist Papers, 37(3), 170-176.
- Bordia, P., Irmer, B.E. and Abusah, D. (2006), "Differences in sharing knowledge interpersonally and via databases: the role of evaluation apprehension and perceived benefits", *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 15 No. 3, pp. 262-280.
- Buch, K., & Rivers, D. (2001). TQM: the role of leadership and culture. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*.
- Budur, T. (2018). The impact of Al-Ghazali's virtues on organizational commitment and performance: A case Study at private education institutions in Kurdistan Region of Iraq. *Icabep, Erbil-Iraq*, 2, p21.
- Budur, T., & Demir, A. (2019). Leadership effects on employee perception about CSR in Kurdistan Region of Iraq. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 5(4), 184-192.
- Budur, T., & Demir, A. (2022). The relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance: Mediating effects of organizational citizenship behaviors. *Iranian Journal of Management Studies*.
- Budur, T., & Poturak, M. (2021a). Transformational leadership and its impact on customer satisfaction. Measuring mediating effects of organisational citizenship behaviours. *Middle East Journal of Management*, 8(1), 67-91.
- Budur, T., & Poturak, M. (2021b). Employee performance and customer loyalty: Mediation effect of customer satisfaction. *Middle East Journal of Management*, 8(5), 453-474.
- Budur, T., Demirer, H. and Rashid, C.A. (2023), "The effects of knowledge sharing on innovative behaviours of academicians; mediating effect of innovative organization culture and quality of work life", *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-08-2022-0257>
- Cameron, K. (2013). *Practicing positive leadership: Tools and techniques that create extraordinary results*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Cameron, K. S., Wooten, L. P., Garcea, N., Linley, P. A., & Harrington, S. (2010). Enablers of a positive strategy: Positively deviant leadership. *handbook of positive psychology and work*, 53-65.
- Cameron, K., & Plews, E. (2012). Positive leadership in action:: Applications of POS by Jim Mallozzi, CEO, Prudential Real Estate and Relocation. *Organizational Dynamics*, 41(2), 99-105.
- Chen, C. J., & Huang, J. W. (2013). Strategic human resource practices and innovation performance—The mediating role of knowledge management capacity. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(10), 2199-2206.
- Chen, Y., & Guo, Y. (2019). The mediating effect of job satisfaction on the relationship between perceived organizational support and employee productivity. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 10, 1682.
- Chen, Y., & Huang, J. (2018). How knowledge sharing motivates innovation: Social capital and intellectual capital as mediating mechanisms. *Journal of Business Research*, 89, 210-222.
- Choi, B., & Lee, H. (2013). Knowledge sharing behaviors of physicians in hospitals. *Expert Systems with Applications*, 40(10), 4433-4440

- Chukwusa, J. (2018). Autocratic Leadership Style: Obstacle to Success in Academic Libraries. *Library Philosophy and Practice*, 1.
- Colbert, A. E., & Witt, L. A. (2009). The role of goal-focused leadership in enabling the expression of conscientiousness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(3), 790.
- Connelly, C. E., & Zweig, D. (2015). Knowledge sharing and innovation in organizations. *In Handbook of innovation and creativity* (pp. 507-521). Elsevier.
- Connelly, C. E., Černe, M., Dysvik, A., & Škerlavaj, M. (2012). Understanding knowledge hiding in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(1), 64-88.
- Connelly, C. E., Černe, M., Dysvik, A., & Škerlavaj, M. (2019c). Understanding knowledge hiding in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 40(7), 779-782.
- Connelly, C. E., Zweig, D., Webster, J., & Trougakos, J. P. (2012b). Knowledge hiding in organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33(1), 64-88.
- Cress, K., Kimmerle, J. and Hesse, F.W. (2006), "Information exchange with shared databases as a social dilemma: the effect of metaknowledge, bonus systems, and costs", *Communications Research*, Vol. 33 No. 5, pp. 370-390.
- Cruz, N. M., Perez, V. L., & Cantero, C. T. (2009). The influence of employee motivation on knowledge transfer. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 13(6), 478-490.
- Cruz-Ortiz, V., Salanova, M., & Martínez, I. M. (2013). Liderazgo transformacional y desempeño grupal: unidos por el engagement grupal. *Revista de Psicología Social*, 28(2), 183-196.
- DeChurch, L. A., & Mesmer-Magnus, J. R. (2010). The cognitive underpinnings of effective teamwork: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 32-53.
- Demir, A. and Budur, T. (2022), "Work-life balance and performance relations during COVID 19 outbreak: a case study among university academic staff", *Journal of Applied Research in Higher Education*, Vol. ahead-of-print No. ahead-of-print. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JARHE-07-2021-0287>
- Demir, A., Budur, T., & Heshmati, A. (2020). Antecedents of trust, corporate image, and switching costs: a case in telecommunication services in the Kurdistan region of Iraq. *International Journal of Mobile Communications*, 19(1), 53-74.
- Demir, A., Budur, T., Hiwa, M., & Heshmati, A. (2023). Links between Knowledge Management and Organizational Sustainability: Does the ISO 9001 certification have an effect? *Knowledge Management Research & Practice (TKMR)*, Doi: 10.1080/14778238.2020.1860663
- Demir, A., Kiziloglu, M., Budur, T., & Heshmati, A. (2022). Elaborating on the links between declarative knowledge, procedural knowledge, and employee performance. *SN Business & Economics*, 3(1), 23.
- Demir, A., & Bulut, I. (2018). A new model for respected meetings. *Procedia Computer Science*, 126, 1637-1655.
- Demir, A. (2022). Impact of internal marketing on the customer perceptions in SMEs. *International Journal of Services and Operations Management*, 42(3), 379-396.
- Demir, A. (2021). Inter-continental review for diffusion rate and internal-external benefits of ISO 9000 QMS. *International Journal of Productivity and Quality Management*, 33(3), 336-366.
- Demir, A. (2019). THE IMPACT OF STRATEGIC OPERATIONS MANAGEMENT DECISIONS ON SHOPPERS'WELLBEING. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 24(1).

- Devadass, M., & Shanthi, R. (2015). Employee motivation: A study on employees of private sector manufacturing enterprises in Tamil Nadu. *International Journal of Management, IT and Engineering*, 5(4), 55-68.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. *McGraw-Hill*.
- Flynn, G. (1999). COVER STORY PACKAGE-Stop Toxic Managers Before They Stop You. *Workforce-Boulder*, 40-46.
- Follett, M. P. (1924). Creative experience. *Longmans, Green & Company*.
- Gagné, M. (2009). A model of knowledge-sharing motivation. *Human Resource Management*, 48(4), 571–589.
- Gardner, J. W. (1990). On leadership. *Free Press*.
- Gherardi, S., & Nicolini, D. (2002). Learning in a constellation of interconnected practices: Canon or dissonance? *Journal of Management Studies*, 39(4), 419-436.
- Graen, G. B. (1976). Role-making processes within complex organizations. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1201–1245). Rand McNally.
- Grant, R. M. (1996). Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm. *Strategic Management Journal*, 17(S2), 109-122.
- Gupta, R., & Kumar, R. (2019). The impact of employee performance on organizational performance: A case study of manufacturing companies in India. *Journal of Management Development*, 38(3), 205-221.
- Gupta, S., & Krishnan, V. R. (2016). Autocratic leadership. In *Encyclopedia of Human Resource Management* (pp. 97-98). *Edward Elgar Publishing*.
- Hadžiahmetović, N., Demir, S., & Budur, T. (2022). Leadership Style and Affective Commitment at Family Businesses. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 9(1), 318-335.
- Harter, J. K., Schmidt, F. L., & Hayes, T. L. (2002). Business-unit-level relationship between employee satisfaction, employee engagement, and business outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2), 268-279.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. H. (1977). *Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources*. *Prentice-Hall*.
- Hogan, R., & Kaiser, R. B. (2005). What we know about leadership. *Review of General Psychology*, 9(2), 169-180.
- Indradevi, R. (2016). Toxic leadership over the years—a review. *PURUSHARTHA-A journal of Management, Ethics and Spirituality*, 9(1), 106-110.
- Iqbal, N., Anwar, S., & Haider, N. (2015). Effect of leadership style on employee performance. *Arabian journal of business and management review*, 5(5), 1-6.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1), 36-51.
- Kahai S. S., Sosik J. J., Avolio B. J. (1997). Effects of leadership style and problem structure on work group process and outcomes in an electronic meeting system environment. *Pers. Psychol.* 50 121–146
- Kearney, E., & Gebert, D. (2009). Managing diversity and enhancing team outcomes: The promise of transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(1), 77–89.
- Kelloway, E. K., Weigand, H., Mckee, M. C., & Das, H. (2013). Positive leadership and employee well-being. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 20(1), 107-117.

- Latham, G. P., & Pinder, C. C. (2005). Work motivation theory and research at the dawn of the twenty-first century. *Annual review of psychology*, 56, 485-516.
- Lee, J., & Bruvold, N. T. (2003). Creating value for employees: Investment in employee development. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(6), 981-1000.
- Lee, K. C., Kim, Y. J., & Kim, B. (2018). The effect of knowledge sharing and learning on organizational performance. *Journal of Open Innovation: Technology, Market, and Complexity*, 4(4), 49.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10(2), 271-301.
- Liao, H., Chuang, A., & To, P. L. (2008). How knowledge management mediates the relationship between environment and organizational innovation. *Journal of Business Research*, 61(7), 623-630.
- Lin, H. E. (2017). The effects of knowledge sharing on organizational performance in small and medium enterprises. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 21(1), 221-236.
- Irike, C., Beatriz, B., Jurgen, B. and Friedrich, H.W. (2005), "Social dilemma in knowledge communication via shared databases", *Barriers and Biases in Computer-Mediated Knowledge Communication*, Vol. 5 No. 1, pp. 143-167.
- Macey, W. H., & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 1(1), 3-30.
- Maslennikova, L. (2007). Leader-centered versus follower-centered leadership styles. *Leadership Advance Online*, 11, 20.
- Miao, R., Newman, A., Yu, J., & Xu, L. (2013). The relationship between abusive supervision and knowledge hiding: A boundary condition of job insecurity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(7), 956-972.
- Mishra, A., & Mahapatra, M. (2017). Servant leadership: A necessity for competitive advantage. *ICRBS-2017, 2017*.
- Mohammed, S. S., Suleyman, C., & Taylan, B. (2020). Burnout Determinants and Consequences Among University Lecturers. *Amazonia Investiga*, 9(27), 13-24.
- Nadeem, M., Liu, Z., Ghani, U., Younis, A., & Xu, Y. (2020). Impact of shared goals on knowledge hiding behavior: the moderating role of trust. *Management Decision*, 59(6), 1312-1332.
- Nanjundeswaraswamy, rtvrT. S., & Swamy, D. R. (2014). Leadership styles. *Advances in management*, 7(2), 57.
- Nonaka, I., & Takeuchi, H. (1995). The knowledge-creating company: How Japanese companies create the dynamics of innovation. Oxford University Press.
- Northouse, P. G. (2018). Leadership: Theory and practice (8th ed.). *Sage Publications*
- Poturak, M., Mekić, E., Hadžiahmetović, N., & Budur, T. (2020). Effectiveness of Transformational Leadership among Different Cultures. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 7(3), 119-129.
- Rashid, C. A., Salih, H. A., & Budur, T. (2020). The Role of Online Teaching Tools on the Perception of the Students during the Lockdown of Covid-19. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Educational Studies*, 7(3), 178-190.
- Reed, G. E. (2004). Toxic leadership. *Military review*, 84(4), 67-71.
- Rodríguez-Muñoz, A., Gil, F., & Moreno-Jiménez, B. (2012). Factores organizacionales y acoso psicológico en el trabajo: el papel moderador del liderazgo "laissez-faire". *Revista de Psicología Social*, 27(2), 221-231.

- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary educational psychology*, 25(1), 54-67.
- Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 21(7), 600-619.
- Salanova, M., Agut, S., & Peiró, J. M. (2010). Linking organizational resources and work engagement to employee performance and customer loyalty: The mediation of service climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(4), 674-687.
- Salma, U., Ridzuan, D. M., & Liu, Y. (2015). Transactional or Transformational Leadership: Which Works Best for Now? *Industrial Management*.
- Schmidt, A. A. (2008). *Development and validation of the toxic leadership scale*. University of Maryland, College Park.
- Schneider, B., González-Romá, V., Ostroff, C., & West, M. A. (2017). Organizational climate and culture: Reflections on the history of the constructs in JAP. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(3), 468-482.
- Skogstad, A., Einarsen, S., Torsheim, T., Aasland, M. S., & Hetland, H. (2007). The destructiveness of laissez-faire leadership behavior. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 12(1), 80.
- Tajeddini, K., Budur, T., Gamage, T.C., Demir, A., Zaim, H. and Topal, R. (2023), "Impact of diversity management on innovative work behavior: mediating role of human resource management and affective commitment", *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 42 No. 1, pp. 29-53.
- Tannenbaum, R., & Schmidt, W. H. (1958). How to choose a leadership pattern. *Harvard Business Review*, 36(2), 95-101.
- Teo, T. S., & Wong, S. F. (1998). An empirical study of the effects of information sharing on innovation in high-technology firms. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 2(04), 409-430.
- Torlak, N. G., Demir, A., & Budur, T. (2019). Impact of operations management strategies on customer satisfaction and behavioral intentions at café-restaurants. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*. Vol. 69 No. 9, pp. 1903-1924.
- Torlak, N. G., Demir, A., & Budur, T. (2021). Decision-making, leadership and performance links in private education institutes. *Rajagiri Management Journal*. Doi:10.1108/RAMJ-10-2020-0061.
- Torlak, N. G., Kuzey, C., Sait Dinç, M., & Budur, T. (2021). Links connecting nurses' planned behavior, burnout, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Workplace Behavioral Health*, 36(1), 77-103.
- Ulle, R. S., & Kumar, A. S. (2014). A Review on Total Quality Leadership in TQM Practices-Industrial Management and Organizations. *International Journal of Emerging Research in Management & Technology*, 3(5), 152-155.
- Wang, G., Oh, I.-S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & Organization Management*, 36(2), 223-270
- Wang, L., & Noe, R. A. (2010). Knowledge sharing: A review and directions for future research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 20(2), 115-131.
- Wang, Q., Hou, H., & Li, Z. (2022). Participative Leadership: A Literature Review and Prospects for Future Research. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13.
- Webb, K. S. (2003). Presidents' leadership behaviors associated with followers' job satisfaction, motivation toward extra effort, and presidential effectiveness at evangelical colleges and universities. *University of North Texas*.
- Wilson-Starks, K. Y. (2003). Toxic leadership. *Transleadership, Inc, 1*, 2016.

- Wong, P. T., Davey, D., & Church, F. B. (2007). Best practices in servant leadership. *Servant Leadership Research Roundtable, School of Global Leadership and Entrepreneurship, Regent University*, 7(1), 1.
- Yeh, Y. J., & Liu, Y. T. (2020). The relationship between employee performance and company productivity. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 1-10.
- Young, M., & Dulewicz, V. (2006). Leadership styles, change context and leader performance in the Royal Navy. *Journal of Change Management*, 6(4), 383-396.
- Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in organizations. Prentice Hall.*
- Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations (8th ed.). Pearson.*
- Zack, M. H. (1999). Managing codified knowledge. *Sloan Management Review*, 40(4), 45-58.
- Zaim, H., Demir, A., & Budur, T. (2020). Ethical leadership, effectiveness and team performance: An Islamic perspective. *Middle East Journal of Management*, 8(1), 42-66.