How does Knowledge hiding behavior affect subjective career success? Moderating Role of Barriers to Career

Abstract

Using conservation of resources (COR) theory, this study investigates the moderating role of barriers to career in the relationship between the three dimensions of knowledge hiding behavior (evasive, rationalized, and playing dumb) and the two dimensions of subjective career success (organization and non-organization). To accomplish this objective, data collected from 280 knowledge workers from diverse industries was analyzed using the Warp partial least squares (Warp PLS) technique. The results supported most of the hypotheses and contributed to the COR theory by identifying the conditions under which the employees' tendency of conserving their resources would change the thoughts about their career success. Organizations may use the findings of the present study to take an informed decision by knowing when they should do a human resource development intervention to minimize the impact of knowledge hiding on subjective career success of their knowledge workers.

Keywords: conservation of resources, knowledge hiding behavior, subjective career success, barriers to career.

1. Introduction

Humanity may take years to recover from the COVID-19 pandemic (Ozili & Arun, 2020). Owing to the recent outbreak of the novel Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, the knowledge-intensive organizations are trying to gain maximum productivity with a minimal workforce, a strategy to remain competitive in the market (König et al., 2020). However, it requires enabling the knowledge workers, the individuals employed primarily because of their knowledge, to invest their heads, hearts, and hands for identifying and leveraging the collective knowledge in an organization (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Chiu et al., 2006). Research in the past suggests that knowledge sharing behaviors of knowledge workers has an impact on their career success

(Aslam et al., 2013; Meflinda et al., 2018). Unlike knowledge sharing, hiding knowledge from coworkers avoids resource loss and accumulates competitive advantages over others (Aslam et al., 2013; Meflinda et al., 2018). However, there is a paucity of work that examines the influence of knowledge hiding behaviors on subjective career success (Li et al., 2022).

There are antecedents to knowledge hiding behavior. A limited amount of research has been conducted in the area of knowledge hiding (Černe et al., 2014). It is generally governed by implicit or explicit social exchanges between colleagues (Blau, 1964). There is a low level of knowledge hiding when a norm of reciprocity exists among co-workers (Černe et al., 2014). During crisis, when an employee retains his/her threatened resources, (s)he may use knowledge hiding as a means of circumventing any adverse effects of sharing resources (Riaz, Xu & Hussain, 2019). Knowledge hiding can be prevented by exploring its precursors and outcomes. A few studies also discuss the antecedents of knowledge hiding in the context of organizational crisis (Riaz, Xu & Hussain, 2019; Černe et al., 2014; Smith & Trebilcock, 2001; Abualoush et al., 2018).

Prior studies caution organizations of such behaviors. For example, Serenko and Bontis (2016) discovered that job insecurity promotes the behavior of knowledge hiding, an intentional attempt of withholding or concealing knowledge to not benefit others. In difficult times, such counter-productive behaviors can be even riskier (Riaz, Xu & Hussain, 2019; Černe et al., 2014; Smith & Trebilcock, 2001; Abualoush et al., 2018). Though, this impact is expected to change when there exist barriers to career. Scholars agree that the difficult times are going to bring a new normal and thus, there is a need to re-visit the knowledge management theories through this lens. In an era when knowledge workers are the driving force for any knowledge-centric organizations, retaining talented knowledge workers requires employees to perceive career success (Riaz, Xu & Hussain, 2019; Černe et al., 2014). Such a disruption is expected to severely impact not only countries and governments but also organizations around the world.

The questions remain unexplored therefore are.

RQ 1: In what ways knowledge hiding behaviors affect subjective career success?

RQ 2: Does barriers to career buffer the relationship between knowledge hiding behaviors affect subjective career success? and

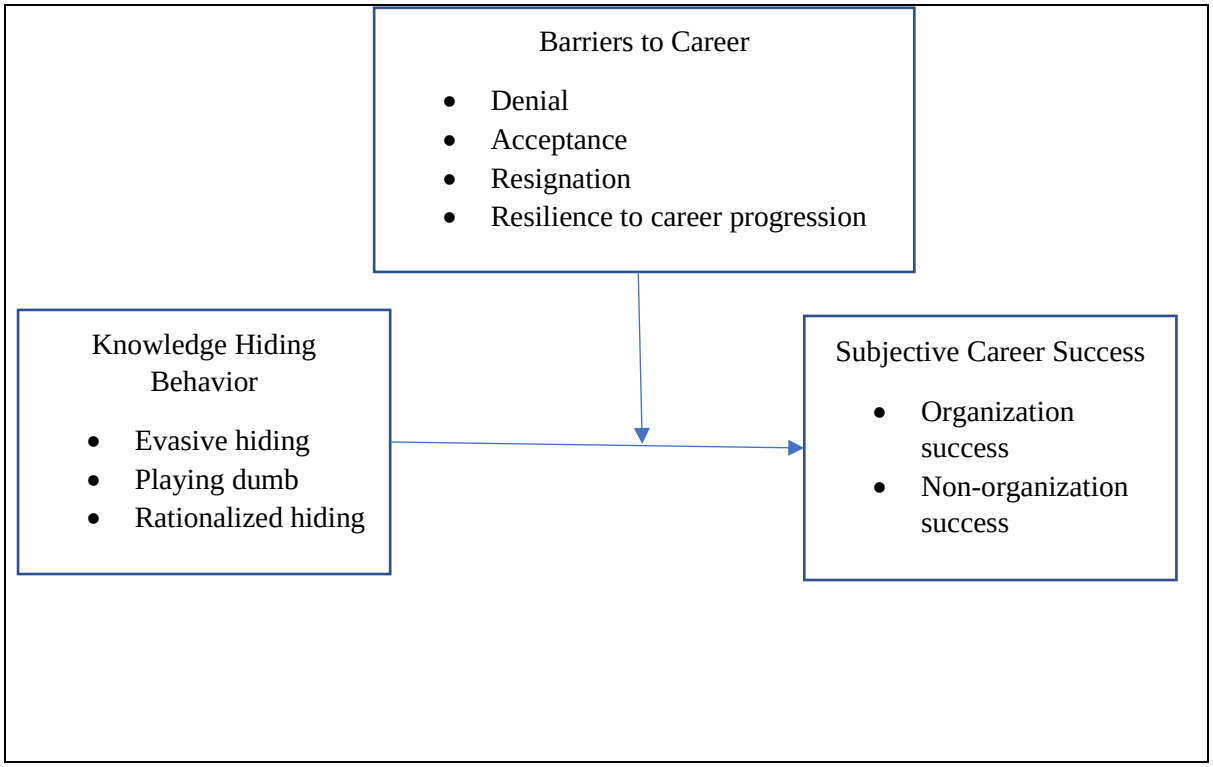
RQ 3: Which sub-components of this model are key to explaining the model?

2. Theoretical Formation and Hypothesis Development

There exist two approaches to view the concept of career (Van Maanen & Schein, 1977). According to Nguyen et al., 2022, they describe the typical steps leading to success in a profession. A company may offer horizontal benefits including higher job security and more vacations or hierarchical benefits such as promotion or a change in the job title. Whereas, internal approach comprises a within occupation career development preferences (Malik & Sanders, 2021). At present, little is known about how an individual's own needs and values can influence his or her career decision (see Schein, 1976 for more information). According to literature, employees who hide knowledge perceive that their careers will be successful since they hold the knowledge, and the organization will depend on them.

The conservation of resources (COR) theory postulates that individuals attempt to accumulate, retain, and maintain their valuable resources, which can be in the form of objects, personal characteristics, conditions, and energies (Westman et al., 2004). The theory further states that stress occurs when individuals perceive the actual or possible loss of their resources or the non-existence of an expected resource gain (Hobfoll , 2001). Perceived stress, in turn, has negative ramifications for an individual's outputs. It goes along with the COR theory that the tendency of employees trying to use their resources depends on the presence of certain conditions such as highly political context etc. (Westman et al., 2004). This study wishes to find out that in presence of barriers to career, whether this tendency to hide knowledge has a significant impact on subjective career success (Westman et al., 2004). Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of the study based on the three areas of Knowledge Hiding Behavior, Barriers to Career and Subjective Career Success.

Figure 1: Hypothesized conceptual framework



Even though organizations have attempted to enhance knowledge transfer (Phelps et al., 2012; Staples & Webster, 2008; Černe et al., 2014), success has eluded them. Interestingly, despite supportive organizational practices (Phelps et al., 2012; Staples & Webster, 2008; Černe et al., 2014), employees are unwilling to share their knowledge. The paper proposes and investigates knowledge hiding as a result. An analysis of knowledge hiding, knowledge hoarding, and knowledge sharing is presented (Černe et al., 2014). Additionally, we identify several predictors of knowledge hiding in organizations (Zhao et al., 2016). Collaboration is assumed in academic knowledge work (Zhao et al., 2016). It also involves competitive pressures to outperform the competition (Zhao et al., 2016). The present study examines the personal (individual) and situational (work-related) factors that affect evasive knowledge hiding (EKH). Thus, hypothesis one is formed (Phelps et al., 2012; Staples & Webster, 2008; Barner et al., 2014).

H1a: Evasive hiding behavior has a negative impact on organizational success.

Knowledge is a strategic asset for organizations. R&D creates and transfers knowledge within organizations (Strambach, 2008; Jha & Varkkey, 2018). In an organization, R&D projects must be innovative and transfer knowledge to employees. R&D employees are prone to hiding knowledge due to factors Varkkey & Jha (2018) investigated. As opposed to being forced to share knowledge, individuals are in control of their own behavior (Kelloway and Barling, 2000), but may be motivated and encouraged (rather than pressured). Organizations have tried

a variety of strategies to encourage knowledge sharing among their employees (Hislop, 2003). It has been studied what motivates people to share their knowledge in the workplace by Husted and Michailova (2002) and Wittenbaum et al. (2004), yet reluctance continues (Bock et al., 2005; Swap et al., 2001). Scholars have therefore explored fresh and better ways to stimulate knowledge sharing. Connelly et al. (2012) was among the firsts in conceptualizing the term, knowledge hiding behavior as a behaviour involving intentionally withholding information that has been requested by another individual.

H1b: Evasive hiding behavior has a negative impact on non-organizational success.

We will make use of this overarching framework in the current study to explore personal (individual-level) as well as contextual (job-related) factors that influence evasive knowledge hiding in the workplace (Kelloway and Barling, 2000). Individuals hold knowledge and its sharing depends on their inclination to share it (Dong et al., 2017). There are some employees who do not share their knowledge with their colleagues (Szulanski, 2000) or even conceal information (Connelly et al., 2012), resulting in high costs. Hidden knowledge can affect a worker's reputation negatively, as well as his/her ability to thrive in the workplace (Jiang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2016). Although these studies and others have confirmed that knowledge hiding negatively impacts innovative behavior (Karim, 2020; Rhee & Choi, 2017), they do not explain why employees might engage in this possibly dangerous act. Hypothesis two is thus formed.

H2a: Playing dumb behavior has a negative impact on organizational success.

The non-organizational success refers to sets annual mission-critical goals and objectives, and its success is determined by whether or not they are achieved (Husted & Michailova, 2002; Wittenbaum et al., 2004). The goals include factors such as the number of volunteers, the number of clients served and the amount of money raised, as well as the building of reputations (Bock et al., 2005; Swap et al., 2001). According to Zahra and George, absorption capacity can be categorized as follows: Potential capacity is divided into realized capacity. In other words, it refers to the ability to recognize and acquire novel peripheral knowledge (Yeoh, 2009). A company's acquisition capacity is characterized by close personal contacts, mutual trust, and respect among colleagues. Based on these team qualities, it is cost-effective to identify and obtain innovative knowledge (Bjorvatn & Wald, 2018; Zahra & George, 2002). The assimilation capacity of a team measures its ability to collaborate across experts and departments (Bjorvatn & Wald, 2018; Zahra & George, 2002). By integrating existing and

newly acquired knowledge into operations, Fong et al. (2018) define realized capacity as the capability to create new visions and significance. The ability to adapt prior and innovative knowledge is a transformational capacity.

H2b: Playing dumb behavior has a negative impact on non-organizational success.

Connelly et al. (2012) defined the construct of knowledge hiding in terms of the behaviour of withholding or concealing information, ideas, or know-how. It is possible for employees to share unimportant information with colleagues while concealing vital information at the same time (Ford & Staples, 2008). Thus, there is a possibility of knowledge sharing and hiding having different mechanisms and precursors (Connelly et al., 2012; Peng, 2013). As a means of rationalizing hiding behavior, the hider explains why he or she cannot provide information or accuses the second party (Connelly et al., 2012). Muhammad Waseem Bar (2019) examined the effects of evasive, dumb, and rationalized knowledge hiding on team creativity. According to the study, knowledge hiding had a negative influence on team creativity. Also, perceived mastery motivational climate was found to be moderating the between knowledge hiding - team creativity relationship negatively. The creative process is negatively affected by evasive hiding and playing dumb. However, this relationship is unaffected by rationalized hiding. Playing dumb and hiding evasively can moderate perceived mastery motivational climates, but rationalized hiding cannot.

H3a: Rationalized hiding behavior has a negative impact on organizational success.

As explained by Connelly et al. (2012), there are several factors of KH that have varying effects (Webster et al., 2008). Compared to rationalized hiding, in which explanations are given for not providing the required knowledge, there is a significant risk associated with pervasive hiding (Webster et al., 2008). In contrast, KH's "playing dumb" behavior has less impact on teammate social interactions (Connelly et al., 2012). Compared to the other two factors of KH, positive objectives may be more closely related to rationalized hiding such as if KH is not hurtful (Connelly & Zweig, 2015). Three factors of knowledge hiding prevent colleagues from developing innovative ideas, as well as adversely affecting the creativity of the knowledge hider as an individual and the group as a whole (Černe et al., 2014). TC may be affected to varying degrees by factors of KH. Next hypothesis is:

H3b: Rationalized hiding behavior has a negative impact on non-organizational success.

Researchers should consider the dark side of knowledge management when considering evasive hiding, according to Duffy et al. (2002). Knowledge hiding is entirely different from knowledge hoarding, counterproductive work habits, and failure to share knowledge (C*erne et al., 2014). Lack of time, inadequate channels, and unforeseeable circumstances may be contributing factors to hoarding behavior and failure to share knowledge (Černe et al., 2014; Peng, 2013). It is possible that knowledge hiding was not motivated by hurting others' feelings. Some employees hide secrets from their colleagues out of a sense of responsibility, while others don't point out their colleagues' mistakes to avoid conflict (Černe et al., 2014). Alternatively, counterproductive work behavior can produce a sense of contempt for others' opinions, which can negatively impact an organization. Knowledge hiding does not contradict knowledge sharing; both feature good discriminate validity, and knowledge hiding differs from knowledge hoarding, according to Connelly et al (2012).

Employees provide justifications for hiding information (Connelly et al., 2012). It is not uncommon for a co-worker to refuse to provide a copy of a report when an employee requests it (Connelly et al., 2012). Despite the absence of deception, the requested knowledge is not forthcoming in this case. Connelly and Zweig (2015) have found that rationalized hiding is more strongly associated with positive intentions than other types of knowledge hiding. During evasive hiding, a person hesitates and delays knowledge delivery or provides less information than needed (Connelly et al., 2012). Furthermore, employees may conceal information or provide incorrect information in the future despite intending to conceal it (Connelly et al., 2012). If a colleague receives a request and provides some of the requested knowledge, but not all. It is possible (but not necessarily) that dishonesty is involved. As a result, the moderating variables are as follows.

H4a: Playing dumb moderates the relationship between evasive hiding, rationalized hiding, and denial.

In knowledge hiding perpetrators, denial elicits differential action tendencies, suggesting that negative emotions are sometimes accompanied by positive behavior (Connelly and Zweig, 2015). Moreover, denial moderates the relationship between evasive hiding, rationalized hiding, and playing dumb in non-organizational success (Connelly and Zweig, 2015). Guilt and shame can result from hiding knowledge from colleagues. These negative emotions are

elicited in particular by playing dumb (as opposed to evasive hiding and rationalized hiding). Consequently, practitioners should avoid knowledge hiding and playing dumb in organizations. Denial moderates' guilt and shame which can be result from hiding knowledge from colleagues (Černe et al., 2014; Peng, 2013). These negative emotions are elicited by playing dumb (as opposed to evasive hiding and rationalized hiding) (Černe et al., 2014; Peng, 2013). Therefore, practitioners should avoid knowledge hiding and playing dumb in non-organizational settings. Hence, this leads to the formation of the moderating variables as follows.

H4b: In non-organizational success, denial moderates the relationship between evasive hiding and rationalized hiding.

Acceptance moderates evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding (Zhao et al., 2019). The majority of employees intend to suppress, misrepresent, or conceal information. Knowledge concealment refers to intentionally failing to share essential knowledge with colleagues (Zhao et al., 2019). Confusing knowledge hinders knowledge exchange, hinders innovation, and even destroys trust, increasing knowledge loss risk and limiting individual and team innovation (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017). In this study, we examine behaviors that moderate the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding. Organizations could conceptualize knowledge concealment. There is a negative correlation between knowledge concealing and evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding (Bogilovi et al., 2017). Withholding information weakens relationships.

H5a: Organizational success is moderated by acceptance of evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding.

Researchers can experience both positive and negative effects from information concealment (Xiaolong et al., 2021). Both acting dumb and concealing information are deceptive. In contrast, justified knowledge hiders explain their role and justify their concealment (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017). Evasive concealment involves the hider providing inaccurate information or deceptive promises (which are not intended) (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017). It involves pretending to be unaware of the relevant information or refusing to reveal it (Connelly et al., 2012). According to Connelly et al. (2012), rationalized hiding takes place when the suppressor explains why he or she cannot divulge requested information or criticizes

the second party. Acceptance moderates evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding in non-organizational success in three ways. The act of concealing or withholding knowledge is called knowledge concealment. There are three types of hiding: invasive hiding, stupid behavior, and justified hiding (Connelly et al., 2012). Corporate growth and competitiveness can be hindered by such activities (Bogilović et al., 2017; Rhee & Choi, 2017). Past studies also argued that indicating orientation, competing intrinsically, getting possessive, managing personality, concealing information signalled by leader, increasing unemployment, demanding time, lacking interpersonal trust along with professional ostracism, organizational factors, and psychological empowerment can also contribute to this phenomenon (Serenko & Bontis, 2016; Hu & Zhao, 2016).

H5b: In non-organizational success, acceptance moderates evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding.

Organizational crises caused by COVID-19 have led to shutdowns, mergers, downsizing or restructuring. Knowledge hiding is more common among employees suffering from organizational crises (Malik, 2013, Ozili and Arun, 2020). In order to survive the pandemic, many organizations have shut down, merged, downsized, or restructured due to organizational crises (Malik, 2013, Ozili & Arun, 2020). Employees may feel incapable of doing more tasks due to a lack of information and capability. To be competitive, employees retain knowledge (Aarabi et al., 2013). Those who work in a cynical environment may hide knowledge as a result of their cynicism (Kwahk and Park, 2016). Many employees deliberately conceal knowledge in spite of organizations' efforts to encourage knowledge sharing (Prouska & Kapsale, 2021). According to Connelly et al. (2012), employees may conceal or withhold information from their co-workers. Knowledge hiding depends on the employer's acceptance.

H6a: In organizational success, a resignation moderates evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding.

There are three ways in which knowledge concealing practices can be observed at work (Huo et al., 2016; Gerpott et al., 2019). Power, influence, or wealth may motivate these activities. Furthermore, the tendency to hide knowledge has seen a faster increase than the tendance to share knowledge (Holten et al., 2016; Connelly et al., 2019). Knowledge hiding is low when co-workers exchange reciprocal information (Černe et al., 2014). COVID-19, for example, triggers different agentic resources (Malik & Sanders, 2021). Investigations of knowledge

hiding's antecedents and consequences are necessary. Rarely are non-crisis resignation antecedents discussed.

H6b: The relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding is moderated by resignation.

Organizational success is moderated by resilience to career advancement (Lefevre et al., 2002). Due to its complexity and dynamism, managing resistance has never been easy for managers or employers (Lefevre et al., 2002). Work activities and other intentional behaviors are affected by silence in career progression (Kwahk & Park, 2016). Lack of training is expected to influence knowledge hiding behaviours as it impacts the ways in which employees work and react specifically to organizational contexts (Boz Semerci, 2019). As a result, the following moderating variables-related hypothesis is stated:

H7a: Career progression moderates the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding.

By extension, career resilience refers to adapting to career changes (Kwahk & Park, 2016). Developing career resilience means taking charge of your own career path and continuously learning new skills (Otto et al., 2019). Resilience may explain burnout in future professionals. Burnout negatively impacts the professional and personal performance of education and industry professionals (Otto et al., 2019). Young people who will work as professionals in the future can benefit from understanding burnout and detecting factors that can help prevent burnout (Kwahk & Park, 2016). Secondly, resilience to career progression moderates the relationship between playing dumb and rationalized hiding in non-organizational success (Lefevre et al., 2002). Through organizational citizenship behaviour, employees can be compensated for their transgressions rather than withdrawing from the situation (Boz Semerci, 2019). Hence, this leads to the formation of the next moderating variables as follows.

H7b: Resilience to career progression moderates the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, rationalized hiding in non-organizational success.

Additionally, we propose to examine in greater depth the relationship between burnout and resilience based on different levels of resilience (Boz Semerci, 2019). In order to achieve certain objectives, the present study examines the impact of interpersonal injustice on knowledge hiding behaviors, evaluated the mediating role of denial, acceptance, resignation, and resilience to career progression on the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, rationalized hiding, and organizational achievement (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017).

3. Methodology

3.1.Participants and Procedures

An online survey questionnaire was created and circulated in the year 2022. All responses were anonymous. The respondents were ensured of the usage of data only for academic research purposes. The data were collected from 280 knowledge workers from diverse industries in India. Out of the total responses received, 72 were female and the rest were male. According to De Sordi et al. (2021), "the term knowledge worker applies to professionals whose work is highlighted by the continuous, systematic and predominant expansion of organizational knowledge through the mechanism of exploration" (p. 10). The mean age of the respondents was 32.44 years with a total work experience mean of 8.38 years out of which 3.83 was their mean experience with the current company. Detailed descriptive statistics are available in the below table:

Table: Descriptive Statistics (n = 280)

	Age	Total Work Exp	Years completed with the current employer	KHB	ACC	DEN	RSG	RES	OS	NOS
Mean	32.439	8.384	3.830	2.114	4.996	5.041	5.114	5.437	4.048	4.035
SD	4.604	4.551	3.442	0.632	1.660	1.691	1.427	1.036	1.000	1.043
Minimum	21.000	1.500	0.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Maximum	50.000	28.000	22.000	5.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	7.000	5.000	5.000

3.2. Measures

To measure the three-dimension knowledge hiding behaviors (KHBs), 12-item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree) was used as given by Connelly and Zweig (2015) and used by Bari et al. (2020). To measure two-dimension subjective career success, Gattiker and Larwood's (1986) 23-item scale from 1 (agree

completely) to 5 (disagree completely). To measure four-dimension barriers to career, Biju et al.'s (2021) 38-item, five-point Likert scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Data Analysis

Data were analyzed in various phases. In Phase-1, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for each construct were calculated for ensuring internal consistency of the scales. Thereafter, Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated to know the extent to which the constructs under investigation are related with each other. In Phase-2, confirmatory factor analysis was done by testing the measurement model. It is used to know whether the observed covariance matrix fits the theoretical one. In that, goodness of fit index (GFI; threshold value is greater than .90) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA; threshold value is less than .08), standardized root mean square residual (SRMR; threshold value is less than .05), and chi-square/degrees of freedom ($\chi 2$/df; threshold value is less than 3). Convergent validity was ensured with a minimum average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct of 0.50 and the discriminant validity was ensured with the AVE values being greater than the maximum shared squared variance (MSV) values (Hair et al., 2010). In Phase-3, the hypotheses were tested using Warp partial least squares (Warp PLS) 6.0. It helped the authors of the current study to analyze all the paths and test all the hypotheses simultaneously.

4. Results

4.1 Measurement Model

The conceptual framework created in this study was evaluated using the Warp PLS 6.0 program, which is designed for partial least squares structured equation modelling (Kock, 2019). However, although the proposed style is based on current theoretical models, SEM based on PLS is the best approach for this study (Kock, 2019). The latent variables should be estimated as weighted aggregations of indicators without adjusting for measurement errors in typical PLS estimation (Kock, 2019). According to Herneler (2008), measurement errors dominate actual indicators, which can be seen in the composite indicators. Kock (2019) asserts that measurement errors are impossible to eliminate as deficiencies in composite indicators may lead to an unknown bias. In recent years, PLS-SEM has become a common alternative to survey-based research. With PLS-SEM, complex models can be examined without imposing distributional assumptions. Therefore, PLS-SEM is the best tool for reviewing the study's proposed complex framework (Sarstedt, Ringle, & Hair, 2017).

In the study, we examined the nomological validity of the theoretical model using WARP PLS 6.0. To test the validity of the measurement model, we carried out three types of validations: construct, content, and discriminant, along with testing the effect size and model-fit parameters. We then examined the structural model to assess the strength among the associated variables. The content validity was established through the feedback obtained by the experts on the questionnaire. The internal consistency of the constructs was examined using Cronbach's alpha (CA) and Composite Reliability (CR). Their values were above 0.7, indicating the construct reliability and validity were met in the study. The average variance extracted (AVE), factor loadings and CR values were above the threshold values (AVE>0.5 (Fornell-Larcker, 1981); factor loadings>0.7 (Hair et al., 2017) and CR>0.7 (Hair et al., 2011)), satisfying the criteria for construct reliability and convergent validity (Hair et al., 2006). The psychometric properties of the constructs are present in Table 2. We examined the discriminant validity using two methods: a) Fornell-Larcker criterion, where the square root of the AVE of the construct (represented by italicized bold-face values in Table 3) was greater than the correlations with the other variables. b) The Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio of correlation (HTMT) ratio values are greater than 0.85 (as mentioned in Table 4), thereby confirming discriminant validity (Franke & Starsted, 2019). The study did not suffer from multicollinearity issues, as the items' variance inflated factor (VIF) values were less than 5 (Kock, 2015). With the convergent and discriminant validity established in the study, we thus conclude the study demonstrates construct validity. Further, we examined the model fit indices (demonstrated in Table 5), which indicated the values within the threshold limits suggested by Sarstedt et al.,(2014) . The Average Path Coefficient (APC)=0.48 ($p<0.001$), average R^2 =0.59($p<0.001$); average block VIF =4.277 (<5); Tenenhaus Goodness-of-Fit (GoF) = 0.497 (large≥0.36; medium≥0.25; small≥0.1) suggesting the model fit is acceptable for the study.

4.2 Common Method Bias

The data for the study was cross-sectional, wherein the researchers collected the data for the dependent and the independent variables at one point in time from the same participants, which could result in common method bias (CMB) (Guide et al., 2015 ; Kock, 2015). To reduce the effect of CMB caused by social desirability bias, we informed the respondents that their responses would be treated with the utmost confidentiality and used only for academic purposes. We encouraged them to answer the survey to the best of their knowledge. Further, we randomized the questions in the study and self-administered the questionnaire to control for CMB. Next, we performed Harman's single factor test, wherein the results indicated that the

latent factor explained 39.1% variance, which is less than the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff, 2003).

The cross-sectional data was further checked for causality using the non-linear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) (Guide 2015; Kock,2015). The value obtained for NLBCDR is 0.774, which is greater than the threshold value of 0.7, as indicated in Table 6, implying our study did not suffer from causality.

4.3 Results of Hypotheses Testing

Figure 2 presents the path model obtained from PLS-SEM after testing the proposed associations using Warp PLS. We used the bootstrapping method in PLS to estimate the standard error and significance of parametric estimates. The significance of the paths indicated negative empirical support for the proposed hypothesis. In the study, we found support for H1a (β = -0.67, p <0.001), H1b (β = -0.46, p <0.001), H2a (β = -0.38, p <0.001), H2b (β = 0.-0.32, p <0.001), H3a (β = -0.27, p <0.001), H3b (β = -0.29, p <0.001), H4a (β = -0.44, p <0.001), H5a (β = -0.39, p <0.001), H6a (β = 0.-0.47, p <0.001); H6b (β = 0.-0.44, p <0.001); H7a (β = 0.-0.52, p <0.001) and H7b (β = 0.-0.57, p <0.001) as indicated in Table 7. Figure 2 represents the strength of the relationships proposed in the conceptual model with the associated significance level. The study suggested an insignificant association for H4b (β = 0.04, p <0.1) and H5b (β = -0.07, p <0.1). R^2 represents the model's explanatory power of 0.752, which is within an acceptable threshold limit.

Table 2: Factor Loadings of the Variables

	Factor Loading	Variance	Error	SCR	AVE
EH1	0.69	0.4761	0.31	0.874263	0.50425
EH2	0.71	0.5041	0.29		
EH3	0.72	0.5184	0.28		
EH4	0.72	0.5184	0.28		
PD1	0.7	0.49	0.3	0.875977	0.510025
PD2	0.74	0.5476	0.26		
PD3	0.77	0.5929	0.23		
PD4	0.64	0.4096	0.36		
RH1	0.75	0.5625	0.25	0.890762	0.54425
RH2	0.83	0.6889	0.17		
RH3	0.7	0.49	0.3		
RH4	0.66	0.4356	0.34		
OS1	0.69	0.4761	0.31	0.974453	0.539316

OS2	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
OS3	0.77	0.5929	0.23		
OS4	0.7	0.49	0.3		
OS5	0.77	0.5929	0.23		
OS6	0.72	0.5184	0.28		
OS7	0.74	0.5476	0.26		
OS8	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
OS9	0.64	0.4096	0.36		
OS10	0.75	0.5625	0.25		
OS11	0.74	0.5476	0.26		
OS12	0.78	0.6084	0.22		
OS13	0.62	0.3844	0.38		
OS14	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
OS15	0.83	0.6889	0.17		
OS16	0.82	0.6724	0.18		
OS17	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
OS18	0.74	0.5476	0.26		
OS19	0.69	0.4761	0.31		
NOS1	0.78	0.6084	0.22	0.872534	0.503525
NOS2	0.66	0.4356	0.34		
NOS3	0.74	0.5476	0.26		
NOS4	0.65	0.4225	0.35		
ACP1	0.64	0.4096	0.36	0.927153	0.5188
ACP2	0.7	0.49	0.3		
ACP3	0.78	0.6084	0.22		
ACP4	0.67	0.4489	0.33		
ACP5	0.69	0.4761	0.31		
ACP6	0.85	0.7225	0.15		
ACP7	0.69	0.4761	0.31		
DEN1	0.84	0.7056	0.16	0.957175	0.56591
DEN2	0.74	0.5476	0.26		
DEN3	0.86	0.7396	0.14		
DEN4	0.76	0.5776	0.24		
DEN5	0.78	0.6084	0.22		
DEN6	0.69	0.4761	0.31		
DEN7	0.68	0.4624	0.32		
DEN8	0.69	0.4761	0.31		
DEN9	0.81	0.6561	0.19		
DEN10	0.64	0.4096	0.36		
RG1	0.7	0.49	0.3	0.944506	0.526833
RG2	0.78	0.6084	0.22		
RG3	0.82	0.6724	0.18		
RG4	0.72	0.5184	0.28		
RG5	0.65	0.4225	0.35		
RG6	0.71	0.5041	0.29		
RG7	0.78	0.6084	0.22		

RG8	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
RG9	0.62	0.3844	0.38		
RS1	0.65	0.4225	0.35	0.957189	0.543891
RS2	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
RS3	0.73	0.5329	0.27		
RS4	0.83	0.6889	0.17		
RS5	0.65	0.4225	0.35		
RS6	0.77	0.5929	0.23		
RS7	0.65	0.4225	0.35		
RS8	0.78	0.6084	0.22		
RS9	0.69	0.4761	0.31		
RS10	0.76	0.5776	0.24		
RS11	0.84	0.7056	0.16		

Note: (Cronbach's alpha - α, Scale Composite Reliability -SCR and Average Variance extracted -AVE)

Table 3: Fornell- Larcker criterion

	EH	**PD**	**RH**	**OS**	**NOS**	**ACP**	**DEN**	**RG**	**RS**
EH	0.789								
PD	0.348	0.749							
RH	0.303	0.56	0.813						
OS	0.389	0.591	0.468	0.737					
NOS	0.401	0.42	0.316	0.56	0.803				
ACP	0.248	0.413	0.362	0.485	0.398	0.782			
DEN	0.278	0.494	0.414	0.254	0.411	0.591	0.743		
RG	0.338	0.349	0.389	0.385	0.317	0.42	0.589	0.703	
RS	0.411	0.262	0.227	0.228	0.44	0.413	0.321	0.442	0.739

Note: The diagonal bold-face values are the square root of AVE

Note: EH → Evasive Hiding; PD →Playing Dumb; RH →Rationalized Hiding; OS→ Organizational Success; NOS → Non organizational success; ACP → Acceptance; DEN → Denial; RG → Resignation; RS →. Resilience

	EH	**PD**	**RH**	**OS**	**NOS**	**ACP**	**DEN**	**RG**	**RS**

EH	0.567								
PD	0.21	0.624							
RH	0.24	0.305	0.598						
OS	0.256	0.246	0.452	0.572					
NOS	0.325	0.358	0.264	0.382	0.684				
ACP	0.382	0.256	0.333	0.285	0.357	0.662			
DEN	0.241	0.253	0.269	0.358	0.224	0.114	0.603		
RG	0.115	0.189	0.116	0.428	0.336	0.124	0.116	0.648	
RS	0.189	0.145	0.169	0.222	0.227	0.242	0.258	0.302	0.589

Table 4: HTMT table

Model fit and quality indices	**Values (threshold values, if any)**
Average path coefficient (APC)	0.42 ($p < 0.001$)
Average R^2	0.51 ($p < 0.001$)
Average block VIF	4.112 (Acceptable if value ≤ 5)
Tenenhaus Goodness of Fit (GoF)	0.559 (Large ≥ 0.36; Medium ≥ 0.25; Small ≥ 0.1)

Causality Assessment Indices	**Values (Threshold Values if any)**
Sympson's Paradox Ratio (SPR)	0.774(Acceptable if ≥ 0.7)
R^2 contribution ratio	0.918 (Acceptable if ≥ 0.9)
Statistical Suppression Ratio (SSR)	0.741 (Acceptable if ≥ 0.7)
Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR)	0.787 (Acceptable if ≥ 0.7)

Table 5: Model-fit indices

Table 6: Causality Assessment Indices

Sr. No.	**Path Coefficient**	**Level of Significance**	**Hypothesis Testing Results**
H1a	-0.67	***	Supported
H1b	-0.46	***	Supported
H2a	-0.38	***	Supported
H2b	-0.32	***	Supported
H3a	-0.27	***	Supported
H3b	-0.29	***	Supported
H4a	-0.44	***	Supported
H4b	0.04	*	**Not Supported**
H5a	-0.39	***	Supported

H5b	-0.07	*	**Not Supported**
H6a	-0.47	***	Supported
H6b	-0.44	***	Supported
H7a	-0.52	***	Supported
H7b	-0.57	***	Supported

Table 7: Summary of hypotheses testing

4. Discussion of the Findings

Determining the role of knowledge hiding in workplace incivility is intended to give a new direction to the prevailing unacceptable behaviours of employees (Otto et al., 2019). It is also important to understand the underlying reasons for such behaviours to create a friendly and progressive atmosphere at the office (Otto et al., 2019). This would increase the professional environment, satisfy customers, and improve the overall performance of the organization. The data analysis showed that H1a of evasive hiding behaviour has a negative impact on organizational success with a β value of -0.67. The reason for this is that when there is knowledge that a colleague intentionally conceals, it creates grudges between them, and workplace incivility is exhibited at every opportunity (Kwahk & Park, 2016). It is important to note, however, that these uncivil behaviours at work are not severe or likely to cause any harm to co-workers (Kwahk & Park, 2016). Thus, no intentional harm in the form of workplace incivility occurs in the future (Kwahk & Park, 2016). Further H1b of evasive hiding behaviour has a negative impact on non-organizational success was supported with a β value of -0.46. Even though this value is lower than the first hypothesis of evasive hiding behaviour has a negative impact on organizational success, the second hypothesis value indicated that employees who violate psychological contracts may experience negative feelings that may result in incivility in the workplace at any opportunity to avenge themselves as per conservation of resources (COR) theory (Boz Semerci, 2019). Workplace incivility cannot be completely eradicated; however, it can be controlled through the implementation of appropriate policies (Boz Semerci, 2019).

The second hypothesis (H2a) of playing dumb behaviour has a negative impact on organizational success with a β value of -0.38. As a result, the knowledge must be requested, and the hiding must always be intentional (Boz Semerci, 2019). As a result of these characteristics, KH differs from other counterproductive knowledge-related behaviours, such as knowledge hoarding, knowledge withholding, or a lack of knowledge sharing. Knowledge hoarding may also occur if the knowledge is not explicitly requested, and a lack of knowledge

sharing may simply result from the absence of the knowledge (Connelly et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2019). According to Connelly et al. (2012), KH is a distinct concept, and it implies an intentional effort from the hider, as the hider dissimulates knowledge in response to the request. Furthermore, second hypothesis (H2b) of playing dumb behaviour has a negative impact on non-organizational success with a β value of -0.32. KH differs from other constructs such as sharing by involving two or more people in concealing knowledge (Senzolo et al., 2020), i.e., a knowledge seeker seeking knowledge and a knowledge hider who conceals knowledge by refusing to share it with the seeker. Knowledge hoarding or lack of knowledge sharing share some similarities with KH, but scholars have shown that it is a unique and distinct phenomenon (Connelly et al., 2012; Isaac and Baral, 2018).

Third hypothesis (H3a) of rationalized hiding behaviour has a negative impact on organizational success with a β value of -0.27. Thus, organizations commonly implement a variety of knowledge sharing mechanisms to facilitate the effective utilisation and management of knowledge (Connelly et al., 2012; Isaac and Baral, 2018). It is difficult to manage tacit knowledge because it resides in the minds of individuals, and can only be accessed when those who possess it are willing to share it (Connelly et al., 2012; Isaac and Baral, 2018). Recent literature on knowledge management has given considerable attention to rationalized hiding behavior (Connelly et al. 2012). Contrary to rationalized hiding, which provides explanations for not providing the required knowledge, pervasive hiding poses a significant risk (Webster et al., 2008). As a result, KH's "playing dumb" behavior has less impact on teammate social interactions (Connelly et al., 2012). Positive objectives may be more closely related to rationalized hiding than to the other two factors of KH, for instance, if KH is not hurtful (Connelly & Zweig, 2015). Furthermore, third hypothesis (H3b) of rationalized hiding behavior has a negative impact on non-organizational success with a β value of -0.29.

Fourth hypothesis (H4a) of playing dumb moderates, the relationship between evasive hiding, rationalized hiding, and denial showed with a β value of -0.44. This value appears very high in this study due to two main major findings. It is common for employees to hide information (Connelly et al., 2012). When employees request a copy of a report, co-workers often refuse (Connelly et al., 2012). It is not forthcoming in this case despite the absence of deception. Rationalized hiding is more strongly associated with positive intentions than other types of knowledge hiding, according to Connelly and Zweig (2015). Connelly et al. (2012) describe

evasive hiding as the act of delaying knowledge delivery or providing less information than necessary. It is also possible for employees to provide incorrect information or promise a complete answer in the future despite intending to conceal it (Connelly et al., 2012). Some of the requested knowledge is provided by a colleague, but not all of it. There is a possibility of dishonesty (but not necessarily). Moreover, it is high compared to (H4b), which mentions that in non-organizational success, denial moderates the relationship between evasive hiding and rationalized hiding with a value of 0.04. This hypothesis was not supported as knowledge confusion delays knowledge exchange, hinders innovation, and even destroys trust, increasing knowledge loss risk and limiting personal and team innovation (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017).

Considering evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding, the fifth hypothesis (H5a) showed with a β value of -0.39. Evasive concealment results in inaccurate information or a deceptive commitment (which is not intended) (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017). It is possible that H5b of non-organizational success, acceptance moderates evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding with a * value of -0.07 explains the inconsistency on acceptance behaviour (Černe et al., 2014; Bogilović et al., 2017).

Taking into account sixth hypothesis (H6a) organizational success, resignation moderated evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding with a β value of -0.47. It appears that this value is low in this study, since employees often hide their knowledge by playing dumb when a request for knowledge is perceived as a threat to their face (Rajput and Talan 2017; Sedighi et al. 2016). H6b, which examines the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding, showed a very low β value of -0.44. Knowledge sharing was significantly influenced by cognition-based trust, according to Jain, Sandhu, and Goh (2015).

Further H7a of career progression moderates the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding showed with a β value of -0.52. This value appears very low in this study as sharing of knowledge can enhance the performance of an organization and enhance its ability to innovate while reducing costs (Rajput and Talan 2017; Sedighi et al. 2016). Software that facilitates knowledge sharing, incentive systems, long-term employee relationships, and fostering an environment that encourages knowledge sharing among employees are all ways companies can promote knowledge sharing (Rajput and Talan 2017; Sedighi et al. 2016). With a * value of -0.57, H7b of resilience to career progression moderates the relationship between evasive hiding, playing dumb, and rationalized hiding in non-organizational success. Resilience may explain burnout in future professionals. Burnout negatively impacts the professional and personal performance of education and industry

professionals (Geisler et al., 2021). Young people who will work as professionals in the future can benefit from understanding burnout and detecting factors that can help prevent burnout (Kwahk & Park, 2016). The next section discusses the managerial and theoretical implications as follows.

5. Managerial and Theoretical Implications

The study proposes some strategies for managing knowledge hiding (Koay et al., 2022). Employee reward systems should be based on a combination of team and individual performance to promote knowledge sharing (Rajput and Talan 2017; Sedighi et al. 2016). Under these conditions, both employees who request knowledge and those who conceal it lose out (Rajput & Talan 2017; Zhao & Xia 2019). Connelly and Zweig (2014) suggest managers conduct teamwork exercises to strengthen relationships among employees. Employees are less likely to hide knowledge when they trust each other (Zhao & Xia, 2019). When employees request knowledge and suspect it is intentionally withheld, managers must be aware of reciprocal distrust loops. Knowledge hiding should be discouraged by managers and spoken of regularly as an advantage of sharing knowledge when asked for to prevent such loops (Geisler et al., 2021).

When considering the theoretical implications, in several ways, this study contributes to knowledge hiding literature (Geisler et al., 2021). According to the conservation of resources theory (COR), individuals attempt to accumulate, retain, and maintain their valuable resources, which may be in the form of objects, personal characteristics, conditions, or energies (Westman et al., 2004). Further, the theory asserts that stress occurs when individuals perceive the loss of their resources or the absence of expected resource gains (Wu & Lee, 2016). An individual's output is negatively affected by perceived stress. This study wishes to find out that in presence of barriers to career, whether this tendency to hide knowledge has a significant impact on subjective career success (Westman et al., 2004). Knowledge hiding is better understood when viewed in its varying dimensions rather than as a monolithic concept (Connelly et al. 2012).

6. Limitations and Conclusion

As a result of the limitations of this study, several conclusions can be drawn. Cross-sectional data cannot demonstrate definitive causal relationships, and there is a risk of common method variance, but longitudinal data can resolve these issues (Wu & Lee, 2016). Aside from the quantitative approach we used, future studies could involve interviews, experiments, focus groups, and/or observation. Although organizations have attempted to enhance knowledge

transfer (Phelps et al., 2012; Staples & Webster, 2008), success has eluded them. It is common for employees to be unwilling to share their knowledge, even when organizational practices are designed to facilitate it (Phelps et al., 2012; Staples & Webster, 2008). The paper proposes and investigates knowledge hiding as a result. Among knowledge hiding, knowledge hoarding, and knowledge sharing, we develop a multidimensional measure (Černe et al., 2014). Several predictors of knowledge hiding in organizations are also identified (Zhao et al., 2016). In academic knowledge work, collaboration is assumed (Zhao et al., 2016). In addition, it involves competitive pressures (Zhao et al., 2016). The purpose of this study is to examine the personal (individual) and situational (work-related) factors that influence evasive knowledge hiding.

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