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The Relationship between Organizational Leadership and Innovative work behavior of Employees

Master's Thesis

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I have written this master's thesis independently. Any ideas or data taken from other authors or other sources have been fully referenced.

ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the relationship between organizational leadership and employee Innovative Work Behavior (IWB) across various industries in Lagos, Nigeria. The study examines how leadership factors influence employees' innovative behaviors by drawing on a comprehensive literature review and data collected through a structured survey. A total of 300 respondents participated, representing eight sectors: Information Technology, Oil and Gas, Telecommunications, Financial Services, Healthcare, Construction/Real Estate, Manufacturing, and Startups/Entrepreneurship. A quantitative research design was employed, using structured questionnaires to gather data and SPSS (version 29.0) was used to analyze the data. The results show that there is a bi-directional relationship between organizational leadership capability (OLC) and IWB. Also, two factors of IWB; Generativity and formative investigation, were found to significantly influence OLC. Conversely, only one factor of OLC, the extent of centralization, was found to influence IWB. Furthermore, the analysis indicates that none of the control variables had a significant influence on either IWB and OLC.

Keywords: Innovative Work Behavior, Organizational leadership, Employee Innovation, Generativity, Leadership Capability, Leadership Styles.

CERCS: S189, Social Sciences; Organizational Science.

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1. INTRODUCTION

One of the key drivers of organizational success is innovation (see Drucker, 1985; Christensen, 1997; Chesbrough, 2003). And innovation can not thrive in an organization where there is no support and guidance from the leaders. When leaders encourage their employees, they are more likely to generate new ideas. Over the years, scholars have discussed how organizational leadership can influence the behaviors of employees towards innovation (see Khan et al., 2020; Contreras et al., 2017). In recent studies, there has been a shift from individual leadership to leadership as a shared and collective process within organizations. As Alsaedi (2022) noted, this form of leadership recognizes that decision making and responsibility are distributed across people and roles and not just dependent on one person.

Organizational leadership encompasses the collective competencies and structures that leaders use to drive strategic objectives (Collins et al., 2000). Yukl (2012) further supports this by emphasizing that organizational resources and strategic priorities are practicable when there is effective leadership. Innovation requires knowledge sharing and collaboration among team members, both of which aligns with the notion of organizational leadership. When an organization has a leadership structure that supports its employees, knowledge sharing grows (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). Organizational leaders should create a workplace where people feel free to share ideas and help solve problems - an approach that fits well with Chesbrough (2003) idea of open innovation, which brings together knowledge from across the organization to drive new solutions.

Shared leadership is a constantly evolving process in which team members influence one another to achieve common objectives (Pearce and Conger 2003). This approach is more practical in an environment with hierarchical structures that may hinder innovation. Similarly, Hoch (2013) emphasizes that shared leadership fosters collaboration and joint decision-making and promotes accountability, which can enhance IWB.

De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) proposed that IWB encompasses interrelated behaviors including idea generation, idea promotion, and idea realization. Several factors including employee motivation and leadership practices influence these behaviors. As Amabile (1988)

noted, leaders who practice open communication tend to foster more significant innovative behaviors among employees.

One aspect of the relationship between IWB and organizational leadership that has not been widely explored is how IWB can impact organizational leadership. Although this viewpoint is still limited, a number of studies have mostly concentrated on traditional and individual leadership styles and investigated their effects on employee IWB. For instance, studies such as Janssen (2005) and Scott & Bruce (1994) constantly place leadership as the initiating factor of IWB, with little to no investigation into how IWB might in turn influence leadership. The purpose of this research is to examine the bidirectional relationship between organizational leadership and employee IWB. By addressing this overlooked direction, that is, how IWB can influence leadership, this study seeks to contribute a more balanced understanding of the reciprocity between leadership and IWB in organizational settings.

The subsequent sections of this paper give an overview of the existing literature review on organizational leadership, IWB, and the relationship between them. Afterward, the methodology section will describe the sample used in this study and analysis. Next, the result section will present the main findings of this study. Finally, this paper concludes by discussing what these findings mean in relation to existing literature, identifying the study's limitations, and proposing recommendations for future research.

RQ: "What is the nature of the relationship between organizational leadership and employee innovative work behavior (IWB)?"

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Theoretical Background

Leadership has long been a topic of debate, gaining attention from many scholars and practitioners. It has been examined from various perspectives over time and the results of these studies have shown its multifaceted range (Hughes, 2012; Spillane et al., 2004; Eva et al., 2021). Avolio et al. (2009) identified notable developments in leadership research. In their study, they describe a change towards a more comprehensive viewpoint that takes the relationships between leaders, followers, and the organizational environment into consideration. This increasing focus looks beyond specific assessments of leadership attributes to see how shared processes and dynamic interactions influence leadership.

In their comprehensive review, DeChurch et al. (2010) outlined six different perspectives on leadership and they are: trait, behavioral, transformational, leader-member exchange (LMX), strategic, and shared leadership. These perspectives offer several directions through which leadership can be understood. In light of collectivistic leadership, which emphasizes shared responsibility and group-oriented processes, some of these perspectives align closely, while others have key differences.

The trait perspective affirms that effective leadership comes from built-in personal characteristics such as confidence and intelligence. This view centers leadership on an individual which contrasts with collectivistic leadership's focus on distributing influence across the group. However, in team settings, acknowledging the diverse traits among members could enable a more spontaneous form of shared contribution (DeChurch et al., 2010).

The behavioral perspective emphasizes leaders' actions and styles, such as task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviours, which provides some overlap. Although it is leader-centric, it however permits other individuals in the team to exhibit these behaviours. This reaffirms the view that leadership functions can be shared among members depending on the circumstances (DeChurch et al., 2010; Yammarino et al., 2012).

Transformational leadership is distinguished by a leader's ability to create a sense of direction, and support the personal growth of team members (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Although this leadership style often involves a central figure guiding and inspiring employees, its

principles can also operate within a team-driven context. In collectivistic leadership, these motivational efforts may be initiated by multiple individuals, enabling team members to jointly cultivate a compelling vision and support one another's development (DeChurch et al., 2010). Albeit the influence structure differs, some underlying values remain aligned.

In contrast, LMX theory is more relational and provides a closer bridge to collectivistic leadership. It emphasizes the nature of a leader's relationship with individual members (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). While still hierarchical, the LMX theory prioritizes trust and mutual respect among all members. This serves as a sound conceptual foundation for collectivistic models that value reciprocity (Yammarino et al., 2012).

Strategic leadership involves shaping the long-term organizational direction and is typically associated with centralized authority figures. This makes it less compatible with collectivistic leadership in practice. However, the required underlying level of complexity could be shared by a group if methods for collective strategic thinking are established (DeChurch et al., 2010).

Finally, among the six perspectives explained by DeChurch et al. (2010), shared leadership shows the principles of collectivistic leadership. This is a collaborative approach in which different team members assume leadership roles based on the circumstance or task at the moment. Instead of leadership flowing from a single designated figure, this approach encourages a decentralized and interactive form of influence where team members contribute equally to decision-making (Pearce & Conger, 2003; Yammarino et al., 2012). This shared approach supports the foundational principles of mutual accountability and group-level engagement that define collectivistic leadership.

2.2. Organizational Leadership

Organizational leadership is central to how knowledge is shared, integrated, and applied within organizations. Effective leaders help bridge gaps across teams and departments, creating conditions that support collaboration and innovation (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Wang and Noe, 2010). Studies have shown that leadership is about managing people and also enabling the flow of knowledge and ideas in ways that foster creativity and continuous improvement (Bryant,

2003; Carmeli et al., 2013). Without strong leadership, knowledge often remains hoarded, making it harder for organizations to adapt or innovate.

According to Kivipõld and Vadi (2010), organizational leadership should be seen as a collective capability that develops and evolves throughout the entire organization rather than just through individual leaders. This leadership capability is shaped by the structure of the organization and the dynamic relationships among its members. The authors describe organizational leadership capability as an "emergent state" – a capacity that develops over time and is essential for adaptability and sustainability. Leadership in this context is more than individual influence, it is a collective effort that integrates with the organization's processes, and ability to respond to environmental changes (Bennett et al., 2003).

The study by Kivipõld and Vadi (2010) further highlights three dimensions of collective leadership dynamics: relational connectivity, organizational processes, and dynamic state of leadership interaction with the external environment. Relational connectivity refers to the supportive relationships among members, which enhances collaboration and development. This is supported by Uhl-Bien (2006), who explains leadership as a relational process rooted in mutual relationship and co-operation among employees. Hunt and Ropo (1997) support this by emphasizing that leadership should be seen as a collective process within the organization, with collaboration acting as the core of dynamic leadership structures. They suggest that leadership processes operate as part of a holistic configuration within an organisation and are embedded in the relationships and shared practices among members. Last, the dynamic state reflects the adaptive and evolving nature of leadership within an organization and its environment (Kivipõld and Vadi 2010).

Yukl (2012) highlights the importance of leadership in managing organizational processes, noting that leaders act as facilitators in knowledge-sharing and decision-making processes, hence promoting IWB. The author's proposed hierarchical taxonomy specifies four types of leadership behaviors that, when combined, improve organizational success by addressing both internal and external limitations. And these behaviors are namely; i. task-oriented behavior, which enhances efficiency and goal achievement ii. relations-oriented behavior - this strengthens interpersonal trust and team cohesion iii. change-oriented behaviors-

this fosters innovation and adaptability; and lastly, external leadership behaviors which focuses on managing relationships and resources beyond the organization.

The dynamic process of knowledge creation can be examined through the SECI model (Nonaka, 1994). This model describes how knowledge is passed around and shaped within an organization, moving through four key patterns. It starts with socialization, where people pick up skills or habits just by being around others. Then comes externalization, where those unspoken lessons are turned into clear ideas, often by putting thoughts into words or shared models. Combination is next, and this is like pulling together what people know and arranging it into something bigger, such as a strategy or process. Last, internalization happens when people take that collective knowledge and make it their own, not by memorizing it, but by using it in real situations until it feels natural. Together, these stages form a loop that fuels creativity and learning within teams and organizations. This is especially relevant in high-skill service industries, where knowledge-intensive work demands complete coordination mechanisms.

In the context of service organizations, Kivipold (2015) findings illustrate that high-skill services benefit significantly from potent knowledge coordination mechanisms, which are naturally linked to leadership capabilities. These industries require more excellent leadership capabilities compared to low-skill services. This is due to the necessity of managing diverse service portfolios and coordinating analytical skills effectively. High knowledge use in such organizations leads to improved stakeholder engagement and innovative practices, notably in corporate social responsibility (CSR) sectors. This is consistent with the work of Bass (1990), who claims that transformational leaders inspire innovation by establishing a conducive environment in which knowledge flows easily across organizational levels.

Similarly, the findings of Kivipõld and Ahonen (2013) emphasize the role of OLC as a mechanism that influences internal organizational functioning, mainly through its relationship with job satisfaction. As conceptualized in this study, OLC functions at an organizational level and interacts with non-essential facets of job satisfaction, such as working conditions, supervision, and social climate. This relationship highlights the importance of leadership in fostering a conducive work environment for collaboration, knowledge sharing, and overall performance.

In a qualitative study by Richards (2008), leadership identification and development within an Australian financial institution's technical division were explored. Sixty-two managers were interviewed in an informal interview, and the findings showed that organizational leadership is not always shaped by formal HRM practices or structured systems but is mostly driven by informal mechanisms like networking and sponsorship. These informal pathways often bypass official leadership identification and development strategies, suggesting that organizational leadership is influenced by social dynamics as much as institutional frameworks. Richards (2008) further argued that leadership capability within organizations is formed by the ability to navigate and maintain networks, particularly those that extend beyond the organizational boundaries. Managers who progressed into leadership roles were often chosen based on their relationships with senior leaders rather than their technical expertise or alignment with formal leadership frameworks.

While there has been an emphasis on individual and collective leadership, the connection between them remains underexplored, particularly in the context of transformational change. Gram-Hanssen (2021), conducted a study of community-led transformation in the Yup'ik village of Igiugig, Alaska, and conceptualized leadership neither as a personal trait nor a collective outcome but as a relational phenomenon. Here, individual actions are meaningfully shaped by and contribute to collective processes. This relational framework contradicts traditional hierarchical models and is consistent with theories such as Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and complex adaptive leadership, which highlight shared vision and adaptive decision-making as the foundations of effective leadership (eg., Uhl‐Bien et al., 2007).

In their study, Kivipõld and Vadi (2010) developed a measurement tool to assess organizational leadership capability, focusing on two key dimensions: organizational orientation and adaptation. Organizational orientation is shaped by models such as Pasternack et al.'s (2001) institutional leadership quality (LQ) model and Reynolds' (1987) distributed behavioral model. As described in these models, the dimensions of alignment and cohesion are combined under specific concepts, collectively informing organizational leadership's external focus and context. The second dimension, organizational adaptation, focuses on how an organization processes and interprets information to ensure stability within its leadership processes.

Kivipõld and Vadi's (2010) earlier study laid the foundation by introducing a measurement tool to evaluate leadership capability, focusing on two key dimensions: organizational orientation and organizational adaptation. These dimensions were presented as behavioral principles that guide an organization's ability to align internal strategies with external environmental demands. Building on this, their 2013 study further developed the relationship between leadership capability and performance, particularly within the financial services sector. They argued that leadership capability is embedded in an organization's structural and behavioral basis, influencing performance by fostering cohesion and market-oriented behaviors. Integrating leadership principles into organizational processes supports active adaptation, ensuring organizations maintain balance within their internal systems and responsiveness to external changes (Kivipõld & Vadi, 2013).

Al-Kalabi et al. (2024) also examined leadership capabilities in relation to entrepreneurship marketing, emphasizing two primary dimensions of leadership: organizational orientation and organizational adaptation. As defined in their study, leadership capabilities help organizations embrace innovative approaches to address challenges and seize market opportunities. Organizational orientation, on the other hand, which involves directing internal processes towards accomplishing strategic goals, has been identified as a major influence on entrepreneurial marketing. When leaders prioritize alignment across many activities, they build a unified goal that maximizes organizational strengths to achieve long-term objectives. Organizational adaptation, on the other hand, refers to the ability to effectively adjust to changing external factors (Uhl‑Bien & Arena, 2018; Al-Kalabi et al., 2024). This adaptability enables organizations to identify market threats early and turn them into opportunities for growth, thereby enhancing their strategic position in the marketplace.

Prior studies (Isham et al., 2021) have shown that poor labour productivity negatively affects both organizational outcomes and employee health. Building on this, Haile (2023) identifies soft leadership skills such as empathy and communication, to be important in enhancing performance and promoting employee well-being. Although Haile (2023) study highlights that there is a limited understanding of how leadership quality directly influences outcomes such as productivity and employee well-being, the findings show a growing shift from top-down leadership models toward participatory approaches that place interpersonal

relationships at the center of organizational effectiveness. Depending solely on the power of position is insufficient in today's evolving organizations. Instead, building leadership as a collective capability in which employees at all levels contribute to problem-solving and vision-sharing can generate both improved performance and employee engagement (Sergi et al., 2012; Friedrich et al., 2009).

2.3. Innovative work behavior (IWB)

Innovative behavior was first recognized in academic literature in the 1970s. It is most often studied at three main levels and they are: individual, team, and organizational. At the organizational level, innovative behavior fosters an environment that supports creativity and change, with leadership as a major factor in setting the agenda for innovation (Janssen, 2000; Mumford et al., 2002; Anderson et al., 2014). Collaboration, knowledge exchange as well as mutual support are identified as key elements for collective innovation at the team level (Tang et al., 2024; Kipkosgei et al., 2020). And lastly at the individual level, innovative behavior is characterized by activities such as idea generation, idea promotion, and idea implementation, which depend on individual motivation and domain-relevant skills (Amabile, 1983; Scott & Bruce, 1994). These levels show the multiple facets of innovation, highlighting the connection between individual creativity and team dynamics.

Similarly, based on their systematic review of 57 studies on IWB in public organizations, Srirahayu et al. (2023) identified three primary domains; personal attributes, inter/teamwork and organizational factors, as pivotal influences on IWB. They highlighted the versatility of these domains as they can either act independently, as a mediating factor or as a moderator. By combining a variety of empirical findings, the review offers a holistic framework that underscores the complexity of IWB in the public sector, most especially within educational institutions and Asian regions.

Kleysen and Street (2001) conducted an extensive analysis of 289 innovation-related behaviors to expand the conceptual understanding of IWB. They developed a multi-dimensional framework that captures the complexity of innovation at the individual level and proposed five key dimensions - “opportunity exploration, generativity, formative investigation, championing, and application” - to reflect the full scope of innovative actions. The study underscores the

importance of recognising innovation as a process involving distinct but interrelated behaviors, offering valuable application in innovation research. Subsequent studies have often adopted this framework to examine how various factors influence each stage of innovative behavior within the workplace.

Amabile (1988) provides a foundational view on the interconnection between individual creativity and organizational innovation. Understanding the nature of IWB requires a knowledge of this relationship. The author's componential model of creativity and innovation remains one of the most influential frameworks for understanding IWB. Domain-relevant skills, creativity-relevant skills, and intrinsic task motivation were identified as the key components required for individual creativity. The author highlighted that while domain-relevant skills provide the building blocks for problem-solving, it is the creative thinking skills, which involve cognitive styles and personality traits that support flexible thinking and idea generation, that enable novel thinking. Task motivation reflects a person's genuine interest to engage in work and it plays a vital role in sustaining the effort needed to explore original ideas.

The Indonesian scholarly community has recently experienced a significant increase in research on IWB (Pratama et al., 2023). This increase shows its significance in improving productivity and competitiveness. The study outlined that IWB is being explored in a wide range of disciplines, including human resources and management, demonstrating the scope of the topic. The authors note, nevertheless, that IWB gets little attention in public administration journals, thereby creating a gap, especially in terms of how cultures and laws can affect innovation in public organizations. This lack of focus makes it more challenging to see how innovation works in government settings, where rules and structures are often more rigid.

According to research, employees are more likely to share novel ideas and try out new techniques when they feel heard, trusted, and safe to speak up (Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Scott & Bruce, 1994). A supportive work environment, shaped by leadership, can reduce fear of failure and increase motivation to innovate (Amabile et al., 1996). Leaders who are open, approachable, and willing to back new ideas help create this environment (Pieterse et al., 2010). These considerations are important, especially in settings where formal rules often slow down innovation. Closing the gaps noted by Pratama et al. (2023) thus requires a knowledge of how leadership may foster innovation.

Abun and Ruadap-Macaspac (2023) examined the relationship between an innovative work environment and employees' IWB. In their descriptive-correlational study involving employees from various colleges, the authors found that while employees generally perceive both their work environment and their own innovative actions positively, these perceptions are not uncommon. More importantly, statistical analysis showed a significant relationship between the two variables. These findings support existing theories which argue that when employees feel supported and encouraged to share novel ideas, they are more inclined to go beyond routine responsibilities.

The human resource management practices examined by Chowhan et al., (2017) are consistent with the widely cited Ability-Motivation-Opportunity (AMO) framework (Appelbaum et al., 2000), which contends that employees who are skilled, motivated, and given the chance to contribute are more likely to exhibit IWB. A notable insight from their research is the role of strategic goal-setting for innovation, which aligns with earlier research showing that organizational climate, participatory structures, and leadership support are critical for encouraging IWB (Scott & Bruce, 1994). In an article by Cox and Blake (1991), the authors discussed how effective management of cultural diversity within organizations can improve innovation and adaptability - two main components of IWB. Based on their framework, organizations may uncover varied perspectives that are vital to IWB by fostering inclusive environments.

The measurement of IWB has evolved considerably over the years, with scholars adopting both unidimensional and multidimensional constructs to capture its complexity. Early foundational work by Scott and Bruce (1994) conceptualized IWB as a unidimensional construct and developed a six-item scale that assesses the rate with which employees engage in innovative behaviors, such as generating and implementing new ideas. This scale is still widely used because it is easy to understand and reliable. Conversely, Lukes and Stephan (2017) further refined the measurement of IWB in a cross-cultural study by introducing the "innovative behavior inventory" (IBI); a multi-dimensional tool that breaks IWB into six parts, including but not limited to searching ideas and overcoming obstacles. Some researchers now use the multi-dimensional tool because it offers an accurate view for theoretical research and practical assessments.

De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) conceptualize IWB as a multidimensional construct comprising four distinct yet interrelated dimensions: idea exploration, idea generation, idea championing, and idea implementation. Idea exploration involves the engagement of employees to identify problems and areas for improvement (De jong and Den Hartog, 2010). It involves curiosity about developments that might spark innovation. Janssen (2000) highlighted this phase as the stage where employees recognize gaps that require attention. Idea generation involves the creative process of producing novel and useful ideas in response to the opportunities or problems identified. This dimension reflects an individual's cognitive capacity for innovation and has been linked to creativity theories that emphasize divergent thinking and problem-solving (Amabile, 1988). Idea championing is the process of actively promoting a new idea to gain support and resources. It requires interpersonal influence and persistence, as employees must convince colleagues or leaders of the value of the idea (Howell & Sheab, 2001). Idea implementation is the final stage and it involves execution of the idea into existing work processes. It includes experimentation and refinement to bring the ideas into reality (Axtell et al., 2000). These dimensions collectively capture the process of innovation within an organization. While De Jong and Den Hartog (2010) describe IWB as a series of interrelated dimensions, these behaviors may not necessarily occur sequentially in practice. And as Scott and Bruce (1994) suggest, employees can engage in these multiple stages of innovation simultaneously.

Al-Omari et al. (2019) advocate for a more comprehensive exploration of team-related factors, even though existing research on IWB has provided insights into its effects and impacts (Tang et al., 2024). The authors suggested that factors like group support and team roles are important in determining how IWB is shaped in organizational settings. These factors have an influence on how knowledge is shared, how collaboration develops, and how teams collectively engage in innovation-driven activities. Future research would thus benefit from adopting this approach. As it spans individual, team, and organizational perspectives and considers the possible advantages and disadvantages of encouraging creativity at the employee level.

2.4. Relationship between Organizational leadership and IWB

The relationship between organizational leadership and IWB has been widely explored, with leadership recognized as an important factor of innovation outcomes in organizations. (De Jong and Den Hartog, 2007). Emphasizing the positive significance between shared leadership

and team effectiveness, Wang et al. (2014) conducted a meta-analysis that underscores its importance to employees IWB. When leadership responsibilities are distributed across team members, there is a stronger impact on team dynamics, including behaviors and emergent processes that support innovation (Wang et al. 2014). It is remarkable to note that the result of the analysis showed that shared leadership forms were more effective than traditional leadership styles. They performed especially well in complex work environments where collaboration and innovation are vital. This implies that fostering a shared leadership culture in an organization helps produce the psychological and behavioural environment needed to inspire employees to participate more actively in innovative initiatives.

A growing body of empirical studies in the past decades demonstrates a positive relationship between collective forms of leadership and employees' IWB. In Ali et al. (2022) quantitative study of Pakistan information systems workers, they investigated the function of shared leadership on IWB using social identity theory. The study addressed how shared leadership, characterized by distributing leadership duties among team members, fosters IWB by creating an interactive environment. Shared leadership was examined in terms of its capacity to encourage collaborative decision-making and support employees in working collectively toward organizational goals. Their findings revealed that shared leadership positively influences IWB by facilitating the interchange of ideas, fostering prosocial motivation, making it possible for employees to contribute innovative solutions.

Carson et al. (2007) conducted a quantitative study to investigate the antecedents and outcomes of shared leadership within 59 consulting teams. Using social network analysis and regression modelling, they found that teams exhibiting high levels of shared leadership demonstrated significantly higher levels of team performance. Importantly, the presence of a motivating team environment where members can speak up and share objectives became evident as key factors promoting innovation. The conditions identified in this study align closely with environments known to support IWB. These results support the findings of Hiller et al. (2006), who demonstrated that performance improves when leadership responsibilities are distributed within teams. Both studies emphasize that shared leadership creates conditions that promote idea sharing, collaboration, and ultimately, IWB among team members.

Using a different yet complementary approach, Hoch (2013) utilized a dataset of a field

sample from two companies. The study used structured surveys where team members provided information on their individual traits and views of shared leadership, while team leaders evaluated the quality of their leadership and the innovative behaviour of their teams. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to analyze direct and indirect effects. The findings corroborated that shared leadership positively influenced innovative behaviour, thereby highlighting the importance of collaborative leadership in fostering team innovation (Vandavasi et al., 2020).

A study by Qi et al. (2019) explored how inclusive leadership influences employees' IWB, with perceived organizational support acting as a mediator. Using data collected through surveys from supervisors and employees across fifteen service-based organizations, the researchers found that inclusive leadership cultivates a supportive work environment where employees feel empowered to introduce new ideas, technologies, and processes. The study aligned inclusive leadership with organizational support and social exchange theories, emphasizing that leaders who actively value employee input foster reciprocity. This inclusiveness encourages a sense of obligation and motivation among employees to contribute meaningfully, particularly through innovation. Though their approaches differ, inclusive and collective leadership have basic concepts that encourage innovation. Participation, psychological safety, and respect for diverse viewpoints are all encouraged by inclusive leadership (Randel et al., 2018), and these are all essential prerequisites for collective leadership.

In another context, research by Quek et al. (2021) showed that distributed leadership enhances engagement levels by actively involving employees in leadership tasks and collaborative decision-making processes. For instance, the results of their mixed-method analysis demonstrated a notable over 10% increase in employee engagement when employees participated in distributed leadership initiatives. This level of engagement creates a foundation for innovative behaviors, as employees are more motivated and invested in organizational outcomes.

Ayodele (2023) provides empirical support for the growing consensus that shared leadership can significantly enhance employees' IWB. The study, which focused on salesmen, shows how involving more than one person in the leadership process fosters a collaborative environment where creativity and proactivity can thrive. Furthermore, Ayodele's findings align

with the broader organizational behavior literature that emphasizes the need for leadership structures that go beyond top-down control (Lee & Edmondson, 2017). Shared leadership fosters a psychologically safe environment for experimentation and idea generation, two core components of IWB, by exploiting the diverse experiences and perspectives in a team. This supports earlier findings by Pearce and Sims (2002) and Wang et al. (2014), who found that collective leadership styles contribute positively to team creativity and innovation outcomes.

The relationship between organizational leadership and IWB can also be explored through employee commitment. In an article by Ikyanyon and Agber (2020), the authors investigated the effect of commitment on organizational performance in a manufacturing company in Nigeria. They highlight the significance of leadership in creating work environments that inspire employees to exhibit higher levels of engagement. thereby influencing organizational performance, although they also stress that the type of commitment determines the extent of its impact. According to their findings, organizational leadership has a role in influencing employees' IWB by creating a supportive work environment.

Whether described as shared, participative or distributed, collective leadership tends to cultivate environments that support and encourage innovative behavior. This is consistent across different sectors and regions, including cultures with high respect for authority like Nigeria. Cultural context plays a vital role in shaping how collective leadership functions. For instance, Eyong (2024) offers a culturally grounded perspective by exploring collective leadership within an indigenous African council system found in parts of Nigeria and Cameroon. The study reveals that, unlike traditional leadership theories which revolve around a singular leader, the Ekpe institution demonstrates a multi-leader model. Through interviews and field observations, Eyong (2024) illustrates how leadership emerges dynamically through communal participation and shared authority.

As previously mentioned, a wide range of theoretical and empirical literature has primarily focused on the effect of organizational leadership on IWB, with comparatively less focus on how IWB can in turn, influence organizational leadership. A consensus found from reviewing these leadership studies is that there are positive significant influence of organizational leadership on IWB (Hoch, 2013; Wang et al., 2014).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Sample Description

This research study collected data from employees working in companies in Lagos, Nigeria, covering eight main industries: Startups/Entrepreneurship, Information Technology, Telecommunications, Financial Services, Healthcare, Construction/Real Estate, Manufacturing, and Oil and Gas. To assess the representativeness of the study sample, we compared the sectoral distribution of respondents in the sample to the actual workforce of the entire population across selected sectors. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2024), the total employed population is approximately 84.2 million people. Table 1 below shows the percentage[1] of people working in each sector for both the sample and the national population.

Table 1

Comparison of Sample and National Employment Distribution by Sector in Nigeria

Sector	**Sample Count**	**Sample %**	**Population % (Estimated)[2]**
Information Technology	53	17.7	~0.54
Telecommunications	46	15.3	~0.018
Financial Services	44	14.7	~0.20
Manufacturing	21	7.0	~ 3.7
Oil and Gas	16	5.3	~0.04
Healthcare	36	12.0	~0.48
Startups/Entrepreneurship	61	20.3	~67.78
Construction/Real Estate	23	7.7	~10.8

Source: *National Bureau of Statistics (2012, 2015, 2017, 2021, 2022, 2023); NEITI, 2021; The Guardian 2023; The Punch, 2023; Disrupt Africa team,2022; Own calculation*

[1] The percentages do not sum up to 100% because the analysis includes only selected sectors.

[2] The population percentages are approximations based on available reports across various years and may vary slightly depending on the source.

Table 2

Demographic Statistics of respondents

Participant	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Gender		
Male	178	59.3
Female	122	40.7
Total	**300**	**100**
Age		
Under 18	4	1.3
18-24	28	9.3
25-34	139	46.3
35-44	85	28.3
45-54	28	9.3
55 or older	16	5.3
Total	**300**	**100**
Educational Background		
OND/NCE	10	3.3
HND/Bachelor's Degree	205	68.3
Master's Degree	59	19.7
Doctoral Degree	26	8.7
Total	**300**	**100**
Experience (Years)		
<5	93	31
6-10	86	28.7
11-15	91	30.3
>15	30	10.0
Total	**300**	**100**
Hierarchical Level		
Entry level	63	21.0
Middle level	175	58.3
Senior level	62	20.7
Total	**300**	**100**
Organization Size		
Small (1-50 employees)	101	33.7
Medium (51-500 employees)	166	55.3
Large (500+ employees)	33	11.0
Total	**300**	**100**

NB: ND/NCE = National Diploma/Nigeria Certificate in Education, HND = Higher National Diploma

Source: *Author's computation*

The percentages in table 1 above show some sectors are overrepresented and some others are underrepresented which indicates a notable sampling bias that may affect the generalization of findings. According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2024), the total employed population is approximately 84.2 million people. It is important to note that this comparison is based on sectors under study and as such, the table does not include every employment sector in Nigeria.

Table 2 shows that 46.3% of respondents fall within the 25-34 age group, indicating a youth-dominated work environment in the studied organizations. This demographic composition reflects a significant representation of employees likely to bring innovative ideas and strong technological fluency to the workplace as young professionals are often eager to engage in professional development opportunities. In terms of education, over two-thirds (68.3%) of the respondents have a Higher National Diploma (HND) or a Bachelor's degree, while 19.7% hold a Master's degree. This shows that the sample is generally well-educated. Looking at gender, there were slightly more male participants (59.3%) than female participants (40.7%). Based on these figures, the data set is a suitable representative of the professional group being studied.

3.2. Procedure for Data Collection and Measures

After outlining the demographic characteristics of the respondents, this section describes the procedure used to collect data for the study. The data for this study was collected using an online questionnaire method. The questionnaire was designed to capture relevant information related to the study variables. Following established protocols, I obtained ethical approval and consent from the managers and Human Resources departments of the various organizations selected for the study. With a response rate of 54.5%, a total of 300 complete responses were received. It is proper to note that all questions were marked as mandatory, preventing incomplete submissions and ensuring data integrity.

3.3. Measurement

To collect data, two instruments were employed: OLC, as established by Kivipõld and Vadi (2010), and IWB, as defined by Kleysen and Street (2001).

Organizational Leadership Capability (OLC):

The sixteen items of OLC were used from the study of Kivipõld and Vadi (2010). This measure

used four main factors: Alignment and cohesion (4 Statements) with statements such as: '*My personal objectives coincide with the long-term objectives of the company*', informal communication (4 Statements) with statements such as '*We have restrooms (coffee rooms) in our organization, where we gather to socialize with our co-workers*', extent of centralization (4 Statements) with statements such as '*We are regarded as equals at wor*k', and control-feedback system (4 statements) with statements such as; '*I consider our control systems to be fair*'. All the study variables were measured on a frequency scale ranging from 1= 'strongly disagree' to 7= 'I completely agree.' The Cronbach Alpha reliability of this measure was 0.846.

Innovative work behavior (IWB):

The fourteen items of IWB developed by Kleysen and Street (2001) were used. This assessment of IWB comprises five primary dimensions: opportunity exploration (3 statements) with statements such as, '*In your current job, how often do you look for opportunities to improve an existing process, technology, product, service, or work relationship?'* generativity (2 statements) with statements such as, '*In your current job, how often do you generate ideas or solutions to address problems?'*, formative investigation (3 statements) with statements such as, '*In your current job, how often do you evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of new ideas?'*, championing (3 statements) with statements such as, '*In your current job, how often do you take the risk to support new ideas,*' and application (3 statements) with statements such as, '*In your current job, how often do you incorporate new ideas for improving an existing process, technology, product or service into daily routines?'*

The study variables were measured on a 6-point Likert-type scale, from 1= never, 2= Almost never, 3=Sometimes, 4= Often, 5= Very often, and 6= Always. The Cronbach Alpha reliability of this measure was 0.932.

Based on the data presented in table 3, Cronbach's alpha coefficients for both OLC and IWB factors demonstrate strong reliability, as they all surpass the threshold of 0.70 recommended by Nunnally (1978, p. 245) for research purposes. This benchmark suggests that the scale is reliable and that the items within the scale are sufficiently correlated to one another.

Table 3

Cronbach's Alpha Values for OLC and IWB

Factors of OLC	Cronbach's Alpha Value
Alignment and Cohesion	0.773
Informal Communication	0.768
Extent of Centralization	0.801
Control Feedback System	0.883
Factors of IWB	
Opportunity Exploration	0.729
Generativity	0.814
Formative Investigation	0.857
Championing	0.893
Application	0.825

Source: *Author's computation*

3.4. Data Analysis

This study aims to explain the relationship between organizational leadership and IWB. The author used correlation and linear regression methods to achieve this, including important factors like gender, age, educational background, work experience, hierarchical level, and organization size. These control variables have been carefully coded as: Gender: male = 1, female =2; Age: Under 18= 1, 18-24= 2, 25-34= 3, 35-44= 4, 45-54= 5, 55 or older= 6; Educational background: OND/NCE = 1, HND/bachelor's =2, Master's degree = 3 and Doctoral degree =4; Experience(years): less than 5 =1, 6-10 =2, 11-15=3, >15 =4; Hierarchy level: Entry level=1, Middle level =2 and senior level=3, Organization size: small=1, medium=2, and large=3; to ensure consistency and clarity in analysis.

4. RESULTS

This section outlines the results from our empirical analyses. In table 4, the author computed basic statistics, such as means and standard deviations. Pearson's correlation coefficients were used to determine the strength and direction of relationships between variables of OLC IWB and the control variables. Values range from -1 for a negative relationship, 0 for no relationship, to +1 for a positive one. An OLS linear regression analysis was conducted to estimate the relationship between OLC and IWB and the control variables in two steps. The analysis was initially divided into two models: the OLC model and the IWB model. As illustrated in Table 5, the OLC model evaluated how it affects the control variables and IWB, and likewise, the IWB model analyzed how IWB influences the control variables and OLC.

Subsequently, in the next step, the OLC Model assessed how OLC impacts the five factors of IWB (Opportunity exploration, Generativity, Formative Investigation, Championing, and Application), while the IWB Model evaluated the effects of IWB on the four factors of OLC (Alignment and cohesion, Informal Communication, Extent of Communication, and Control Feedback System).

Table 5 shows that the beta coefficient for IWB is 0.765 ($p < 0.001$), indicating that a one-unit increase in IWB is associated with a 0.765-unit increase in OLC, holding all other factors constant. This relationship demonstrates a strong and statistically significant positive relationship. For the model fit, the R-squared value is 0.378, meaning the model explains 37.8% of the variance in OLC. The F-statistic of 25.30 ($p < 0.001$) indicates that the overall model is highly significant and well-fitted to the data. Similarly in the IWB Model, the beta coefficient for OLC is 0.487 ($p < 0.001$), indicating a reciprocal relationship, that is, as OLC increases, so does IWB, assuming all other variables remain constant. This relationship is both substantial and statistically significant. The R-squared value is 0.377, indicating that the model accounts for 37.7% of the variance in IWB. The F-statistic of 25.217 ($p < 0.001$) confirms the strong explanatory power of the model and its overall statistical significance.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Correlation among study Variables (n=300)

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Gender																
2	Age			0.629**													
3	Educational Background			0.538**	0.685**												
4	Experience			0.724**	0.779**	0.691**											
5	Hierarchical Level			0.425**	0.728**	0.587**	0.607**										
6	Organization size			0.460**	0.674**	0.474**	0.720**	0.557**									
7	Alignment and Cohesion	5.139	1.384	-0.042	0.034	0.031	0.003	0.061	0.009								
8	Informal Communication	4.788	1.583	-0.026	-0.002	0.029	0.004	-0.019	0.035*	0.375**							
9	Extent of Centralization	4.568	1.510	-0.041	0.006	-0.004	0.011	0.004	0.076	0.553**	0.512**						
10	Control feedback system	5.103	1.451	-0.039	0.004	0.003	-0.010	0.001	0.031	0.562**	0.657**	0.825**					
11	Opportunity exploration	4.543	0.918	-0.010	0.035	0.074	0.031	0.014	0.058	0.205**	0.485**	0.449**	0.487**				
12	Generativity	4.705	1.052	-0.003	0.032	0.008	0.000	-0.009	0.083	0.389**	0.448**	0.598**	0.561**	0.657**			
13	Formative investigation	4.447	1.211	-0.001	0.050	0.017	0.004	0.033	0.053	0.385**	0.515**	0.592**	0.588**	0.773**	0.774**		
14	Championing	4.427	1.207	-0.021	0.038	0.010	0.017	0.045	0.053	0.391**	0.344**	0.529**	0.414**	0.702**	0.585**	0.885**	
15	Application	4.504	1.104	-0.009	0.039	0.002	0.014	0.048	0.017	0.343**	0.298**	0.485**	0.454**	0.628**	0.620**	0.855**	.844**

Note:

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level*

**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level*

Source: *Author's computation*

Table 5

Regression model for the relationship between organizational leadership capability and innovative work behavior (n=300)

Variables	OLC Model (β)	IWB Model (β)
Constant	1.515^{***}	1.976^{***}
Gender	-0.162	0.025
Age	-0.040	0.062
Educational Background	0.059	-0.014
Experience	0.030	-0.059
Hierarchical Level	-0.013	-0.007
Organization Size	0.066	0.049
IWB	0.765^{***}	
OLC		0.487^{***}
R^2	0.378	0.377
F-statistic	25.30^{***}	25.217^{***}

NB: ***$p \leq 0.001$; **$p \leq 0.01$; *$p \leq 0.05$; + $p < 0.1$

Source: *Author's computation*

The regression result in table 5 also shows that none of the control variables have a statistically significant effect on either OLC or IWB. In the OLC model, all control variables showed small beta values, indicating minimal individual influence. For instance, gender (β = -0.162) and age (β = -0.040) had slight negative effects, while educational background (β = 0.059), experience (β = 0.030), and organization size (β = 0.066) showed weak positive associations, though none were significant. A similar pattern was observed in the IWB model, where all control variables had very low beta values and remained non-significant. From these findings, we can imply that demographic and organizational factors did not meaningfully impact OLC or IWB in this study, which further shows the strength of the relationship between them.

Table 6

Regression model for the factors of organizational leadership capability and IWB (n=300)

Variables	OLC Model (β)	IWB Model (β)
Constant	2.065***	2.142***
Gender	-0.247	0.024
Age	-0.730	0.076
Educational Background	0.046	-0.006
Experience	0.128	-0.065
Hierarchical Level	0.040	0.012
Organization Size	-0.027	0.005
Opportunity Exploration	-0.058	
Generativity	0.307***	
Formative Investigation	0.683***	
Championing	-0.058	
Application	-0.210	
Alignment and Cohesion		0.034
Informal Communication		0.122
Extent of Centralization		0.281***
Control Feedback System		0.032
R^2	0.448	0.400
$Adjusted\ R^2$	0.427	0.380
F-statistic	21.286***	19.300***

NB: ***$p \leq 0.001$; **$p \leq 0.01$; *$p \leq 0.05$; + $p < 0.1$

Source: *Author's computation*

From the OLC model in table 6, it can be seen that two factors of IWB; generativity and formative investigation significantly predicted OLC with $\beta = 0.307$ and $\beta = 0.683$ respectively at a significance level of $p < 0.001$. Formative investigation shows the strongest positive relationship with OLC, reflecting the key role of investigation and experimentation. Generativity has a positive and significant impact on OLC and this suggests that organizations that take creative and problem-solving skills seriously may experience higher leadership capability. These factors are inward-facing processes as they build leadership strength from within, rather than relying on external traits (like age or hierarchy).

Other variables in the model, such as gender, age, experience, and organizational size were not significant predictors of OLC, indicating that demographic attributes may influence perspectives but do not typically influence leadership. The result also shows that holding top positions (hierarchical level) or having long experience does not guarantee leadership quality. Other factors like application and championing may support innovation but don't necessarily build leadership systems. These reasons emphasize that leadership capability depends more on how leadership is practiced and developed within the organization than on external traits. The R-squared value indicates that 44.8% of the variability in OLC is explained by the model. The Adjusted R-squared value of 0.427 accounts for the number of predictors, and the F-statistic (21.286, $p \leq 0.001$) confirms the overall statistical significance of the model.

Furthermore, the IWB model in Table 6 shows that only 'extent of centralization' has a significant effect on IWB with a β coefficient of 0.281. This suggests that employees are more likely to be innovative in organizations where decision-making is moderately structured and centralized. While this may seem surprising, it reflects environments where clear direction and top-down support make it easier for employees to share ideas and take action. So, centralization does not necessarily suppress innovation, instead, it can create the organizational stability and alignment needed for innovation to thrive. Other factors, like informal communication and feedback systems, did not significantly predict IWB, and this means that while they may help create a positive work environment, they don't directly lead to innovative behavior. The Adjusted R-squared value of 0.380 confirms the model's explanatory power after adjusting for predictors and the F-statistic of 19.30 ($p \leq 0.001$) suggests the strong overall significance of the model.

RQ: What is the nature of the relationship between organizational leadership and employee IWB?

The results in tables 5 and 6 above show that there is a reciprocal relationship between OLC and IWB, which is emphasized by their presence and significance in their respective models. This bi-directional relationship suggests that leadership capabilities within an organization can promote an environment conducive to innovative behaviors and vice versa, where a culture of innovation may also strengthen leadership capabilities.

Table 5 clearly indicates that IWB is a significant predictor of IWB, with a beta coefficient of $\beta=0.765$ ($p < 0.01$) in the IWB model and likewise, OLC is also a significant predictor of IWB, with a beta coefficient of $\beta=0.487$ ($p < 0.01$) in the IWB model. This suggests that as OLC increases, so does the IWB of employees, implying a positive relationship between these two variables. Given these results, it can be concluded that this relationship is mutually reciprocal and statistically significant.

5. DISCUSSION

This study contributes to the existing literature on organizational leadership and IWB by examining their relationship in the context of formal, structured organizations in Lagos State, Nigeria. These organizations include sectors such as Information Technology, Telecommunications, Financial Services, Healthcare, Manufacturing, Oil and Gas, Construction/Real Estate, and Startups. They include large and medium-sized companies and fast-growing small businesses.

The three main aspects of discussion are:

i. the mutual relationship between OLC and IWB

ii. how the factors of OLC influence the factors of IWB

iii. the relationship between OLC, IWB and the control variables.

Firstly, the findings of this study show a reciprocal relationship where IWB influences organizational leadership, and vice versa. The significant positive relationship as shown in Figure 1, supports earlier research that underscores the vital role of leadership in promoting employee innovative behavior. For instance, Kivipõld and Vadi (2010) highlighted that leadership at the organizational level supports the development of dynamic capabilities and knowledge-sharing structures necessary for innovation. De Jong and Den Hartog (2007) also emphasized how leader behaviors facilitate idea generation and application.

However, this study goes further by showing a bidirectional influence where IWB actively adjusts leadership in addition to responding to it. Employees who consistently engage in innovative behaviors can encourage adaptive responses from their leaders, thereby co-creating an environment that is conducive for innovation. This is strongly supported by Khan (2023), whose study on technology and service driven sectors in Pakistan indicated a mutual influence between

OLC and IWB. Notably, Khan's analysis showed that IWB had twice the impact on OLC compared to the influence of OLC on IWB. These findings align with the argument by Mumford et al. (2002) that leadership and innovation evolve together.

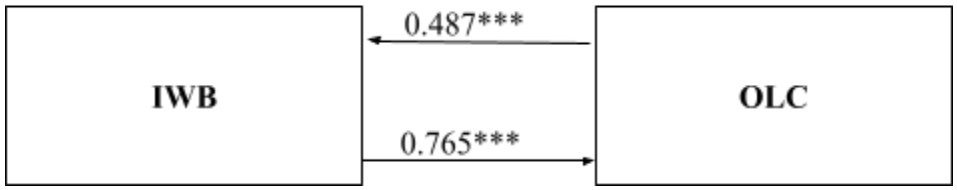

Figure 1: ***Reciprocal relationship between IWB and OLC***

Source: Author's calculation

Secondly, the findings from this study shows the significant relationships between the factors of OLC and IWB (see figure 2). Among these, two factors of IWB; generativity and formative investigation, influence OLC. Generativity, as conceptualized by Kleysen and Street (2001), refers to an employee's intentional creation of new ideas and solutions within an organization. The positive and significant relationship between generativity and OLC indicates that organizations with leadership structures that encourage creativity and innovation are more capable to develop and sustain effective leadership practices. Also, formative investigation which is the process of seeking clarification and exploring alternatives (Kleysen and Street, 2001), shows the strongest positive influence on OLC. This indicates that leadership effectiveness is significantly enhanced when organizations support the development of initial ideas into actionable and practical outcomes.

Another significant finding is the positive relationship between extent of centralization, a factor of OLC, and IWB. Extent of centralization as conceptualized by Kivipõld and Vadi (2010) is the degree to which decision-making authority is distributed at the top levels of an organization.

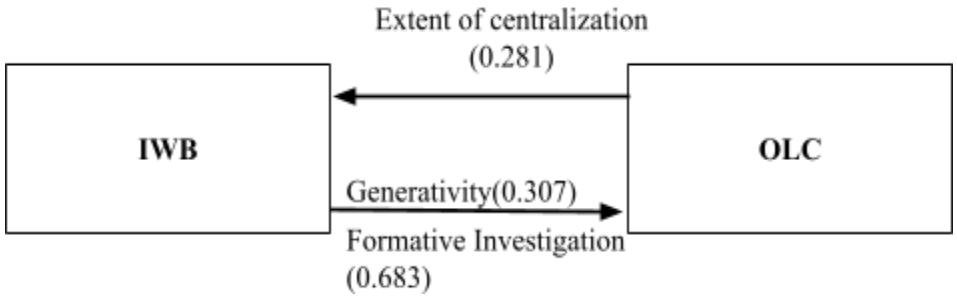

Figure 2: ***Relationship between IWB and OLC and their factors***

Source: Author's calculation

Note: OLC factor (Extent of centralization) and IWB factors (Generativity and Formative investigation).

Lastly, the findings of the study shows that there are no significant relationships between control variables and either IWB or OLC. While age showed no statistically significant impact on IWB or OLC in the regression results, the descriptive data indicates a possible trend where younger employees (e.g., 25-34 years) contribute more to innovative efforts. Similarly, the lack of a gender effect aligns with research suggesting that innovation and leadership capabilities are more influenced by organizational culture and personal characteristics rather than demographic factors (Eagly and Chin, 2010). Hierarchical level also showed no significant effect, indicating that leadership and innovation capabilities are distributed across levels. This aligns with concepts of distributed leadership, which emphasize that leadership roles and innovation potential exist at all levels of an organization (Uhl-Bien et al., 2007).

In comparison, the findings of this study partially align with those of Khan (2023), who also found that generativity significantly influences OLC. However, Khan identified application, rather than formative investigation, as the second key dimension of IWB associated with OLC. This means that, while Khan's findings suggest that leadership is influenced by the practical implementation of ideas, the present study underscores the role of exploratory behaviors such as information-seeking, in influencing leadership. This divergence highlights an important perspective in how different factors of IWB influence organizational leadership. A further difference can be seen in the relationship between the factors of OLC and IWB. This study shows a significant relationship between extent of centralization and IWB and in contrast, Khan (2023) identified alignment and cohesion as a predictor of IWB. These differences may be

attributed to contextual variations between the two studies, including national context (Pakistan and Nigeria), organizational sectors, sample characteristics (e.g., sample size, age distribution, and education level), or cultural expectations regarding innovation and leadership responsiveness across stages of the innovation process.

5.1. Limitations

This study has some limitations that should be noted for future research. First, the study relies on self-reported data, which can introduce various forms of response bias, such as social desirability bias, where participants might overstate their innovative behaviors or leadership qualities to conform to socially accepted norms. Also, the accuracy of the responses could be compromised by participants' reluctance to provide negative feedback about their work organizations. Another limitation is that a sample of 300 limits the scope of this study. It does not fully capture the demographic variability of the workforce, including age, gender, and education levels, which can influence leadership styles and innovative behaviors. As a result, the findings may not be fully representative beyond the study sample.

5.2. Recommendations

Future research could integrate qualitative methods such as interviews or focus groups to counterbalance the biases in self-reported data. This would allow for a deeper exploration of participants' behaviors that self-reporting might miss. It could also provide context to the data, helping to clarify why participants may present themselves in a socially desirable way. Organizations should proactively foster a collective leadership approach that promotes and empowers innovation across all levels. This can be achieved by cultivating a culture where creativity and risk-taking are valued, and leaders act as facilitators of innovation rather than merely as directors of tasks. Also, organizations should adopt a more inclusive approach to leadership. This means recognizing and utilizing all employees' diverse skills and perspectives, regardless of their formal position within the company. By adopting this approach, businesses can access a more comprehensive array of ideas and solutions, thereby strengthening their capacity to innovate and adjust to changes in the market.

5.3. Conclusion

We aimed to study the nature of the relationship between organizational leadership and Employee IWB. The findings of this research show a significant positive relationship between these two variables, emphasizing that effective organizational leadership strongly predicts IWB and vice versa. The study highlights that leadership within organizations is not just about individual charismatic leaders but involves a collective dynamic where leadership qualities are distributed across levels and embraced by the group. This kind of method allows for an environment conducive to generate innovation, where employees feel empowered and supported in their creative endeavors. The study found that specific leadership practices, such as promoting open communication, supporting risk-taking, and providing appropriate feedback, significantly enhance IWB.

The findings from this study offer vital insights for managers aiming to foster a culture of innovation. It shows that leadership is not just about making decisions from the top but involves creating an environment where employees feel empowered to think creatively, share ideas, and take risks. Managers can leverage this relationship by adopting strategies that strengthen both leadership practices and employee innovation. From the result, while generativity involves creating and exploring new solutions, managers should prioritize creating a workplace that encourages critical thinking, problem-solving, and creativity by: i. allocating resources for research, experimentation, and idea refinement, such as innovation labs or dedicated project time. ii. establishing collaborative platforms where employees share insights may improve the organization’s ability for creative problem-solving iii. acknowledging contributions to innovation motivates employees and reinforces behaviors that strengthen leadership dynamics. Additionally, managers can implement clear frameworks and provide guidance while maintaining enough flexibility for employees to pursue creative solutions. A balanced approach to centralization enables employees to feel supported and empowered to innovate within a structured system.

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Resümee

Pealkiri: Organisatsioonilise juhtimise ja töötajate uuendusliku töökäitumise seos
Mariam Odunayo Aare

See magistritöö uurib organisatsioonilise juhtimise ja töötajate uuendusliku töökäitumise (IWB) vahelist seost Lagoses, Nigeerias. Kasutades põhjalikku kirjanduse ülevaadet ja empiirilist uuringut, mis hõlmas 300 vastajat erinevatest sektoritest, uuritakse uuringus, kuidas OLC erinevad dimensioonid mõjutavad töötajate IWB-d. Andmete kogumiseks kasutati struktureeritud küsimustikke ning analüüsiks korrelatsiooni- ja regressioonanalüüse. Uuring rõhutab kollektiivse juhtimise olulisust töötajate juhendamisel ja volitamisel osalema loomingulistes ja uuenduslikes protsessides.

Selle uuringu peamine eesmärk on määrata IWB ja OLC vahelise seose olemus. See saavutati, testides iga muutuja mõju teisele ja ka OLC ja IWB tegurite testimist neile.

See töö lisab väärtust olemasolevale kirjandusele, näidates kollektiivse juhtimise praktikate rolli IWB edendamisel, mis annab organisatsioonijuhtidele väärtuslikku teavet selle kohta, kuidas luua loovust ja innovatsiooni soodustavat keskkonda. Arutelus esitatakse soovitusi edasiseks uurimiseks ja praktiliseks rakendamiseks organisatsiooni arendamisel, rõhutades juhtimise olulisust konkurentsieelise saavutamisel innovatsiooni kaudu.

Peamised järeldused:
- Organisatsioonilise juhtimise ja uuendusliku ning innovaatilise töökäitumise vahel on positiivne seos, mis rõhutab juhtimise rolli innovatsioonile soodsa keskkonna loomisel.
- Uuringus kasutati Pearsoni korrelatsiooni ja lineaarset regressiooni, et analüüsida juhtimise mõju töötajate innovatsioonile, kinnitades, et juhtimisomadused mõjutavad oluliselt uuenduslikke tulemusi.
- Soovitused hõlmavad juhtimismudelite integreerimist juhtimiskoolitusse ja keskendumist kollektiivsele juhtimisele, et parandada organisatsiooni innovatsioonivõimet.

Juhtimise järeldused:
- Tulemuste põhjal on kollektiivne juhtimine organisatsioonides innovatsiooni edendamiseks hädavajalik.
- Organisatsioone julgustatakse võtma kasutusele juhtimispraktikaid, mis soodustavad loovust ja toetavad interpersonaalset töökeskset tasakaalustatud kohtlemist.

Piirangud ja edasised uuringud:
- Uuring tunnistab piiranguid, näiteks valimi suurust, mis võib mõjutada tulemuste üldistamist.
- Edasised uuringud võiksid uurida juhtimise mõju innovatsioonile erinevates kultuurilistes kontekstides ja mitmekesisemates tööstusharudes, et paremini mõista nende dünaamikat.

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