

The power of balance: interplay effects of exploitative leadership style, work–family balance and family-friendly workplace practices on innovation implementation

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Abstract

Purpose – The purpose of this paper is to investigate the inverted U-shaped relationship that exists between exploitative leadership styles and innovation implementation. In addition, drawing on the social cognitive theory, the paper explores the effect of the three-way interaction between exploitative leadership style (ELS), work–family balance (WFB) and family-friendly workplace practices (FFWPs) on innovation implementation.

Design/methodology/approach – A quantitative study of 440 employees from 38 medium and large companies based in Italy and Croatia was conducted, using an online survey. The proposed hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression analysis.

Findings – The results show that there is an inverted U-shaped curvilinear relationship between ELS and innovation implementation. Furthermore, the findings support the existence of the three-way interaction suggesting that the combination of high-level WFB and high-level FFWPs strengthens the relationship between ELS² and innovation implementation.

Originality/value – This is the first contribution that examines a curvilinear relationship between ELS and innovation implementation. Additionally, it contributes to the work–family literature by providing the first empirical examination of the joint impact of WFB and FFWPs in enhancing innovation implementation. Our results suggest that individuals who perceive a high level of WFB and who work in an organization with family-friendly practices are more accepting of an exploitative leader, and that the positive feelings from the family domain encourage the implementation of innovation. These results may change the attitudes of managers, encouraging them to consider WFB and FFWPs as important for the implementation of innovation.

Keywords Work–family balance, Family-friendly workplace practices, Exploitative leadership style, Innovation implementation

1. Introduction

Organizational innovation is a key factor for competitive advantage (e.g. [Crossan and Apaydin, 2010](#)), based on the innovation process at the micro- or individual level ([Skerlavaj et al., 2019](#)), which consists of generating and implementing novel and useful ideas (e.g. [Axtell et al., 2000](#)).

Most research on organizational innovation has focused attention on the creativity (i.e. idea generation) phase and has highlighted the importance of interaction between creativity and personal and contextual factors at work to foster creativity (e.g. [Amabile, 1996](#); [Shalley and Gilson, 2004](#)). The implementation phase, although traditionally under-

researched (e.g. [Anderson et al., 2014](#); [Škerlavaj et al., 2019](#)), is a challenging and risky task necessary to achieve innovative output (e.g. [Michaelis et al., 2010](#)). This points the need to better understand the conditions under which implementation of innovation occurs.

Previous studies have shown that many different factors influence the implementation of innovation, with leadership playing a significant role (e.g. [Fontana and Musa, 2017](#)). Leadership is one of the main determinants of organizational innovation and is becoming even more important as a skill that supports individual innovation process (e.g. [Albgooshi et al., 2020](#)). Leadership behavior is an important component of the work context (e.g. [Černe et al., 2013](#); [Michaelis et al., 2010](#)) and that has been shown to be an important predictor of employee creativity and organizational innovation (e.g. [Hughes et al., 2018](#)). Similarly, the process of idea implementation is rooted in social contexts, including the behavior of leaders (e.g. [Somech and Drach-Zahavy, 2013](#)). Available research has examined the relationship between leadership styles, creativity and innovation (for some comprehensive reviews, see [Hughes et al., 2018](#); [Kesting et al., 2015](#)). With regard to the implementation phase of ideas, few contributions have addressed the relationship between a particular leadership style and the implementation of innovation (e.g. [Michaelis et al., 2010](#); [Rosing et al., 2011](#)). Traditionally, leadership literature has focused on “positive” leadership styles and overlooked the “dark side” of leadership known as “destructive leadership” (for an overview, see [Schyns and Schilling, 2013](#)). However, destructive leadership is becoming increasingly important because its impacts are considerable, and some authors argue that they are even higher than the impacts of “positive” leadership styles (e.g. [Baumeister et al., 2001](#); [Einarsen et al., 2007](#)).

Existing empirical evidence suggests that positive leadership styles are an important predictor of innovation ([Hughes et al., 2018](#); [Rosing et al., 2011](#)). However, our understanding of the impact of destructive leadership styles on innovation remains limited ([Lopes Henriques et al., 2019](#)). In this paper, we therefore examine the relationship between exploitative leadership (i.e. a destructive leadership style) and innovation implementation. [Rosing et al. \(2011\)](#) conducted a meta-analytic review of the existing literature on leadership and innovation. They found that different leadership styles, both positive and negative (e.g. transformational leadership, transactional leadership, participative leadership . . .), have very different relationships with innovation depending on third party variables. In addition, they found that the studied leadership styles traditionally studied are too broad to specifically promote innovation, as they can both promote and inhibit innovation. [Rosing et al. \(2011, p. 965\)](#) further argue that “idea implementation is linked to exploitative activities and requires efficiency, goal orientation, and routine execution” ([Rosing et al., 2011, p. 965](#)). We contribute to this line of research by examining the relationship between exploitative leadership style (ELS)—a concept that emerged at the end of the last decade that has been under-researched and innovation.

Exploitative leadership is defined as “leadership with the primary intention to further the leader’s self-interest by exploiting others” ([Schmid et al., 2019, p. 1426](#)). Previous studies have demonstrated the negative influence of exploitative leadership on organizationally relevant outcomes such as job satisfaction, knowledge hiding, increased turnover intention, burnout and workplace deviance ([Schmid et al., 2018, 2019](#); [Guo et al., 2020](#)). [Schmid et al. \(2018\)](#), however, argue that in some situations, leader’s self-interested behaviors may benefit the organization. For example, if a leader’s goals are aligned with the goals of the organization, the leader may use seemingly friendly ways to push the followers to achieve higher targets. Considering that innovation implementation is a challenging and risky phase, in order to implement innovative ideas and leave their comfort zone, employees must have a goal in mind, follow a clear direction and be persistent in order to achieve this goal. Thus, we argue that a moderate level of exploitative leadership can be beneficial for implementing innovation. Exploitative leaders may push their followers to achieve higher goals even in

challenging, unpredictable situations. Therefore, we examine the curvilinear relationship between exploitative leadership and innovation implementation and argue that an intermediate level of ELS may empower, support and guide employees during the innovation implementation, thereby proving that exploitative leadership has a positive effect on innovation implementation.

Furthermore, we argue that the degree to which employees actually respond to intermediate exploitative leadership with higher level of innovation implementation may depend on two conditions. The first is the work–family balance (WFB), which may help employees to cope better with the stressful elements that both innovation implementation and ELS entail. Previous studies argue that a satisfactory WFB could have important implications for organizational innovation (e.g. James, 2011, 2014). When dealing with WFB, leaders play a crucial role in helping employees to better balance the demands between work and personal life (e.g. Hammond *et al.*, 2015). On the other hand, we argue that the family can provide resource gains that lead to better functioning of the individual in the workplace (Crouter, 1984). The second condition is the extent to which WFB is encouraged by the organization. Powell *et al.* (2019) postulate that due to the increasingly blurred boundaries between work and private life, organizations today are faced with the task of maintaining and improving the WFB of their employees. Given this growing need, employers who want to help employees manage the balance between work and the other areas of life should provide with family-friendly workplace practices (FFWPs) at the organizational level. Altogether, we argue that individuals with a high level of WFB and FFWPs may be more tolerant to accepting an exploitative leader, and the positive feelings from the family domain could facilitate the innovation implementation. The relationship between FFWPs, WFB and innovative work behavior (IWB) has been partially overlooked in the literature to date (e.g. Alegre and Pasamar, 2018; James 2014), as has the relationship between these work–family issues and exploitative leadership.

Therefore, this paper grows around the need to fill the gaps in the literature with the aim to examine the impact on innovation implementation of the ELS, the WFB and the FFWPs. First, investigating the possibility of an inverted U-shaped relationship between the ELS and the implementation phase of the IWB is examined. Then, in order to increase our knowledge of the relationship between these two topics, we propose, based on the social cognitive theory (SCT) (Bandura, 1977, 1999), that innovation implementation behavior is influenced by the interaction of personal (WFB) and environmental factors (ELS and FFWPs).

This study aims to present several intended theoretical contributions. The first concerns the expansion of the innovation literature by examining the role of an ELS as an important driving force in the innovation implementation phase. We attempted to establish a link between these two under-researched topics: ELS and innovation implementation. We also complemented and expanded the missing literature on exploitative leadership (Schmid *et al.*, 2018, 2019) and shed light on its impact on the final phase of IWB. The second intended contribution of this study concerns the work–family literature. We contributed to the existing body of knowledge by dealing with both FFWPs adopted at the organizational level and WFB. Our study is the first empirical study to address work–family–related topics and innovation implementation. Finally, the paper proposes and empirically examines the three-way interaction between ELS, WFB and FFWPs that facilitates innovation implementation. The findings of this paper could change the attitudes of managers to consider moderate level of exploitative leadership, WFB and FFWPs as important indicators for the innovation implementation.

2. Theoretical background and hypotheses development

2.1 Innovation implementation

The innovation process consists of several stages (exploration, generation, championing and implementation of ideas) (e.g. De Jong and Den Hartong, 2010); however, innovation theories

commonly describe two main phases: idea initiation and idea implementation (e.g. [Axtell et al., 2000](#); [De Jong and Den Hartong, 2007](#)). The first phase, also known as creativity or idea generation, which was formally defined by [Amabile \(1996\)](#) as the generation of novel and useful ideas, can be seen both as an outcome and a process ([Shalley and Zhou, 2008](#)). This phase is a determinant of innovation, a necessary precursor of innovation implementation at the individual level ([Amabile, 1996](#)).

According to [De Jong and Den Hartong \(2007\)](#), the point that separates the two phases is the point at which the decision to implement the innovation is made. In this way, the implementation phase begins after the idea is produced and ends when the idea is implemented.

Traditionally, literature has mainly focused on creativity, the generation of ideas and underestimated their implementation (e.g. [Amabile, 1996](#); [Woodman et al., 1993](#)). Recently, however, more attention has been paid to the implementation of ideas (e.g. [Bear, 2012](#); [Mumford, 2003](#)). This step forward, where attention is paid to the implementation phase, it is necessary to have a complete vision of the IWB and its expected outcome: the innovative output. Conversely, many authors have not made a clear distinction between the two phases (e.g. [Reuvers et al., 2008](#)) and have included both the idea generation and implementation in a single measure of the IWB of individuals (e.g. [Janssen, 2000](#); [Scott and Bruce, 1994](#)). On the contrary, as noted by [De Jong and Den Hartong \(2010\)](#), idea generation and implementation contribute to an overall construct of IWB, but are two different dimensions of this construct. Since idea generation and implementation are different activities, associated with different behaviors, a clear distinction between them improves the understanding of the innovation process and leads to useful practical implications.

Existing research suggests that many different factors influence the innovation implementation, including leadership (e.g. [Perry-Smith and Mannucci, 2017](#)). The behavior of leaders embodies an important element of the work context (e.g. [Černe et al., 2013](#)). Leaders act not only as behavioral role models for innovative ideas, but also as key actors in improving innovative behavior and changing attitudes that are helpful for innovative activities and their implementation ([Oke et al., 2009](#)).

Previous studies have examined the effects of different (positive) leadership styles, such as authentic leadership (e.g. [Černe et al., 2013](#)); transformational leadership (e.g. [Gong et al., 2009](#); [Shin and Zhou, 2003](#)); participative leadership (e.g. [Axtell et al., 2000](#)); supportive supervision (e.g. [Oldham and Cummings, 1996](#)), on individual innovation and creativity, and found mixed results (e.g. [Rosing et al., 2011](#)). For example, [Černe et al. \(2013\)](#) found that perceived authentic leadership has a positive statistically significant effect on individual creativity. In terms of transformational leadership and creativity, both [Gong et al. \(2009\)](#) and [Shin and Zhou \(2003\)](#) showed that transformational leadership is positively related to employee creativity.

Despite the emphasis on and interest in leadership-related factors when studying the phenomena related to innovation implementation, there is still a limited number of publications that examine the relationship between a specific leadership style and innovation implementation.

Among the limited available research, [Škerlavaj et al. \(2014\)](#), who examined the relationship between idea generation and idea implementation, found that perceived supervisor support acts as a mediator and thus affects the implementation phase. Moreover, [Michaelis et al. \(2010\)](#) showed that this leadership style is strongly related to innovation implementation behavior of followers ([Michaelis et al., 2010](#)).

2.2 Exploitative leadership style

Although leadership has both “positive” and “negative” leadership styles, the majority of researchers focused their attention more on the “positive” leadership styles, neglecting the

“dark side” of leadership. [Einarsen et al. \(2007\)](#) argue that not all leadership styles are extremely good or bad, but that there are also leadership styles that can include destructive and constructive behavior, thus emphasizing the need to also examine “moderated” level of leadership and not to focus only on the extremes (i.e. good or bad).

By exploring the “dark side” of leadership, a more accurate view of leadership may emerge. This negative side of leadership is known as “destructive leadership” (for a review, see [Schyns and Schilling, 2013](#)). Academic attention to the characteristics of destructive leadership documents that this type of leadership occurs in many forms and includes a variety of behaviors that are not just limited to the absence of constructive and positive leadership behavior (e.g. [Ashforth, 1994](#); [Einarsen et al., 2007](#); [Tepper, 2000](#)).

Researchers have proposed several concepts that could be considered as destructive leadership styles, including “abusive supervisors” ([Tepper, 2000](#)), “petty tyrants” ([Ashforth, 1994](#)) and “toxic leaders” ([Lipman Blumen, 2005](#)). [Einarsen et al. \(2007, p. 208\)](#) proposed a common definition of destructive leadership: “the systematic and repeated behaviour by a leader, supervisor or manager that violates the legitimate interest of the organisation by undermining and/or sabotaging the organisation’s goals, tasks, resources, and effectiveness and/or the motivation, well-being or job satisfaction of subordinates.” In addition, the authors have proposed conceptual model of destructive leadership that includes both destructive and constructive behavior ([Einarsen et al., 2007](#)). This suggests that among the nuances of the concept of destructive leadership, not all leadership styles are extremely good or bad, but that there are leadership styles that can include destructive and constructive behavior. Exploitative leadership could be perceived as such.

The concept of exploitative leadership was introduced by [Schmid et al. \(2019\)](#) with the aim to better investigate a common but under-researched feature of leadership behavior: their achievement of self-interest. After empirically demonstrating that exploitative leadership is analytically different from other forms of destructive leadership, the authors defined it as leadership with the primary intention to further the leader’s self-interest by exploiting others, reflected in five dimensions: genuine egoistic behaviors, taking credit, exerting pressure, undermining development and manipulating ([Schmid et al., 2019, p. 1426](#)).

Exploitative leaders are self-interested and treat their followers as a means to achieve their goals. In other words, they use their power to benefit themselves ([Williams, 2014](#)). This statement, which at first glance may be perceived as negative, may also be perceived as positive when the leader’s goals are consistent with those of the organization.

According to [Schmid et al. \(2018\)](#), we can imagine situations in which the self-interested behaviors of leaders can also be beneficial for the organization. If the goal of the leader and the organization are aligned, the leader can encourage his followers to achieve higher goals ([Schmid et al., 2018](#)). Moreover, an exploitative leader is not inherently hostile or aggressive like other abusive forms of leadership (e.g. [Ashforth, 1994](#); [Tepper, 2000](#)). An exploitative leader tends to behave in an over-friendly manner, behaving in an extremely pleasant manner to ensure that his or her interests are met. These characteristics clearly distinguish this construct from many other forms of destructive leadership and reinforce the good first impression that the leader makes on his followers ([Schmid et al., 2019](#)).

Despite the importance of understanding exploitative leadership, empirical research on exploitative leadership is still limited (only three contributions: [Guo et al., 2020](#); [Schmid et al., 2018, 2019](#)), and the existing researches have focused their attention only on the downsides of this construct. However, the need to also consider “moderated” levels of an ELS and not just its extremes is evident. Previous studies have explored the relationship between exploitative leadership and some organizationally relevant outcomes, such as job satisfaction, organizational commitment, well-being, burnout and workplace deviance. These studies provided evidence of a negative relationship between exploitative leadership and job satisfaction, organizational commitment and well-being, and a positive relationship with the

latter two variables: burnout and workplace deviance (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). In their studies, Schmid and colleagues proposed a direct and linear relationship between the exploitative leadership and the dependent variables, without considering the possibility of a curvilinear relationship between this leadership style and output variables. Thereby, the authors disregarded the likelihood that moderate levels of exploitative leadership (as in the case of an inverted U-shaped relationship) could affect the independent variables (Schmid *et al.*, 2019).

2.3 *The relationship between exploitative leadership and innovation implementation*

Prior research provides empirical evidence that the success of innovation depends on employees, their result-oriented behavior and their willingness to invest considerable effort in the implementation of ideas (De Jong and Den Hartong, 2007). According to Škerlavaj *et al.* (2014), this phase is embedded in social contexts, and effective innovation implementation requires collaboration, support and different types of skills, not just creative ones. Leaders may empower and influence these behaviors, thus presenting a crucial factor in the implementation of innovation.

Given the understanding, support and encouragement of leaders, followers are more likely to respond to change-initiatives and implement innovations (Michaelis *et al.*, 2010). However, as De Jong and Den Hartong (2007) note, there are still a limited number of publications that explore the relationship between innovation implementation and an ELS. Although destructive and “moderated” leadership styles may also influence innovation implementation, the majority of existing studies have focused primarily on examining the relationship between positive leadership styles and innovation implementation (Alblooshi *et al.*, 2020; Michaelis *et al.*, 2010; Oke *et al.*, 2009).

Existing research suggests that exploitative leadership is not just a negative leadership concept because it may be positive for the organization if the goals of the leader are consistent with those of the organization. Exploitative leaders exert unjustified and excessive pressure on employees to get tasks done (Guo *et al.*, 2020). It is important to note that exploitative leaders may do this in an overtly friendly way, for example, by being extremely pleasant to ensure that their interests are met (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). Schilling (2009) further argues that exploitative leaders use a “carrot and stick” strategy to help their followers achieve certain organizational goals that pay off to the self-interest of leaders. In order to achieve his or her self-interested goals, an exploitative leader may therefore empower and influence the behavior of his or her employees. The more the employees perceive the innovation implementation as an important organizational goal, the more likely they are to exhibit such behavior. Therefore, we argue that a moderate level of exploitative leadership can promote the implementation of innovative ideas by focusing employees’ attention toward goal-relevant activities.

Although IWB promotes organizational innovation, drives the progress of organizations and their competitive advantage (e.g. Anderson *et al.*, 2004), limited research attention has been devoted to understanding of how and when exploitative leadership may influence IWB. Therefore, in the present work, we focus our interest on a relationship between two aspects that to our knowledge are under-researched in their field of research: the ELS and the innovation implementation phase.

The previous empirical study hypothesizes and tests linear relationships between ELS and employees’ outcomes, thereby supporting the downsides of this leadership type (Schmid *et al.*, 2018, 2019). Grant and Schwartz (2011) argue that such focus may obscure “the prevalence and importance of nonmonotonic inverted U-shaped effects, whereby positive phenomena reach inflection points at which their effects turn negative” and vice-versa. Building on this argument, we suggest that the relationship between the exploitative leadership and innovation implementation is curvilinear. Namely, in order to implement the idea successfully, employees must have clear goals as to what needs to be done, and

exploitative leaders can provide these guidelines. Moreover, exploitative leaders, if it is in their interest, may act overly friendly to achieve their goal by pushing their followers to achieve higher goals. For example, exploitative leaders may direct followers to successfully implement the innovation and then take credit for it.

We propose that an ELS is not strictly bad and that an intermediate level of this self-interested leadership style, which may help to empower, support and lead employees toward the end goal, may have a positive impact on innovation implementation. If the goal of the leader is innovation, in line with the organizational need to foster innovation and to achieve it at the organizational level, this type of leadership can be positively related to organizationally relevant outcomes. From an individual perspective, to be innovative or to implement innovation, one must have a goal in mind and be persistent in order to achieve it. For this reason, exploitative leaders can be constructed at a moderate level. We argue that too much exploitative leadership is not good and certainly has a negative impact on followers, because an overly exploitative leader behaves selfishly, takes credit for himself and also exerts pressure, manipulates employees and undermines their development, which mitigates the innovation process (Schmid *et al.*, 2018, 2019). At the same time, too little exploitative leadership can also be negative, as employees often refuse to participate in implementing something new and novel into reality because it is extremely risky. With the absence of the leaders who constantly force or encourage their employees, the employees could remain in their comfort zone and would not commit themselves to the implementation of innovations. We therefore suggest that the moderate level of exploitative leadership would be beneficial to break out of the comfort zone, take the risk and implement innovative ideas. Thus, we specify the following hypothesis.

H1. There will be an inverted U-shaped relationship between ELS and innovation implementation.

2.4 The interplay among ELS, WFB and FFWPs in predicting innovation implementation

Since an ELS is destructive in nature, we argue that it is important to understand under what circumstances employees might be better able to accept this self-serving style of leadership. In view of the blurred boundaries between work and private life, organizations today are called upon to maintain and improve the well-being of their employees. Different leadership styles may play an important role in helping followers to achieve a better WFB (e.g. Hammond *et al.*, 2015). At the same time, the WFB may have a positive impact on organizational innovation (e.g. James, 2011, 2014).

Therefore, we suggest that WFB is an important factor that can affect the relationship between exploitative leadership and the implementation of innovation. In response to the changing nature of gender roles, family structure, types of work and careers (Powell *et al.*, 2019), employees are declaring a greater interest in WFB. These complex demands between professional and home responsibilities have become relevant not only for employees but also for researchers. The amount of research on the interface between work–family has thus exploded over the past five decades (Powell *et al.*, 2019). In view of the fact that work and family are closely related domains of human life, the linkage mechanism between work and family has become particularly important. Among the numerous mechanisms identified in the work–family literature, the conflict between work and family (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985) deserved special attention.

Work–family conflict is defined as a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some aspects (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985, p. 77). It is associated with a variety of negative consequences. Allen *et al.* (2000) identified three broad areas of work–family conflict consequences: non-work-related,

work-related and stress-related. Given the purpose of this paper, we focused our attention on work-related consequences, especially the IWB of employees (Byron, 2005).

Previous studies suggest that the conflict between work and family may reduce the likelihood of employees engaging in innovative behavior at work and neglecting more challenging aspects of their work (e.g. Choi *et al.*, 2018; Van Dyne *et al.*, 2002). In the majority of the studies, researchers hypothesized that the conflict between work and family inhibits IWB; but the empirical results support a negative and consequential relationship between work–family conflict and IWB (e.g. Choi *et al.*, 2018). Organizations are thus faced with the challenge that today many workers are women that have to deal with the competing demands of work and private life and thereby often experience conflict between these life domains (Byron, 2005).

Thus, employers and human resource managers should do their best to prevent work–family conflict from having negative effects on employees. To this end, the literature to date suggests the introduction of FFWPs (e.g. Beauregard and Henry, 2009; Bloom *et al.*, 2011). The FFWPs, also known as work–family policies, and WFB practices, are designed to reduce work–family conflict and improve the ability of employees to reconcile work and private life (Bloom *et al.*, 2011). These practices are associated with flexible working, telecommuting, reduction in working hours in the form of compressed workweeks or part-time, and family-friendly policies that support family care, health and well-being of employees (James, 2011). The FFWPs are not only a means of accommodating employees with care or other home responsibilities, but they represent a conscious change in organizational culture that makes an important contribution to organizational performance (Beauregard and Henry, 2009). Bloom *et al.* (2011) consider WFB as an “outcome” and FFWPs as an “input.”

Building on the SCT (Bandura, 1977, 1999), we further suggest that implementation behavior is influenced by the interaction of personal and environmental factors. Specifically, we suggest that WFB (i.e. personal factor) and FFWPs (i.e. an environmental factor) jointly moderate the proposed curvilinear ELS–innovation implementation relationship.

We argue that employees who are satisfied with their WFB and work in a family-friendly organization which adopts FFWPs have a good balance between the time and effort devoted to work and personal activities, and thereby are able to maintain an overall sense of harmony in life (James, 2014). Because of the spillover effect of positive things from one domain to another (Edward and Rothbard, 2000), employees may be more tolerant of exploitative leadership. As mentioned before, the exploitative leadership has a destructive nature, and for this reason it is important to understand under what circumstances employees might be more willing to accept this self-serving leadership. According to the literature, this could be explained by the theory of work–family enrichment, which indicates the conditions under which the two domains are “allies” rather than “enemies” (Friedman and Greenhaus, 2000).

Greenhaus and Powell (2006) define work–family enrichment as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 73). Carlson *et al.* (2006) found that this concept is bidirectional: work-to-family enrichment occurs when work can provide resource gains that lead to better functioning in the family domain. In addition, family-to-work enrichment occurs when the family can provide resource gains that lead to better functioning of individual in the work domain (Crouter, 1984). Therefore, we argue that employees with a high level of WFB and who work in organizations that have adopted family-friendly practices are more likely to accept an exploitative leader. At the same time, the positive feelings from the family domain act as facilitators for the implementation of innovation. Conversely, without a satisfactory level of WFB and without the family-friendly practices, it is difficult to cope with a moderate level of ELS, because employees lack harmony in life and this imbalance also affects the work domain, ultimately resulting in lower innovation implementation.

Thus, we propose that:

- H2.* There will be a three-way interaction of ELS, WFB and FFWPs in predicting innovation implementation, such that the combination of high-level WFB and high-level FFWPs will strengthen the relationship between ELS² and innovation implementation, while the combination of low-level WFB and low-level FFWPs will weaken such relationship.

Figure 1 demonstrates the theoretical framework composing the hypotheses of this study.

3. Methodology

3.1 Research setting, participants and procedures

Empirical data were collected from 38 medium and large firms (20 Italian and 18 Croatian) belonging to different sectors (naval and boat building, furniture, engineering, design services, etc.). The countries selection was based on geographical convenience, and additionally, we used a convenience non-probability sampling approach to approach these organizations. Data collection was carried out from April 2019 to November 2019.

An internet-based survey has been conveyed to the employees via company representatives. To reach our target respondents, the survey was limited only to the white-collar workers, as they are more likely to be involved in the innovation process and the decision-making about innovation implementation in these firms. At the same time, they represent the backbone of the organization, linking the production with the top management.

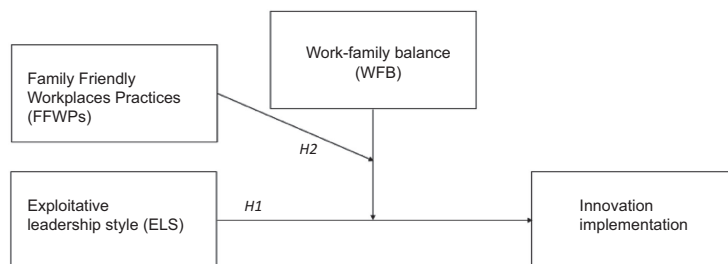
Overall, 554 employees responded to the survey. However, after excluding questionnaires with missing values in more than 10% of variables, 440 were left as valid responses.

Initially, the questionnaire was developed in English, followed by a back-to-back translation (Brislin, 1980) to present it in the Italian and Croatian language.

Among the respondents, 66% were male and about 44% had a degree. About 32% of the employees were below the age of 35 and 32% belonged to the 36–45 age group, and 26% belonged to the 45–54 age group. The average length of working with the current supervisor is 6.81 years (SD = 6.85), ranging from 1 to 36. In total, respondents belong to 38 companies, and 83% are Italian ones. In addition, 67% of employees have children or relatives under their care at home.

3.2 Measures

All the variables have been self-reported and measured by a five-point Likert scale. All items used in this study were measured as part of a questionnaire that abundantly included the items to address. Therefore, it was hardly possible for the respondents to assume the exact



Note(s): H1 indicates Hypothesis 1; H2 indicates Hypothesis 2

Source(s): Authors

Figure 1.
Theoretical framework demonstrating our hypotheses

aim of the study, allowing us to acquire reliable answers. Some items in the questionnaire were also reverse-coded.

A description of the measures adopted for variables used in our study are detailed below.

3.2.1 Innovation implementation. Innovation implementation was measured with four items taken from [De Jong and Den Hartog \(2010\)](#) that only concerned the implementation part of the innovation process, rather than idea generation, idea selection or idea championing. Sample items include: “*How often do you systematically introduce innovative ideas (yours or others) into work practices?*” and “*How often do you contribute to the implementation of new ideas? (yours or others).*” Participants were asked to indicate how often they had experienced each of the statements, ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Regularly*) ($\alpha = 0.87$).

3.2.2 Exploitative leadership style. A seven-item scale was adopted to measure the ELS. It is a reduced version of the 15-item scale developed by [Schmid et al. \(2019\)](#). Examples of items include “*My supervisor sees employees as a means to reach his or her personal goals*” and “*My supervisor increases my workload without considering my needs in order to reach his or her goals.*” Participants were asked to think of their direct supervisor and indicate how much they agree with each of the statements from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) ($\alpha = 0.94$).

3.2.3 Work–family balance. The WFB was measured with the 3-item scale developed by [White et al. \(2003\)](#), including “*My job allows me to give the time I would like to my partner/family*” and “*My partner/family gets a bit fed up with the pressure of my job*” (*Reversed code*). Participants were asked to indicate how often they had experienced each of the statements, ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Regularly*) ($\alpha = 0.75$).

3.2.4 Family-friendly workplace practices. To measure FFWPs, we used the construct developed by [Bloom et al. \(2011\)](#). Participants were asked to respond to the following question: “*If you need to take a day off at short notice due to family emergencies how do you usually do this?*” They had to provide only one answer among five response choices, ranging from least family-friendly practices to most family-friendly practices: from 1 (*This is not allowed*) to 5 (*I take time off but make it up later*).

3.2.5 Control variables. To find out potential associations of demographic variables with innovation implementation, we controlled for age, gender, employee education, care, country and company’s name. Innovation literature has demonstrated different effects of age across innovation-related behaviors (cf. [Ng and Feldman, 2013](#)). We included gender because male and female workers might have differential access to opportunities to engage in innovation-related behaviors (cf. [Ohlott et al., 1994](#)). Regarding the education level, other studies have included this variable as a control variable because it is positively correlated with the ability to generate and articulate innovative ideas (cf. [Fasko, 2001](#)). The control variable care evaluates if respondents have children or relatives under their care at home, and might be strictly related with WFB and FFWPs, two focal variables in our study. In addition, we controlled for the country, which is a valuable control variable because each country may have different labor regulation and laws that can significantly influence workplace support, labor rights and policies, strictly connected with the organization’s adoption of FFWPs and the individual’s attitudes toward WFB (cf. [Abendroth and Den Dulk, 2011](#)). Lastly, for the sake of completion, we also include the company names because each company provides somewhat different workplace social context and work–family context which again can significantly influence the variables used in this study and the relationships among them (cf. [Behson, 2002](#)).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive statistics and reliability

[Table 1](#) provides the descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients for all the variables analyzed in the study. There is a negative and statistically significant correlation between

Table 1.
Descriptive statistics,
correlations and scale
reliabilities

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Innovation Implementation	3.16	0.85	(0.87)								
2. Exploitative Leadership Style (ELS)	2.44	1.08	-0.139**	(0.94)							
3. WFB	2.83	0.86	0.052	0.310**	(0.75)						
4. FFWPs	3.32	1.22	0.031	-0.095*	-0.099*						
5. Gender	1.33	0.47	-0.094*	-0.05	0.044	-0.019					
6. Age	3.13	1.06	-0.02	0.089	0.053	-0.156**	-0.194**				
7. Education	1.57	0.65	0.116*	-0.035	0.088	0.011	0.153**	-0.225**			
8. Care	1.33	0.47	-0.05	-0.083	-0.142**	0.099*	-0.057	-0.228**	0.03		
9. Country	1.18	0.38	0.097*	-0.106*	-0.038	-0.048	0.028	-0.209**	0.267**	0.003	

Note(s): $n = 440$. Coefficient Alphas are on the diagonal in parentheses. For gender, 1 = "male", 2 = "female". For age, 1 = "less than 24", 2 = "25-34", 3 = "35-44", 4 = "45-54", 5 = "over 54". For education, 1 = "Middle or High school diploma", 2 = "Bachelor's or master's degree", 3 = "Master/MBA/E-MBA" and 4 = "Doctorate degree". For care, 1 = "yes" and 2 = "no". For country, 1 = "Italy" and 2 = "Croatia". * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$

innovation implementation and ELS ($r = -0.139, p < 0.01$). However, the highest and positive correlation is between WFB and ELS ($r = 0.310, p < 0.01$).

On the basis of the reliability coefficients, all measurement scales are internally consistent. They all exceed the 0.70 Cronbach's alpha criterion established in the literature (Hair *et al.*, 2010) and may, therefore, be accepted.

4.2 Results of regression analysis

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested using a moderated hierarchical regression analysis. Table 2 presents the results. We grand-mean-centered our independent variables to reduce unnecessary multicollinearity between the linear terms and their quadratic counterparts (Aiken and West, 1991).

All five models for innovation implementation in Table 2 include the following control variables: gender, age, education, care, country and company name. In the first step (model 1), we entered only the control variables. In the second step (model 2), we included all first-order associations between innovation implementation, ELS, WFB and FFWPs, respectively. The ELS was negatively related to innovation implementation ($\beta = -0.16, p = 0.001$), and WFB was positively related to innovation implementation ($\beta = 0.11, p = 0.036$), while the effect of FFWPs was insignificant. Afterward, to test our prediction that ELS would have a curvilinear relation to innovation implementation (Hypothesis 1), in the third model we included the quadratic term of ELS (i.e. ELS squared). The coefficient associated with this term was negative and statistically significant ($\beta = -0.49, p = 0.034$); therefore, Hypothesis 1 is

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Intercept	3.24 (0.31)***	3.28 (0.38)***	2.80 (0.44)***	1.11 (1.10)	-2.55 (2.14)
Gender	-0.13 (0.09)**	-0.14 (0.09)**	-0.14 (0.09)**	-0.16 (0.09)**	-0.16 (0.09)**
Age	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.04)
Education	0.12 (0.07)*	0.11 (0.07)*	0.12 (0.07)*	0.12 (0.07)*	0.12 (0.07)*
Care	-0.07 (0.09)	-0.07 (0.09)	-0.07 (0.09)	-0.07 (0.09)	-0.06 (0.09)
Country	0.06 (0.11)	0.05 (0.11)	0.04 (0.11)	0.05 (0.11)	0.06 (0.11)
Company	0.07 (0.00)	0.07 (0.00)	0.08 (0.00)	0.07 (0.00)	0.06 (0.00)
ELS		-0.16 (0.04)**	0.32 (0.19)	1.22 (0.62)	1.20 (0.62)
WFB		0.11 (0.05)*	0.11 (0.05)*	0.31 (0.25)	0.29 (0.25)
FFWPs		0.01 (0.03)	0.01 (0.03)	0.50 (0.21)	2.12 (0.61)*
ELS ²			-0.49 (0.03)*	-1.65 (0.12)*	-1.61 (0.12)
<i>Interaction effects</i>					
ELS x WFB				-1.25 (0.20)	-1.15 (0.20)
ELS ² x WFB				1.39 (0.04)	1.29 (0.04)
ELS x FFWPs				-0.68 (0.16)	-4.44 (0.52)*
ELS ² x FFWPs				0.64 (0.03)	2.99 (0.10)*
WFB x FFWPs				-0.36 (0.04)*	-2.11 (0.21)*
ELS x WFB x FFWPs					4.20 (0.17)*
ELS ² x WFB x FFWPs					-2.69 (0.03)*
<i>R</i>	0.21	0.26	0.28	0.33	0.35
<i>R</i> ²	0.04	0.07	0.08	0.11	0.12
<i>F</i>	3.19	3.50	3.63	3.49	3.33
<i>P</i>	0.005	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Note(s): $n = 440$. ELS, Exploitative Leadership Style; WFB, Work-family balance; FFWPs, Family Friendly Workplace Practices. Standardized regression coefficients and estimations of standard errors are displayed. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 2. Results of hierarchical regression analyses

accepted. In [Figure 2](#), we present a plot of the quadratic regression models that demonstrates the inverted U-shaped relationship between ELS and innovation implementation. The plot shows that as the level of ELS increases, innovation implementation also increases. However, when ELS arrives at an inflection point, innovation implementation peaks and then drops as ELS increases, as described by a predominantly positive, concave descending curve ([Aiken and West, 1991](#)). Then, in the fourth step (model 4) we added all second-order associations. The only statistically significant two-way interaction was the negative interaction between WFB and FFWPs ($\beta = -0.36, p = 0.027$). Finally, in the last step (model 5), we examined the three-way interaction effects of ELS, WFB and FFWPs on innovation implementation, inserting both the linear and the curvilinear three-way interaction terms. The results show that the three-way interaction was significant ($\beta = -2.69, p = 0.049$). [Figure 3](#) shows that under conditions of both high-level WFB and high-level FFWPs, the relationship between ELS^2 and innovation implementation is the strongest.

5. Discussion

This study was designed to examine the possibility of an inverted U-shaped relationship between the ELS and the implementation phase of the IWB. Further, we demonstrated how the interplay between the ELS, WFB and FFWPs affects the innovation implementation. In particular, we have drawn on the SCT ([Bandura, 1977, 1999](#)) to explain a three-way, dynamic, reciprocal model in which the personal factor (i.e. individual's perception about WFB), environmental influences (i.e. ELS and the FFWPs) and behavior (i.e. innovation implementation) interact continuously. In our study, we propose, as reported by [Bandura \(1999\)](#), that the exchange between person and situation unidirectionally provokes the behavior, and the behavior itself has no influence on the exchange between the situation and the person.

In line with the first hypothesis, the results of our study suggest that there is an inverted U-shaped relationship between the ELS and the implementation phase of IWB. It seems that ELS is not only negatively related to the implementation of innovations and that an exploitative leader can also be perceived as positive. Specifically, our results suggest that an intermediate level of this leadership type may encourage employees to implement something new and risky. In fact, our results suggest that a moderate level of exploitative leadership can be helpful in breaking out of the comfort zone, taking risks and implementing innovative ideas. We also found support for our second hypothesis, which shows that under conditions of both high-level WFB and high-level FFWPs the relationship between ELS² and innovation implementation is the strongest, while under conditions of both low-level WFB and low-level FFWPs the relationship between ELS² and innovation implementation is the weakest. Our results suggest that individuals with a high level of WFB that work in an organization that employs family-friendly practices are more tolerant to accepting an exploitative leader, and that the positive feelings from the family domain encourage the implementation of innovation. These results may change the attitudes of managers and other key stakeholders to consider work–family balance and FFWPs as important indicators for the implementation of innovation.

6. Theoretical contributions

Our findings make a threefold contribution. First, the study contributes to the emerging but limited exploitative leadership literature by providing empirical evidence that ELS could play a crucial role in the innovation implementation phase. By focusing on idea implementation as the central outcome variable, the results showed an inverted U-shaped relationship between ELS and the innovation implementation phase, suggesting that a moderate level of ELS promotes the implementation of innovative ideas. With the discovery that ELS could facilitate the idea implementation dimension, we go beyond existing studies in this field and make a theoretical and empirical attempt to establish a link between a moderate level of “negative” leadership styles and innovation implementation.

Furthermore, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study to propose and empirically examine a non-linear relationship between ELS and the results of followers and is also the first to examine the relationship between exploitative leadership and innovation implementation. Therefore, our study differs from the previous literature on ELS, which

mainly examines the negative side of exploitative leadership and emphasizes its destructive nature (Schmid *et al.*, 2019). Our study thus contributes to the exploitative leadership literature by demonstrating that ELS may have a positive impact on organizationally relevant outcomes. More specifically, our study expands the ELS literature by providing empirical evidence that a moderate level of ELS can promote the implementation of innovative ideas.

As noted in the literature, the IWBs are risky, uncertain and require a continuous input of resources (Yidong and Xinxin, 2013). This is especially true for the implementation phase. Therefore, employees often do not want to take risks and implement something new and novel because it is too risky. We speculate that if employees do not have a leader who constantly forces or encourages them, employees may stay in their comfort zone and not engage in innovation implementation. Thus, an intermediate level of exploitative leadership may be beneficial.

The second contribution of this study concerns the work–family literature. In our study, we examined FFWPs and employees' perception of WFB, which are closely related because FFWPs improve employees' ability to combine working and personal life (Bloom *et al.*, 2011) and thus promote WFB. To the best of our knowledge, our study is the first empirical study to examine the relationship between these work–family topics and innovation implementation. Although WFB is a common theme among scholars and practitioners, only a minority of the studies have examined the relationship between this concept and the IWB of individuals in all its phases. We proposed and found empirical evidence that an adequate level of FFWPs have a positive impact on the WFB by reducing the level of work–home conflict. Our findings are in line with the existing studies suggesting that family provides resource gains that lead to improved functioning of the individual in the work domain, thereby promoting IWB (Carlson *et al.*, 2006). Positive feelings from the family domain have a particularly positive effect in critical work situations where employees are under pressure and stress. Our study suggests that adequate level of WFB can help employees to deal with stress, arising from the exposure to a high level of ELS, which can be destructive for their well-being and several other outcomes as job satisfaction, burnout and workplace deviance (Schmid *et al.*, 2019).

Finally, in this study, we propose and support the three-way interaction between ELS, WFB and FFWPs. Drawing on Bandura's SCT (1977, 1999), we treated ELS and FFWPs as organizational factors, WFB perceptions as an individual factor and innovation implementation as behavioral factor. Thereby, we provided evidence that when exposed to intermediate levels of ELS, employees who experience higher levels of WFB and FFWPs exhibit higher innovation implementation. This theoretical contribution is consistent with previous studies that suggest that personal and contextual factors interact to enhance the creativity phase of IWB (e.g. Amabile, 1996; Woodman *et al.*, 1993). However, to the best of our knowledge, this is the first study that focuses on innovation implementation rather than creativity. The study thus offers an important theoretical contribution by demonstrating that a negative organizational phenomenon such as ELS could be beneficial for organizational innovation under specific conditions (i.e. an intermediate level of exploitative leadership, joined with the high levels of the WFB and FFWPs).

7. Managerial implications

In this ever-changing world, characterized by a dynamic and globalized business environment, innovation that ensures organizational effectiveness and competitive advantage is critical to the long-term survival of organizations (e.g. Anderson *et al.*, 2004; Scott and Bruce, 1994). Innovation is mainly rooted in the IWB of employees, who contribute to the innovation processes of the organizations to which they belong (e.g. Oldham and Cummings, 1996). This study focuses on the innovation implementation phase because we argue that it is essential to

have a comprehensive vision of the IWB and innovative output. Therefore, the results of our study hold several important implications for innovation management.

Our study indicated that a moderate level of ELS enhances the implementation phase. More specifically, ELS at a moderate level can stimulate and ensure efficiency, goal orientation and routine in execution—i.e. ELS at a moderate level can stimulate all the characteristics needed to improve the implementation phase, as also argued by [Rosing *et al.* \(2011\)](#). However, this positive effect is limited to a moderate level and when this type of leadership reaches the extremes (too much or too little) it becomes self-defeating for the innovation process.

The level at which ELS begins to be counterproductive is very difficult to define objectively, as it depends heavily on the individual's perception of leader's behavior. Therefore, the "inflection point" at which the leader's behavior begins to be inappropriate may vary from individual to individual and is also influenced by other contextual factors (i.e. the level of work–life balance, the support he or she receives from the family domain that helps him and her better tolerate the exploitative leader, uncertainty . . .). Considering that the extreme levels may also vary according to individual perceptions, managers should pay special attention to the level of these perceptions of employees. Since the innovation implementation phase is risky and challenging, leaders should encourage, guide and motivate employees to insist on implementing innovation. Accordingly, leaders might sometimes behave in ways that are perceived by their employees as self-serving and manipulative. This perception, if moderate, can be beneficial to the implementation phase by stimulating and enhancing the employee's efficiency and orientation. On the contrary, if this perception is too high and the employee sees himself only as a means to achieve the personal goals of the leader, without a reward and with a strong perception that the leader benefits from his work without taking into account his needs, this can be highly counterproductive. Therefore, too much exploitative leadership is not good and certainly has a negative impact on followers because an overly exploitative leader behaves selfishly, takes credit for himself and also exerts pressure, manipulates employees and undermines their development, which weakens the innovation process. At the same time, too little exploitative leadership can also be negative, as employees often refuse to participate in implementing something new and novel because it is too risky.

Therefore, the study emphasizes the need for managers to evaluate the employee's perceptions with attention and manages ELS carefully without considering this style of leadership only as negative and destructive, but with the knowledge that it could be valuable for innovation if applied moderately.

Moreover, this study implies the importance of two overriding factors, FFWPs and WFB, which, when combined with ELS, will lead to the high level of innovation implementation.

Nowadays, the need to reconcile work with other domains of life is one of the greatest challenges and necessities for individuals and organizations due to the increasing conflict between the demands of work and the decline of work as a central interest in life ([Guest, 2002](#)). As most widely supported in the literature on the work–family relationships (e.g. [James, 2011, 2014](#)), the most important element available to managers to raise the level of WFB for employees is the availability and use of FFWPs at the organizational level ([Alegre and Pasamar, 2018](#)). Employers should therefore promote the availability of FFWPs that include a wide range of measures, such as providing flexible working arrangements like telecommuting, flextime, job sharing; reducing working hours as part-time, compressed weeks; adopting personal leave policies and benefits that provide leaves to allow time for personal commitments and caring for family members; and adopting measures that provide "workplace social support" for parents and on-site child care, as well as other support initiatives for working parents ([James, 2011](#)). However, [Thompson *et al.* \(1999\)](#) argue that the mere adoption or availability of these measures and policies is enough to promote the employees' WFB ([Thompson *et al.*, 1999](#)).

For this reason, managers should be aware that in order to be successful, these policies must be integrated into an organizational culture. The organizational culture plays an essential role in facilitating or hindering employees' attempts to balance work and family responsibilities by influencing the employee's perception of WFB. Accordingly, the introduction of a WFB culture is the first step that should be considered to encourage not only the mere adoption of WFB arrangements but also their practical application, thus improving the employee's perception of WFB, which could in turn encourage the implementation of innovation (Alegre and Pasamar, 2018).

Managers should thus consider and address three aspects to improve the work–family culture: management support and sensitivity to employees' family responsibilities; the career consequences of taking advantage of work–family benefits; and finally, the organization's timing requirements or expectations that employees prioritize work over family, which may interfere with family responsibilities (Thompson *et al.*, 1999). This leads to another important insight for managers, namely the important role of managerial support for WFB, which is closely linked to the concept of family-supportive supervision (the empathy of the supervisors and measures to support employees in coping with work and family life) (Thomas and Ganster, 1995).

In summary, this study draws attention to the implementation phase of IWB, which is promoted by the interaction between ELS, WFB and FFWDs. With our findings, we provide several insights for managers that highlight the importance of meeting the growing need to balance work and other domains of life and also highlight the value of FFWDs and the importance of managers' behavior in predicting WFB.

8. Limitations and future research directions

Despite providing several theoretical and managerial contributions, this paper is not without limitations. The first drawback is the cross-sectional research design, which limits the ability to determine causality. In order to understand the detailed causality relationship of ELS with WFB and FFWDs on innovation implementation, the evidence of respondents at longitudinal intervals should be collected to make more realistic causal statements.

Second, all variables have been self-reported, which raises doubts on a common method bias. However, our results are based on several independent variables and their interaction effects. The complex three-way evaluation suggests that it is unlikely that results are obtained due to a common method bias. Siemsen *et al.* (2010, p. 470) argue that finding significant interaction effect despite the influence of common method bias in the data should be taken strong evidence that an interaction exists. Nevertheless, some items in the questionnaire were reverse-coded, making it difficult for respondents to assume the precise aim of the study, which should limit the possibility of a common method bias.

In the past, literature on IWB has asserted that it is unlikely that the IWB of employees will be accurately assessed by another observer (Amabile *et al.*, 2005) and that external evaluators can rely on a general impression of all behavior at work, relying on so-called "halo effect," rather than focusing on the IWB (Spector, 2006). In contrast to this mainstream research, for the sake of completion, further research may provide the ratings of supervisors for innovation implementation. Namely, due to their objective evaluation, the ratings of supervisors are often used to measure IWB.

Third, we drew our sample from Italian and Croatian firms, in order to enable generalization in the context of other economies. However, to extend the applicability of our results, further research should be done in other countries.

Fourth, in contrast to the earlier studies on ELS (Schmid *et al.*, 2018, 2019), we have found that ELS is not a completely destructive style of leadership. We found evidence of a curvilinear relationship between ELS and innovation implementation. To enhance our

understanding of this relationship, we also examined under which circumstances this effect occurs more easily. Scholars should continue to study the ELS and its impact on other organizationally relevant outcomes by considering curvilinear effects. Further research should examine the role of time pressure and also consider employees' time perspective, thereby examining whether the results differ in the short-term or long-term.

Finally, in this paper we have considered only the ELS, without contemplating the combination between complementary different leadership styles. Rosing *et al.* (2011) suggest that given the complexity of innovation endeavors, a single leadership style may not effectively promote innovation, as each leadership style meets specific innovation needs that the others cannot. Based on this idea, future research could investigate a combination of different leadership behaviors, including ELS, applied to changing demands within the innovation process. Furthermore, future models could also examine how different leadership styles interact to enhance innovation.

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