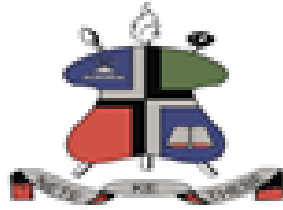


# The National University of Lesotho



LEADING AND MANAGING PEOPLE AT THE NEXUS OF CITIZENSHIP AND  
INNOVATIVE WORK BEHAVIOURS: ORGANISATIONAL AND NATIONAL  
POLICY IMPLICATIONS.

An Inaugural Lecture Delivered

At ISAS Auditorium

On

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By

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**6<sup>th</sup> Inaugural Lecture**



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## Summary

Leadership; organisational commitment; organisational justice and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) are some of the most rigorously researched topics in organisational behaviour. Most studies aptly focus on the effects of these variables on several organisationally desirable variables, including all forms of task performance and extra-role performance. Traditionally, studies have focused on task behaviours, and only recently have researchers focused their attention on extra-role behaviours such as OCB and innovative work behaviours (IWB) as mechanisms that can be used to leverage organisational competitive advantage. While most studies find consistent relationships among leadership, organisational commitment, organisational justice and OCB, the results on leadership and attitude drivers of innovative work behaviours have remained elusive and equivocal. There is also a notable paucity of research on the relationships among extra-role behaviours, as most researchers focus more on antecedents of these behaviours than outcomes. Moreover, several streams of research on extra-role behaviours have developed independently, resulting in fragmented research that militates against knowledge consolidation, and useful application in real work environments. The aim of my professorial lecture is to provide the results and lessons I learned from the consolidated model I developed and tested on these concepts over my academic career. The results suggest that transformational leadership and OCB were the potent predictors of IWBs; and while organisational justice and organisational commitment failed to consistently predict IWBs, they proved useful as either mediating or moderating variables in several studies I conducted. I show how the results of my studies can be used to inform policy towards creativity and innovation in organisations and the Lesotho economy.

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# 1. Introduction and conceptual framework

## 1.1. Individual work performance and its dimensions

Individual job performance is one of the central constructs in the fields of human resource management (HRM) and organisational behaviour (OB). It is so central to success that Campbell and Wiernek (2015:48) had this to say about it:

*Individual work performance is the building block on which the entire economy is based. Without individual performance there is no team performance, no unit performance, no organisational performance, no economic sector performance, no GDP.*

While this proposition is falsifiable, especially in the era in which performance is predicated on technological advances, individual work performance remains a *sine qua non* of individual, team, organisational and economic success.

**Individual work performance**, broadly defined as '*things that people actually do, actions they take, that contribute to the organization's goals*' (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015), is a multidimensional construct, consisting of, among other dimensions, *in-role performance* (task performance), *extra-role performance* (a.k.a. contextual performance or organisational citizenship behaviour), *adaptive performance*, *knowledge transfer*, *counterproductive performance* (a.k.a. counterproductive work behaviours), and individual *creative and innovative performance* (Harari, Reaves, & Viswesvaran, 2016; van Lill & Taylor, 2022; Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Van Lill and Taylor (2022) include *leadership performance* in their framework, but exclude *knowledge transfer*.

The streams of research on these ubiquitous dimensions of performance have developed independently, resulting in fragmented research that militates against knowledge consolidation, and application in real work environments, and so to speak, limits the ability of researchers to push the boundaries and frontiers of knowledge. In this regard, Carpini, Parker and Griffin (2017) has lamented that most research on individual performance constructs has focused on their separate, idiosyncratic antecedents and outcomes, with little attempt towards synthesising across individual work performance dimensions. Interestingly, most research in individual work performance has focused more on the knowledge of antecedents to performance than on the construct itself (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015; van Lill & Taylor, 2022).

Of particular interest to this lecture is the relationship between affiliation-oriented and change-oriented extra-role behaviours in general, and OCB and innovative work behaviours (IWBs) in particular, and their antecedents.

Unlike task or in-role performance that focuses on one's core duties and responsibilities (often as defined in one's job description), extra-role behaviours form another group of behaviours that are discretionary in nature; and that do not form part of employee's work responsibilities; but nonetheless help the organisation achieve its goals (Khaola, 2018; Organ, 1997). As advised by Katz (1964: 132) when the latter group of behaviours were popularised in organisations almost 60 years ago, '*an organisation that depends solely upon its blueprint of prescribed behaviour is a fragile social system*'. Put differently, Katz aptly warned that organisations that rely on task or in-role performance alone cannot sustain good performance and competitive advantage.

Because of the importance of creativity and innovation for the success of modern organisations, the concept of 'innovation' has taken a prominent role in the models of performance, including individual work performance (Harari et al., 2016). In my publications, and precisely for this reason, I have lamented the apparent paucity of research between OCB and innovation (Khaola, 2018, Khaola & Coldwell, 2019), particularly because the origin of the two concepts is the classical work of Katz (1964).

More than 30 years ago, Motowidlo (1993) famously argued that contextual performance (OCB) supports the social and psychological environment in which task (in-role) performance takes place (Motowidlo, 1993). In support of this line of thinking, Organ (1997:95) opined that OCB is the performance '*that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place*'. Based on this truism, I have submitted that OCB, and perhaps other affiliation-oriented extra-role behaviours, build social capital that may facilitate creativity and innovation, and empirical findings tend to support my conjectures.

Performance in general, and extra-role behaviours such as OCB and creative and innovative performance in particular, have several determinants, including '*individual traits (e.g. cognitive abilities, personality, stable motivational dispositions, physical characteristics and abilities), stable variables (e.g. relevant knowledge and skill, attitudes, malleable motivational states), and situational characteristics (e.g. the*

reward structure, managerial and peer leadership), as well as the interaction among them' (Campbell & Wiernik, 2015: 49).

The parsimonious model below integrates these views into a nomological network that has guided my research over several years.

## 1.2. Conceptual Framework

My research work and interests over my academic career are encapsulated in the model shown in Figure 1. Put differently, I have been trying to test and confirm the relationships between variables shown in the model, and in recent years, I have explored moderated and mediated effects among and between these variables, in order to better understand concurrent effects of contextual and attitudinal effects on individual citizenship and creative and innovative performance.



**Figure 1: The Conceptual model that drives my research agenda**

Predicated on the *context–attitude–behaviour* theorem, I have argued and demonstrated that leadership behaviours (leadership and organisational justice), which I also call contextual social factors (Khaola, 2018; Khaola and Coldwell, 2019), affect employee attitudes and perceptions, which in turn affect extra–role behaviours such as OCB, creativity and innovation. I have also focused on nuanced studies that show how dimensions of these factors relate to each other, in several contexts, including education sector, public sector, private sector, and agriculture.

### 1.3. Lecture Aims and Outline

The primary aim of this inaugural lecture is to consolidate the findings of my research and publications, and their practical implications. I also intend to shed light on my research agenda going forward.

While studies normally start the model with antecedents of a criterion, in this lecture, I start with extra–role behaviours (my presumed dependent variable), particularly creativity and innovation, before I make case for their determinants. I focus on these value adding concepts in section two of this lecture

In section three I evaluate the relationship between leadership, particularly transformational leadership, and employee innovative work behaviours (IWBs). I subscribe fully to the popular saying that '*organisations rise and fall in the hands of leaders*', and I wish to add that, *countries may rise and fall in the hands of leaders as well*. This does not undermine the role of followership in the process of leadership, which, as indicated by Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, and Carsten (2014), plays a major role in shaping the appropriate leadership.

As creativity and innovation are built on individual IWBs, I found it befitting to focus my academic research on these two concepts.

Recognizing the persistent and inconsistent findings between transformational leadership and innovation (Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002), I suggested another extra–role performance, namely, OCB as a mediating (explanatory) variable between transformational leadership and innovation. I explain the theoretical foundations of my conjectures on section four of this lecture.

Noting that exogenous and contextual variables such as leadership may not directly influence elements of performance such as OCB and IWB, I introduced one of the most consistent attitudes that mediate (explain) the positive relationship between transformational leadership and OCB, namely organisational commitment. In their critical review, Hughes, Lee, Tian, Newman and Legood (2018) identify five theoretically–driven categories of mediating mechanisms between leadership and creative and innovative performance – motivational mechanisms, cognitive mechanisms, affective mechanisms, identification mechanisms, and social mechanisms. Along similar lines, Ng's (2017) meta-analytic review identified five theory-driven mechanisms through transformational leadership and job performance

– social exchange theory, justice enhancement mechanism, affective mechanism, motivational mechanism, and identification mechanism (Khaola & Rambe, 2021). I deliberately focused on affective mechanism (affective commitment) because both reviews (Hughes et al., 2018; Ng, 2017) warn against over-reliance on motivational mechanism at the expense of affective mechanism.

As shown in Figure 1, my conceptual model was broadened to include all leadership behaviours, and in this case, organisational justice as meted by leaders, as potent exogenous variables in the model where IWB is the penultimate outcome. Thus I tested the model in which the impact of transformational leadership and organisational justice (contextual and social factors) on IWBs is consecutively mediated by organisational commitment and OCB. I briefly summarise the findings of this model in section **five** of this lecture.

I argued for and tested a model in which transformational leadership influences OCB through the consecutive mediation of organisational justice and organisational commitment. I provide what I consider to be the compelling evidence to support this conjecture in section **six**. Besides mediated effects, I have also hypothesised, tested and concluded that the impact of transformational leadership on IWBs may be moderated by organisation commitment and justice, exploring double and triple moderated effects, respectively. These moderated effects of transformational leadership on IWBs are discussed in section **seven**. I dedicated section **eight** on studies that touch on technology transfer & innovation.

The other sections of my studies have focused on factors that influence entrepreneurship and students' OCB, which I term students' citizenship behaviours (SCB) in the context of academic environments. I briefly summarise findings relating to my work in entrepreneurship, and students' OCB and academic performance in sections **nine** and **ten** of this lecture, respectively.

In the final section, I provide some concluding remarks and the direction my research is likely to take going forward. Next, I elaborate on the criterion variable in my research, and its variations.

## 2. Creativity, innovation, and entrepreneurship

There is wide agreement among scholars that the process of creating and implementing something of economic value is not only a function of individual innate



abilities or talents; but that it is also a function of social processes that are driven by leadership, social interactions and networks (Amabile, 1996; Baer, 2012; Perry-Smith & Mannucci, 2017). Processes that create new economic value typically include *creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship*. However, little is known about the interplay among these processes (and what drives them).

It is imperative to remember that creativity is not innovation, and innovation is not necessarily entrepreneurship. While this should be so blatantly clear from the conceptual point of view, there are incidences where these terms are used interchangeably, particularly creativity and innovation (Levitt, 2002). This is flawed, and may affect practical steps used to stimulate creativity and/or innovation in organisations and economies.

Though related, these terms are quite distinct (Hindle, 2009), both conceptually and empirically speaking. For instance, it is known that the generation of creative ideas does not guarantee their implementation (Baer, 2012). Even in the advent of the knowledge-driven era of the fourth industrial revolution in which experts talk more about these processes as engines of economic growth, little effort is expended on understanding the practical interplay between them.

I argue that in order to understand what instigates the knowledge-based growth, researchers should expend less time explaining the conceptual importance of these processes, and more time explaining the challenges of implementing them. My conviction is that the science of implementation is more elusive than the science of invention.

It is an accepted notion that *idea implementation* is largely a social-political process (Baer, 2012:1103; Yuan & Woodman, 2010) that needs concerted efforts of many people, including leadership and the management of human resources.

*What do creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship really mean?*

Let's start with the popular, but yet, in the words of Hindle (2009), the least comprehensive definition, or description, if you like.

*Creativity* has been defined as the creation of *novel* and *useful* ideas (Amabile, 1996), and *innovation* as the generation and implementation of new ideas (Scott & Bruce, 1994). Baregheh, Rowley and Sambrook (2009, p. 1334) argue that '*innovation is the multistage process whereby organisations transform ideas into new/improved products, services or processes, in order to advance, compete and differentiate themselves successfully in their marketplace.*' In perhaps one of the oft-quoted definitions of these terms, Anderson, Potočnik, and Zhou (2014: 1298) submit that:

*Creativity and innovation at work are the process, outcomes, and products of attempts to develop and introduce new and improved ways of doing things. The creativity stage of this process refers to idea generation, and innovation to the subsequent stage of implementing ideas towards better procedures, practices and products...*

Whereas *creativity* is largely an intrapersonal activity, *innovation* is largely an interpersonal activity (Lee et al., 2020).

While my research findings support the idea that the dimensions of IWB (innovation) combine additively to create one concept (De Jong & den Hartog, 2010, Khaola, 2018), they also intimate that IWB is conceptually different from OCB, and that creativity and innovation correlate differently with their predictors (Khaola, 2019, Khaola & Coldwell, 2017). It is an accepted notion in management literature that concepts are different if, among other things, have different antecedents and outcomes. Hughes et al. (2018) concur that creativity and innovation are dynamic concepts that incorporate distinct but closely related process that result in distinct but closely related outcomes.

Note that generation of ideas (quantity of ideas) is not creativity *per se* because the latter should also meet the eligibility of usefulness and novelty (Baer, 2012). While inclusion of usefulness in the definition of creativity evokes debates among scholars (e.g. Hughes et al., 2018), the issue of originality or novelty is not contested in the literature. Since innovation comprises both creativity and implementation, without implementation, creativity has limited utility, if at all (Anderson et al., 2014). Put differently, unless used, even great ideas are considered useless (Baer, 2012, Levitt, 2002). Note that not all creative ideas are taken through implementation, and it is

possible for innovation to take place without creativity, say when the organisation implements a non-novel idea from other organisations (Hughes et al., 2018).

The classical paper by Drucker (1985) is introduced in the 2002 reprint of the Best of Harvard Business Review (HRB) papers in the form of a rhetorical question as follows:

**How much of innovation is inspiration, and how much is hard work?**

Drucker (1985) seems to suggest that implementation is hard work, and creativity is mere inspiration. These views are expressed more succinctly by the thought-provoking and award winning paper by Hindle (2009), which has associated these views with the variant of the words of Thomas Alva Edison as follows:

**Innovation Success = 0.01 x Inspiration + 0.99 x Perspiration**

Hindle (2009) has suggested that the success of innovation is based on 1% of creativity or idea generation (inspiration), and on 99% of implementation of new ideas (perspiration). While this should be reflected in innovation policies of any organisation or country that is serious about innovation-based growth, more focus is disappointingly still based on creativity, and in some countries like ours, on vague policies that are yet to be implemented.

***It is critically important when formulating national innovation policies to differentiate between creativity (invention) and innovation (idea implementation) so that factors that precede each concept can be understood and incorporated into necessary action plans and procedures. Expected outcomes can also be clearly delineated and elucidated.***

While it is relatively easy to explicate dynamic relations between creativity and innovation, the relationship of entrepreneurship with these processes is a tenuous one. According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000), entrepreneurship, as a nexus between opportunities and enterprising individuals, explains '*how, by whom, and with what effects opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited*' (p. 218). This definition is not confined to creation of businesses but also includes value-creating processes within existing organisations. I turn to this issue later in this presentation.

Arguing that 'implementation' in the innovation equation cited above is a vague term; Hindle (2009) replaces it with entrepreneurship. He argues that 'implementation' (or commercialisation if you will) of novel and useful ideas tells us what should be done; but does not tell us how, or by whom, to create value. He therefore reconceptualises the innovation equation more explicitly as follows:

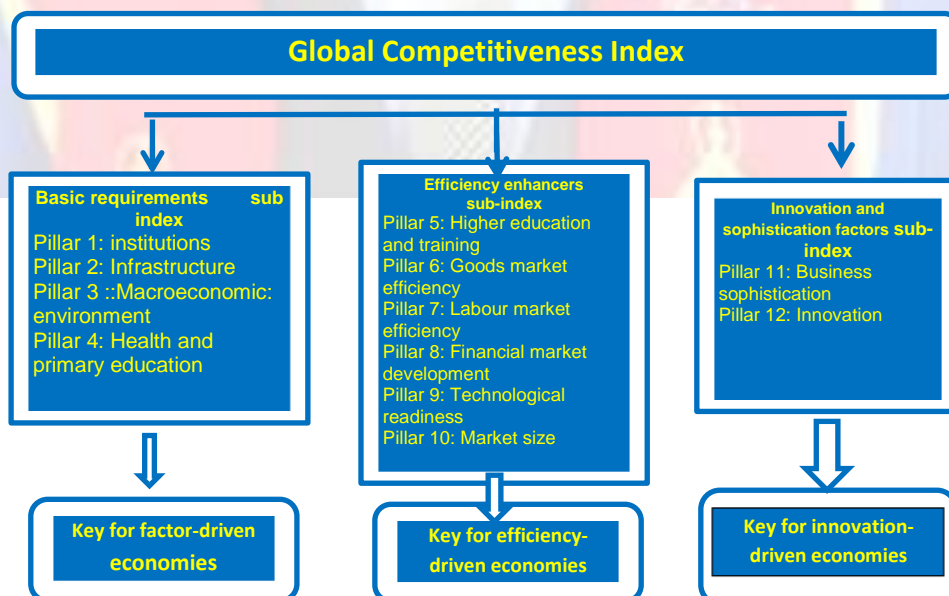
Innovation is the combination of an inventive process and an entrepreneurial process to create new economic value for defined stakeholders

Innovation = creativity + entrepreneurship

In this sense innovation is a broader term that recognises invention, creativity or generation of ideas (basic science if you will) should be followed by entrepreneurial processes (business science if you will) that create value for users. Hindle (2009) aptly argues that the implementation/transformation/entrepreneurial part is more important than the inventive/creative process for successful innovation. Importantly, Hindle posits that one can have invention or creativity without entrepreneurship and one can have entrepreneurship without creativity; but both processes are required to form an innovation process. Innovation policies should therefore encompass processes that create value, and more importantly, processes that exploit economic value for defined stakeholders.

Drucker (1985) argues that entrepreneurship does not result from entrepreneurial personality, but from commitment to the systematic practice of innovation. In turn, he argues, innovation rarely springs from inspiration, but from alertness to various opportunities. Drucker (1985) has argued that '*purposeful, systematic innovation begins with the analysis of the sources of new opportunities*', and as we have seen, opportunities are at the centre of entrepreneurship.

In summary, it appears that our innovation capability not only originates from creation and analysis of ideas, but also on the systematic transformation of those ideas into something useful to defined stakeholders. I suspect the innovation measures we read yearly in the form of Global Competitive Indices (GCI) published by the World Economic Forum (WEF) somewhat reflect this line of thinking.



**Figure 2:** The global Competitiveness index structure: Source: Global Competitiveness Reports, 2008-2020

Global Competitive Indices (GCI) consists of 12 pillars of competitiveness which are classified into three sub-indices depending on whether the country's growth is based on the factors of *production*, *efficiency* or *innovation* (see Figure 2).

WEF provides the last two pillars of competitiveness as those relating to innovation. According to WEF, innovation emerges from new technological and non-technological knowledge. Specifically, the eleventh pillar relates to non-technological innovations related to know-how, skills, and working conditions embedded in organisations (business sophistication or dynamism); while the twelfth pillar (innovation capacity) relates to technological innovation. While boundaries are not clearly defined, it seems to me that innovation capacity relates to creativity (scientific knowledge), and business dynamism to implementation, commercialisation or entrepreneurship as defined above. For instance, innovation capacity is characterised by the following factors:

- i. Sufficient investment in research and development (R&D)
- ii. The presence of high-quality scientific research institutions that can generate the basic knowledge needed to build technologies
- iii. Extensive collaboration in research and technological developments between universities and industry
- iv. The protection of intellectual property.

These four points create the conducive environment for generation and accumulation of basic scientific ideas, but not necessarily their implementation, hence the need of business sophistication to create an innovation ecosystem.

Hindle (2009) laments the prominence given to these (scientific) ideas in Australian innovation policies; sometimes at the expense of converting them into *something of economic value*. Along similar lines, Tidd (2006) notes that pre-occupation with R&D (focusing on improving the science base and technological innovation) is insufficient because many problems occur during the later stages of the innovation process, namely, development and diffusion stages of innovation.

WEF not only adds business dynamism pillar to acknowledge the importance of converting ideas into economically valuable outcomes for stakeholders, but also measures the innovation ecosystem that brings together the two elements of innovation.

Now, let's turn to innovation trends as they relate to Lesotho. I present the innovation capacity trends of Lesotho as reported by WEF for the past 12 eleven years.

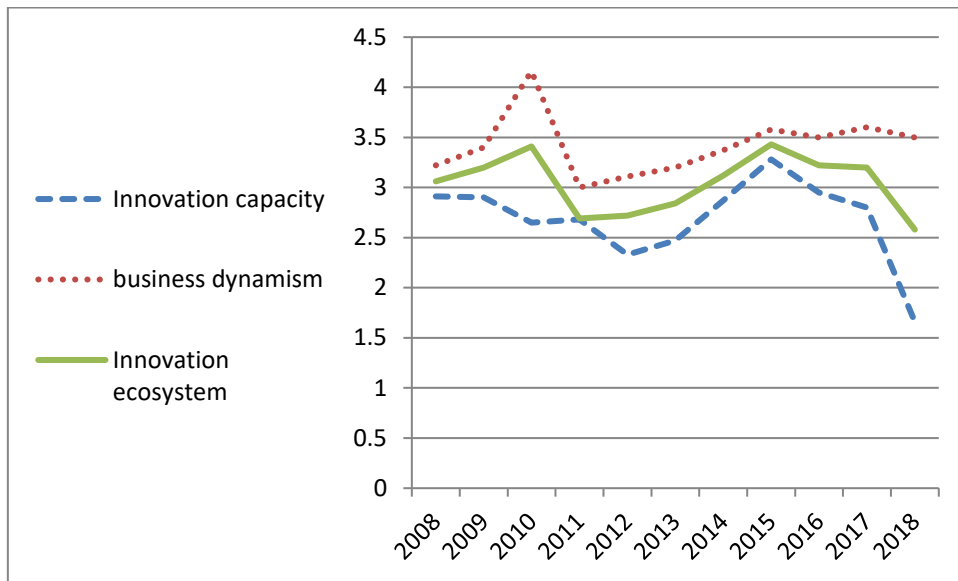
## 2.1. Innovation trends in Lesotho

The selected innovation capacity statistics for Lesotho in the past 12 years are shown in Table 1 and illustrated in Figure 3 (Khaola & Oni, 2020).

**Table 1: Selected innovation-related statistics for Lesotho, 2008-2018**

Year	Innovation capability		Business dynamism (sophistication)		Innovation ecosystem (innovation and sophistication factors)	
	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank
2019	21.8	138/141	50.1	120/141	35.95	-
2018	23.7	132 /140	50.0	118/140	36.85	127/140
2017	2.80	115/140	3.60	107/140	3.2	114/140
2016	2.95	111/138	3.50	110/138	3.22	112/138
2015	3.28	70/140	3.58	105/140	3.43	91/140
2014	2.87	110/144	3.37	123/144	3.12	117/144
2013	2.47	135/148	3.20	136/148	2.84	135/148
2012	2.33	138/144	3.11	135/144	2.72	137/144
2011	2.68	115/142	3.00	133/142	2.69	133/142
2010	2.65	112/139	4.16	53/139	3.41	74/139
2009	2.90	95/133	3.40	104/133	3.2	101/133
2008	2.91	97/134	3.22	126/134	3.06	110/134

Source: Global Competitiveness Reports, 2008-2019, inclusive



**Notes:** The scores ranged from 0 to 7 points from 2008-2017, but they were between 0 and 100 points in 2018 and 2019. The scores for 2018 and 2019 were recalculated on a scale ranging from 0 to 7 points

**Source:** Adapted from Khaola & Oni (2020). The influence of school principals' leadership behaviour and act of fairness on innovative work behaviours among teachers, *South African Journal of Human Resource Management*, <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v18i0.141>

**Figure 3: Innovation trends in Lesotho**

Overall, as shown in Table 1 and Figure 3, on a scale ranging from 0 to 7, the results not only suggest that all the scores (related to innovation) were below the mid-point of 4.5, but also remained stagnant over the years under review. Specifically, the trend-line of the innovation capacity points has been slightly falling while that of business dynamism (sophistication before 2018) remained stagnant. As a result, the innovation ecosystem (combination of innovation capacity and business dynamism) remained stagnant over the years as well. It seems to me that these innovation trends cannot take and sustain the country to innovation-growth levels needed in the knowledge-based era we are in. As suggested by Bate, Wachira and Danka (2023), innovation performance is the engine of economic growth, and as alluded to in the introduction to this lecture, the individual work performance (innovation) is the basic element of performance (innovation) of any economy. More specifically, Bate et al. (2023) found that the countries' innovation performance is determined by human capital, research,

infrastructure, and business sophistication, and that in turn, innovation performance predicts the country's economic growth. These authorities submit that the shortage of human capital to promote R&D is the biggest bottleneck hampering innovation in the lower–middle–income category.

## 2.2. From creativity to innovation: Creativity is not enough

Given the views expressed so far, it should not come as a surprise that creativity is considered necessary, but not sufficient for the country's innovation success. Of course, there cannot be innovation unless someone is inspired to use their skill to produce new knowledge (Hindle, 2009), hence the need for creativity, or R&D that stimulates it.

Take an example of two artists. One has an idea of a new song (creativity), but never literally sings it (no innovation). The other not only has an idea of a song (creativity), but also has an ability to organise a band to sing his unique song (innovation). Obviously the second artist will be more innovative because *a song is not a song until sung, as much as love is not love unless shared*. It is not surprising therefore that a 'great' idea is not 'great' until implemented to create something of economic value to users.

In this regard, Theodore Levitt (2002) bluntly suggests that ideation or creativity is not innovation, and that ideas are useless unless implemented. Thus unless ideas are implemented, or put more succinctly, exploited in a manner that creates economic value, heavy investment in R&D, in and of itself, is not enough for propelling the country to high levels of knowledge-driven growth.

It is with a lot of trepidation to even suggest that investment in ground-breaking ideas and prototypes in our Science-based Faculties at the National University of Lesotho (NUL), while an envy of others and pride of NUL, unless private sector is involved in scaling them up, NUL inventions may not see the light of the day, so to speak. We need at least strong university–industry linkages (UIL), and ideally, the 'triple helix' of university-government-industry relationships (Krishna, 2019).

As an entrepreneurial university (a university that takes the mission of not only teaching and research, but also gets involved in knowledge transfer and economic development, Krishna, 2019), we need to invest equally in idea generation and idea implementation that creates value for beneficiaries. In other words, it seems to me that there should be *good science and good business* for innovation success to thrive (Hindle, 2009).



Levitt (2002) even strongly warns that creativity without implementation is tantamount to *irresponsible behaviour*. The business and leadership coach, Robin Sharma (2018: 164), opine that '*...ambition without implementation is a ridiculous delusion*'.

While these may at face value read like condemnation of creativity, in reality they only reflect that it is a waste of scarce resources to suggest novel ideas and not commercialise them; it's indeed like bliss of a dream that cannot be attained.

The researcher that coined the term 'open innovation' in 2003, Henry Chesbrough, advises that '*research discoveries from within the company should be evaluated not only on their scientific and technical merit, but also on their ability to strengthen the company's ability to create and capture value in its business*' (p.44). Furthermore, he indicates that '*the value comes from the party that has a business model to create and capture value from the patent, not from the invention of the patentable technology itself... Absent an effective business model, a technology may be worth little indeed*' (p. 46).

Interestingly, the VC of NUL, in the inauguration of a newly-appointed board of Tloutle Holdings on 26 June, 2018, commented:

'NUL has, for years, been engaged in a number of operations which have not been efficiently run in a *business model* but as projects. Entities such as the Sefika Shopping Complex, NUL Housing Estate, Sebatso yoghurt factory and projects within the NUL Innovation Hub need to be run as fully-fledged businesses that generate income to sustain the university'.

It is not clear whether Tloutle had any business model, but based on its failures, one wonders if it had any business model that guided its operations. The rest is history.

### 2.3. Some factors that influence idea implementation

But implementing or commercialising ideas is not at all an easy task. Levitt (2002) suggests that whether or not creative ideas can be listened to depends on **four** factors. Let's consider each in turn, and apply it in the context of the recent NUL-innovation related activities.

### ***The position or rank of the idea originator in the organisation***

Generally, the higher the innovator or supporter of innovation is in the hierarchy, the more likely the innovation will be recognised. For instance, if the CEO has a creative idea, s/he can instruct subordinates to work on the idea and develop it further.

The point in case is the list of innovations fully supported and marketed vigorously by the 9<sup>th</sup> Vice-Chancellor, including but not limited to the production of Sebatatso Yoghurt Factory and Bohlale Biscuits, and the founding of Innovation Hub and registration of Tloutle Holdings to probably implement some of these innovations. While these innovations are not error free (and indeed some like the establishment of Tloutle has evoked several debates), the bottom line is that the courage and leadership of this particular VC put these innovations on world stage.

I don't want to believe that NUL scientists were only creative during the tenure of the 9<sup>th</sup> Vice-Chancellor (like him or hate him), but rather that they were supported, publicly and otherwise, and hence could easily express their inventions during the stint of this particular VC whose *vision was to create an entrepreneurial university for Lesotho*.

Before and after his tenure, the same NUL scientists were still there, but they were probably not supported, and hence their inventions were either not known or sufficiently commercialised. Based on my research, and perhaps supported by cases of innovation at NUL, I submit that creative or transformational leaders are needed to stimulate innovations.

**This says to me, entrepreneurial universities with entrepreneurial missions need entrepreneurial VCs.**

### ***The complexity of the idea***

The complexity of the idea has implications for its implementation. Generally, a complex idea needs more time, resources and competence to implement it.

There is no doubt that NUL has some of the most resourceful scientists in Lesotho, but because it does not have world class laboratories, and the government and private sector do not invest in R&D (as they should), or partner with universities in the innovation space (the 'triple helix' of university-government-industry relationships, Krishna, 2019), very few ground-breaking innovations have emerged from the university, or put more appropriately, scaled up from their prototype stage.

Even when ground-breaking inventions have surprisingly been achieved (relatively easy part), for instance, our glorious Pius XII egg incubator and the innovative engineered sandstone, commercialisation of these products (the hard part) has not been as intensive as we would expect because of lack of resources or competence of our industrialists in the country.

On the contrary, compared to more mundane ideas, ideas with high levels of creativity need more resources (financial, material, human, etc.) to be implemented (Baer, 2012). Note that even though other relatively common ideas (less creative) have been easily scaled up, NUL and the country need to commercialise more ground-breaking, complex ideas to gain dividends from our innovations and, of course get the visibility they deserve. Perhaps a more complex idea was the invention of potential drug to treat corona virus. This ground-breaking invention stalled because the resources were not available to undertake further tests, and there was no clear leadership from NUL to assemble necessary resources (admittedly there were other issues that emerged later that might have compounded the problem).

### ***The nature of the industry***

In some industries it is not easy to separate invention from implementation. For instance, in advertising industry, creativity is the same as implementation, so few supporting details are required to implement the idea. It could be the same in the art or fashion industry, or indeed, in the service industry where my studies were based. Contrarily, in some industries, e.g. medical or car industry, more convincing details are needed before implementation can be effected.

In the case of NUL, the Science-based Faculties arguably engage in distinct processes of creativity and implementation of tangible products, and more often than not, the latter (commercialisation) is the challenge. Creative, innovative and transformational leadership is needed if NUL products were to reach commercialisation stage.

### ***The attitude and job of the person to whom the idea is submitted***

The attitude or personality of the person to whom the idea is submitted, often the CEO (and in the case of NUL, VC), matters for implementation of creative ideas. It is no secret that some bosses are more receptive to new ideas than others. Even if people are creative in nature, if their bosses lack creative self-efficacy, confidence or openness to experience personality, good inventions may not even see the light of the day, so to speak.

In summary, if Lesotho wants to turn Roma Valley of Lesotho into a prestigious science and innovation park similar to Silicon Valley of the USA (or Bangalore of India or Melbourne of Australia), we must realise that investment in invention (creativity) is a necessary but not sufficient initiative; but that we must also produce transformational leaders, and invest more in the later and messy stages of commercialisation of creative ideas (Hindle, 2009, Tidd, 2006). Furthermore, we need the effective 'triple helix' of university-government-industry relationships (Krishna, 2019).

#### 2.4. Beyond business creation to value creation

I have argued that entrepreneurship is not confined to creation of businesses but also includes value-creating processes within existing organisations. Broadly speaking, *entrepreneurship is more of an attitude than starting of a business*. One can become entrepreneurial in existing organisations; what is sometimes referred to as 'intrapreneurship'. When people become creative and entrepreneurial, say by helping their organisations to introduce new products or enter new markets, value is being created, and more people will be employed.

I tread to say I lament the narrow approach to job creation in Lesotho through the so-called entrepreneurship (meaning enterprise creation in my assessment, especially by young people). To be a serious 'achieving society', so to paraphrase McClelland, we need to encourage every person in Lesotho to be entrepreneurial in their respective work stations.

Because of high youth unemployment, it is understandable, but unrealistic to expect all (and sometimes only) young people to be entrepreneurial. It is more realistic and quite fruitful to encourage every Mosotho to be entrepreneurial, whether young or old; whether employees or not.

Creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship are far too important to be confined to certain groups of people (e.g. youth), great as they may seem to be in our assessment. *Everybody* should be motivated to create something of value rather than merely start a business (for the sake of doing so). It seems to me that starting a business that does not create value is not useful to building a knowledge based economy we all aspire for, and that will have significant dent on unemployment rates. People that do not start businesses that grow are not entrepreneurial.

Some people may decide to invest their money in investment portfolios that yield above inflation returns. For instance, in 2004 someone I know invested M10 000 in unit trusts, and tended to forget about the investment over years. On October, 30 2021, the money was over M104 000, translating into 940% growth. The risk is that between then and January 2023, there has not been any appreciable growth, with value range-bound between M100 000 and M110 000.

It seems to me that investing in simple financial literacy can also be useful for the economy!

How do we practically encourage creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship? It seems to me that leadership is critical.

## **Leadership drivers of creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship**

*In industrial, educational, and military settings, and in social movements, leadership plays a critical, if not the most critical, role, and is therefore an important subject for study and research. (Bass, 2008, p.25)*

The above quoted statement from one of the prominent leadership scholars of our time shows that leadership matters in almost all spheres of life. It should not come as a surprise therefore that leadership is critical for creativity, innovation and entrepreneurship as well (Mumford et al., 2002). Hughes et al. (2018: 549) agree that '*leadership is a key predictor of employee, team, and organisational creativity and innovation*'. There is ample evidence that innovation is not only a function of innate talents and abilities, but it is also a function of social processes such as leadership (Baer, 2012; Perry-Smith & Mannuci, 2017).

Leaders shape the working environment, resource allocation and the nature of tasks, and influence employee behaviours by leveraging existing employee resources such as motivation and commitment, and developing new ones through training and development (Lee et al., 2020). In their meta-analytic review, Lee et al. (2020) found that 13 leadership variables are associated with creativity and/or innovation.

My focus in this lecture is on a particular type of style of leadership, namely, transformational leadership. While leadership is generally defined as a process of influence to achieve stated goals, transformational leadership is described as a process in which a leader plays an idealised role model; challenges employees to reframe issues and come with creative behaviours; supports and mentors employees;

and provides inspirational motivation to employees to achieve the shared vision and goals (Afsar and Umrani, 2019; Bass and Avolio, 1995, Khaola & Rambe, 2020). Since transformational leadership cajoles employees to performance beyond expectations (Bass, 1985), it is theoretically a potent antecedent of all extra-role behaviours in general, and creative and innovative behaviours in particular (Khaola, 2018; Khaola & Coldwell, 2019a; Khaola & Rambe, 2021).

Of the four broad categories of leadership behaviours, namely, task-oriented behaviour, relations-oriented behaviour, change-oriented behaviour, external-oriented behaviour, *transformational leadership* is conceptually similar to *change-oriented behaviour* (see Table 2). Change oriented-behaviour (advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating collective learning) is considered critical for creativity and innovation (Yukl, 2012).

**Table 2: Taxonomy of leadership behaviours**

Leader behaviour meta-category	Primary objective	Specific leader behaviours
Task-oriented behaviour	To accomplish work in an efficient and reliable way	Clarifying
		Planning
		Monitoring operations
		Problem solving
Relations-oriented behaviour	To increase the quality of human resources and relations – human capital	Supporting
		Developing
		Recognizing
		Empowering
Change-oriented behaviour	To increase innovation, collective learning, and adaptation to external environment	Advocating change
		Envisioning change
		Encouraging innovation
		Facilitating collective learning
External-oriented behaviour	To acquire necessary information and resources, and to promote and defend the interests of the team or organization	Networking
		External monitoring
		Representing

Source: Yukl (2012), p. 68

Overall, my extensive literature review and research suggest that transformational leadership may well be the key predictor of IWBs, especially in the service sector industry which was the subject of most of my research in this area.

My research on a section of primary school teachers, high school teachers, university lecturers, state-owned enterprises, private sector and public sector organisations suggest a consistent relationship between transformational leadership and IWBs (Khaola, 2018; Khaola & Coldwell, 2017; Khaola & Coldwell, 2019; Khaola & Oni, 2020, Khaola & Rambe, 2021). Of the two dimensions of IWB, namely, creativity or invention, and innovation or implementation, I found that transformational leadership had more pronounced effects on the latter than on the former (Khaola, 2019).

Interestingly, the same studies found inconsistent relationship between organisational justice and innovative work behaviours, and no relationship between organisational commitment and innovative work behaviours. As indicated by Marinova, Peng, Lorinkova, Van Dyne and Chiaburu (2015), it is possible that committed employees sometimes find it difficult to challenge their organisations, which may well stifle their IWBs.

I found these results intriguing because organisational justice and organisational commitment are consistent predictors of other types of performance, including task performance and OCB. This suggests to me that IWB or innovation may be a special type of performance, and to stimulate it, one cannot rely on stylised facts.

It is possible that not all attitudes or leadership contexts stimulate innovation. For instance, a leader can be just, and still not directly stimulating innovation performance. Similarly, a leader can engender commitment among employees, and still not directly trigger employee IWBs. Some researchers posit that traditional attitudes such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction and organisational justice may not be effective drivers of change and innovation because employees may feel strong attachment to the status quo, resulting in failure to perceive opportunities for improvement (Marinova *et al.*, 2015). For Jaros (2010), unless employees perceive the proposed change or innovation as consistent with organisational values, they may not introduce or accept new or innovative ideas.

### 3. The mediating role of OCB in the relationship between leadership behaviours and innovative work behaviours

There have generally been inconsistent findings pertaining to the relationship between leadership behaviours and innovation (Afsar and Umrani, 2019, Mumford et al., 2002). Some researchers attribute this inconsistent relationship to the fact that employees tend to follow transformational leaders without much questioning, which itself militates against change, discovery and invention (Mumford & Licuanan, 2004).

In my research to date, there has been a consistent relationship between transformational leadership and IWBs, but with some variance in IWBs explained by OCB. I also found inconsistent relationships between organisational justice and innovative work behaviours (Khaola, 2018; Khaola & Coldwell, 2019), but consistent relationship between the two constructs when OCB mediates the relationship. This suggests to me that the relationship between leadership behaviours (leadership and justice) and IWB may be explained by OCB. While the role of OCB in the positive relationship between transformational leadership and IWB is yet to be theorised, there are compelling factors that may explain these results.

Innovation is risky, and unless it is a job requirement (as is the case in an R&D job), employees may be less motivated to engage in it (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Furthermore, risky projects require employees to sometimes violate habitual norms, which may cause friction among employees (Argawal, 2013, 2014).

I argue that some dimensions of transformational leadership (e.g. intellectual stimulation) provide a signal that innovation is supported, which in turn gives employees the *psychological safety* (a belief that the context is safe for interpersonal risk taking – i.e. knowing that speaking up with ideas, questions, concerns, or mistakes will be welcomed and valued, Edmondson, 2018) to innovate (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). In addition, because of its affiliation-oriented nature, OCB ‘lubricates the social machinery of the organisation’ (Naqshbandi et al., 2016:202), which makes it easy for employees to innovate (Khaola, 2018). Since OCB is sometimes defined as ‘total performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place’ (Organ, 1997:95), it provides employees with psychological safety. I have argued in my publications that it is this psychological safety that makes it easy for employees to innovate (Khaola, 2018; Khaola & Coldwell, 2019).



I have no doubt that after ‘partialing’ out the marketing gimmick that the leadership of the 9<sup>th</sup> VC of NUL might have generated about innovation at NUL, many innovators, especially those from ‘natural’ sciences, might have found it *psychologically safe* to experiment and innovate. If leadership signals support for innovation, the expected employee performance outcomes increase and expected risk outcomes decline (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Thus it takes leadership to *demystify* innovation and reduce stereotypes that innovation is only for those working in R&D or natural sciences. In my humble opinion, every employee should know that they are expected to contribute to new ideas, and innovation should be defined as a job requirement in employee job descriptions (Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

#### **4. The serial mediating roles of organisational commitment and OCB in the relationship between leadership behaviours and innovative work behaviours**

As I indicated earlier (see figure 1), my primary research has been motivated by the role leadership behaviours play in engendering employee IWBs. I was also intrigued by the nature of the relationship between OCB and IWB, and the process or stages of innovation itself.

As mentioned above, most of the literature revealed a tenuous, if not an elusive relationship between transformational leadership and justice on one hand, and IWBs on the other hand. Based on the *context-attitude-behaviour theorem*, I posed the following research question to guide most of my research: *Do both transformational leadership and organisation justice (leadership behaviours) link to IWB through the mechanism of organisational commitment and OCB in series?*

This 2-step mediated model informed my signature project in research. Using structural equation modelling approaches, I found that the model that best fitted data was the one in which a) the influence of transformational leadership on IWB was serially and partially mediated by organisational commitment and OCB, and b) the impact of organisational justice on IWB was serially and fully mediated by organisational commitment and OCB (Khaola, 2018; Khaola and Coldwell, 2019a). While organisational commitment and justice did not have direct influence on IWBs, transformational leadership had direct and indirect influence. Interestingly, I also found that management level had significant effects on IWBs. This suggests the critical importance of a particular style of leadership, namely, transformational leadership in

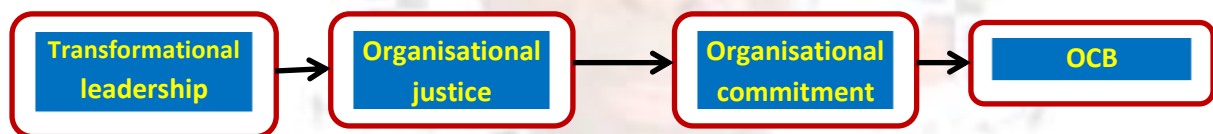
the process of innovation, and the extent of influence of senior management (perhaps with that style of leadership), in the process of innovation. Based on thirteen leadership variables, Lee et al. (2020) found that the strongest predictors of IWB were supportive leadership, empowering leadership, and entrepreneurial leadership. Transformational, creative and entrepreneurial leadership share common conceptual attributes, perhaps best underscored by the concept of change and doing things differently. In their literature review, Guo and Gonzales (2016) also show the critical importance of transformational leadership in creativity, across studies and regions of the world. These results are not surprising because prior studies have intimated the importance of creative self-efficacy in the process of creativity (Tierney and Farmer, 2002), and more importantly, that leaders with creative self-efficacy stimulate creative self-efficacy among followers (Huang, Krasikova, & Liu, 2016).

It seems to me that it matters to have creative leaders, and therefore organisations have to target transformational, entrepreneurial or creative leaders to lead creativity and innovation at work. As supported by literature and the results of my studies, transformational leadership provides a context within which creativity and innovation thrive (Khaola & Coldwell, 2019a, 2019b, Khaola and Musiiwa, 2021; Khaola & Oni, 2020). When unpacking the relationship between transformational leadership and creativity and innovation, I discovered that transformational leadership probably has more impact on innovation than on creativity (Khaola, 2019; Khaola & Coldwell, 2017), suggesting that failure to implement creative idea owe more to leaders than creative employees themselves. It also explains the inconsistent results between transformational leadership and innovation in which the latter concept was measured as a composite measure, and not separated into creativity and innovation (implementation).

The equivocal results between both organisational commitment and justice on IWBs are not something new, as they are supported by extant literature (Khaola & Coldwell, 2019b, Khaola & Musiiwa, 2021, Mumford et al., 2002). However, by no means do my results and existing literature suggest that organisational justice and organisational commitment have no role to play in stimulating IWBs. As indicated above, organisational justice deepens organisational commitment; which facilitates OCB; and the latter stimulates IWBs. Similarly, organisational commitment enhances OCB, which in turn supports employee engagement in IWBs.

## 5. The effects of (transformational) leadership on OCB—the serial mediating roles of organisational justice and organisational commitment

As shown in section 1, my conceptual model positioned both transformational leadership and organisational justice (leadership behaviours) as contextual exogenous variables; organisational commitment and OCB as serial or consecutive mediating variables; and IWBs as a criterion variable. I later pondered on the causal or temporal ordering of the leadership behaviours (transformational leadership and justice) in this process. The extant literature and the portion of my results suggest two possibilities: a) leadership interacts with justice to influence outcomes, suggesting that no variable temporally occur before the other, or b) leadership influences justice, and justice influences outcomes such as OCB, suggesting that transformational leadership temporally occur before justice. I modified my initial model and recreated a new model in which transformational leadership would influence organisational justice, which would in turn influence organisational commitment, and which finally would engender OCB.



**Figure 4: The mechanism through which transformational leadership influences OCB**

While there are compelling arguments that justice shape good leaders, I reasoned out that justice emanate from good or effective leaders, and that it is this justice that engenders commitment, which in turn makes employees go an extra mile (OCB) for such leaders or their organisations (Khaola & Rambe, 2021; Khaola & Coldwell, 2017, Khaola, 2018). The conference paper I wrote exploring this line of thinking confirmed my conjecture, and won a paltry 3<sup>rd</sup> price award from Southern African Institute of Management Scientists held in Bloemfontein (Khaola & Coldwell, 2017), and the journal paper that came out of this conference (Khaola & Rambe, 2021) is now my top cited paper. These empirical studies (and the literature) support my argument that one reason transformational leaders are effective is because they are just, and just leaders have the capacity to motivate employees to commit in OCBs and IWBs.

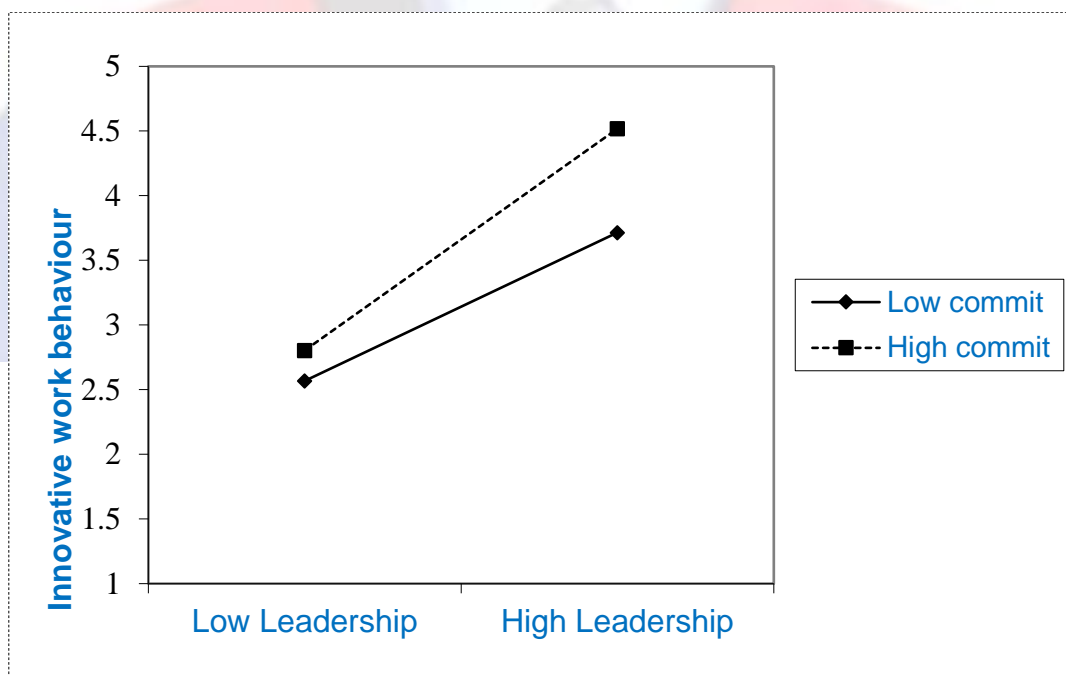
## 6. The moderated effects of transformational leadership on IWBs

My two studies that did not receive as much attention (in terms of citation count) as those based on mediated effects explored the moderated effects of transformational

leadership on innovation. Whereas mediation focuses on factors that explain the relationship between variables, moderation focuses on factors that enhance or reduce the relationship between two or more variables.

In the first study (Khaola and Coldwell, 2019b) I explored if commitment does not enhance or reduce the relationship between transformational leadership and IWBs. The traditional assumption has been that leaders influence behaviours of employees, while downplaying the role played by individual differences and attitudes. Yet, most of the literature on leadership suggests that leaders do not have similar influence on followers because leadership effectiveness may depend on follower differences (Guay and Choi, 2015). This notwithstanding, there are surprisingly few studies that examine how follower attributes moderate the effects of leadership on employee IWBs (Guay and Choi, 2015). To address this limitation, I suggested employee feelings (affective commitment) as the boundary condition within which transformational leadership influences IWBs (Anderson et al., 2014; Pieterse et al., 2010). My argument has been that employee differences may have a role to play in determining the effectiveness of leadership (Antonakis & House, 2013; Avolio et al., 2009).

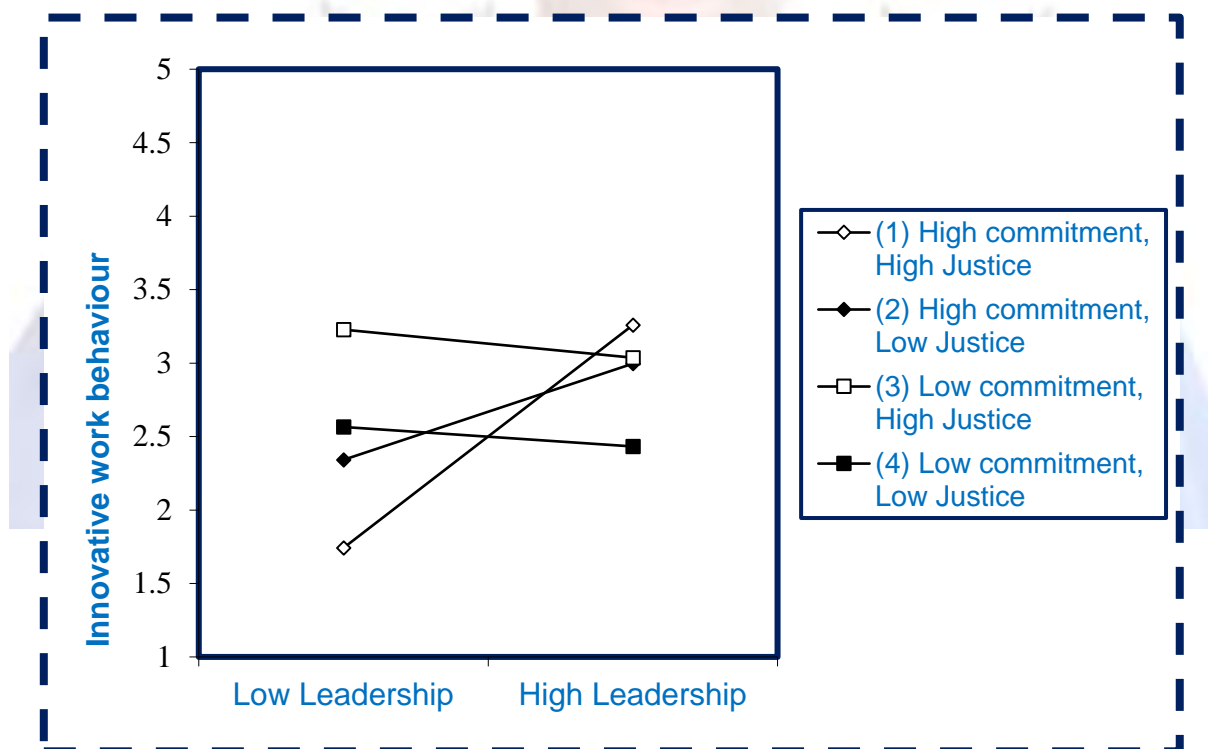
The results confirmed that transformational leadership had more impact on affectively committed employees, while it had relatively less impact on less affectively committed employees (Khaola and Coldwell, 2019b).



**Figure 5: Effects of the interaction between transformational leadership and commitment on IWB.**

These results suggest that while commitment in and of itself did not have influence on individual IWBs, it tended to enhance the impact of transformational leadership on IWBs. This means that transformational leaders' influence is more pronounced among affectively committed employees than their less affectively committed counterparts.

My second study along similar lines extended this line of thinking and included organisational justice as another moderator, resulting in a 3-way interaction between transformational leadership, organisational commitment and organisational justice (see Khaola & Musiiwa, 2021). The aim of this exploratory study was to find out if transformational leaders did not have more impact on IWBs of affectively committed employees who perceived fair treatment than their less affectively committed employees who perceived unfair treatment by their leaders. As shown in Figure 6, the results confirmed that the 3-way interaction of these factors explained additional and significant variance over direct and two-way interaction factors.



**Figure 6: Effects of the 3-way interaction between transformational leadership, commitment and justice on IWB.**

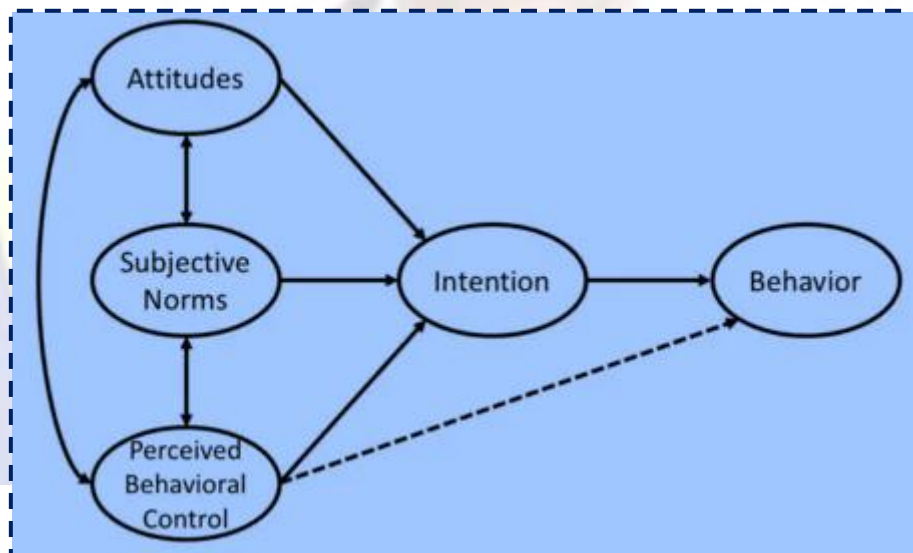
Put differently, the results intimated that transformational leaders who were perceived to be just by employees had more pronounced influence on individual IWBs of committed employees who perceived fair treatment than on those who were less committed and perceived unfair treatment from their leaders and organisations.

### **7. Miscellaneous studies on the influence of technology transfer on innovation and performance**

Besides leadership, the pre-eminence of technology transfer and technological innovation on productivity and firm competitiveness are now well-established. I ventured into this area of research, thanks to one colleague who serves as a professor of entrepreneurship in one South African university of technology. In one study (Rambe & Khaola, 2022), we explored if technology transfer had influence on small agri-business firms in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The results supported direct and significant paths between innovation and technology transfer; technology transfer and productivity; and productivity and competitiveness. In another study (Rambe & Khaola, 2023), we tested the mechanism through which technology transfer affects competitiveness of small agri-business firms in South Africa and Zimbabwe. The results suggested that product quality partially mediated the relationship between technology transfer and competitiveness of such businesses. The results further demonstrated that the relationship between product quality and competitiveness was moderated by asset value such that at low levels of product quality, small agri-business firms with larger asset values became more competitive than those with smaller asset values, suggesting product quality is more important than the size of the organisation in leveraging its competitive advantage. In Rambe, Khaola and Mpiti (2022), we investigated the extent to which specific human resource practices mediate the interaction between technology acquisition and performance of small cosmetology firms in the central region of South Africa. The findings demonstrated direct, positive and significant effects of technology acquisition on the performance of such firms, and confirmed the partial mediation of employee technical skills training on the relationship between technology acquisition and small firm performance. Surprisingly, general business skills training partially but negatively mediated technology acquisition's relationship with performance, perhaps suggesting that what mattered most for these small businesses were technical skills, and not general management skills required for large businesses.

## 8. Factors that influence Students' entrepreneurial intentions in Lesotho

The other related passion that has dominated my research activities for decades falls within the domain of students' entrepreneurial intentions and behaviours. This interest has been ignited by, among other current problems, high youth unemployment in general and high graduate unemployment in particular. While there are many entrepreneurial intentions frameworks that can be used, my research was dominated by Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB). According to this theory, individuals act (behave) rationally and intentionally. As illustrated in Figure 7, behavioural intentions are considered the proximal and best determinants of behaviour, and in turn, they (behavioural intentions) are influenced by attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control (Krueger, 1993; Yang, 2013). The behavioural intention refers to one's likelihood that s/he will perform the behaviour; attitudes towards behaviour is the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable appraisal of behaviour; social norm or subjective norm denotes the perceived social pressure from others to perform or not to perform the behaviour; and perceived behavioural control refers to the perceived ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Khaola and Ndovorwi, 2015).

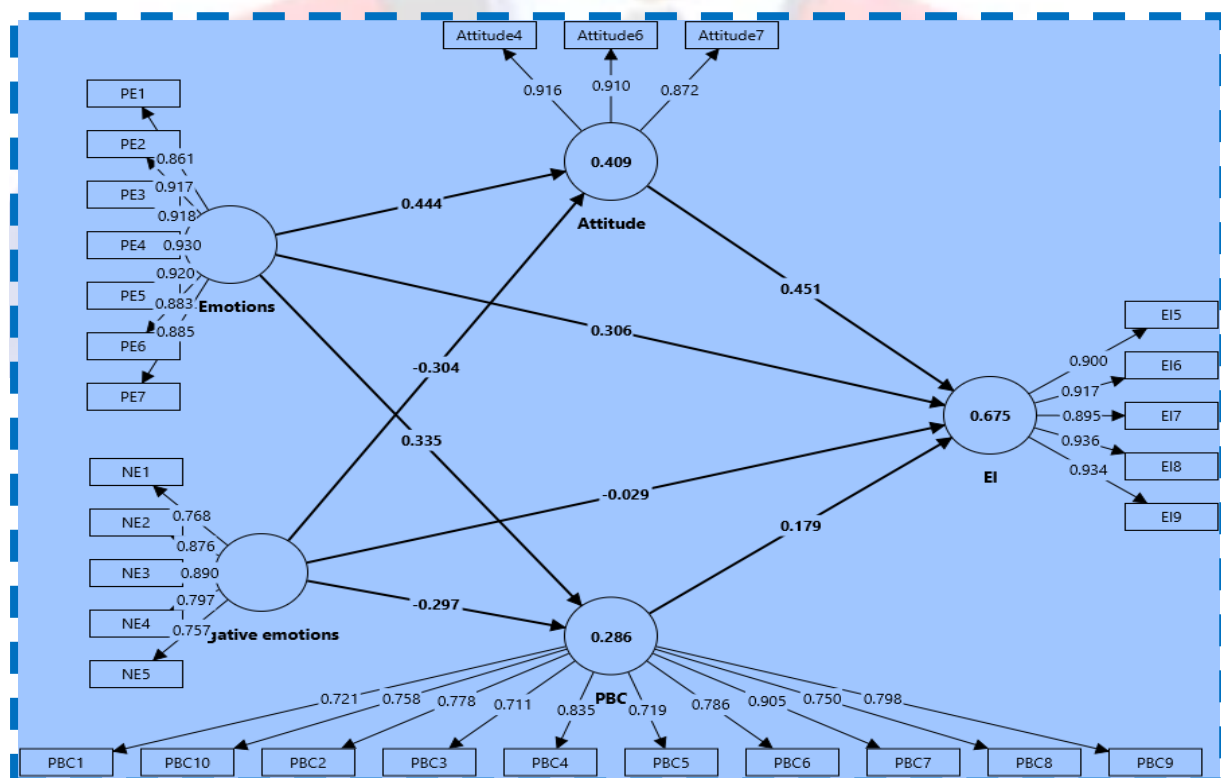


**Figure 7: The Theory of Planned Behaviour**

While the findings from my studies did not differ much from those found in the literature, there are a few things that stood out from my findings, somewhat confirming that certain theories may be culture-bound (Farh, Zhong & Organ, 2004; Yang, 2013). First, even though most of the studies based on Western cultures suggest that

behavioural control has the largest effect on entrepreneurial intentions (Gird and Bagraim, 2008, Yang, 2013), most of the findings in Lesotho (including those of students I supervised) consistently suggest that *attitude towards entrepreneurship* has the largest effect on students' entrepreneurial intentions, followed closely by behavioural control (Khaola & Ndovorwi, 2015). Second, the *subjective norm* produces the smallest, and in some cases, non-significant effects on entrepreneurial intentions. Third, in two separate studies in which I tested the role played by powerlessness on students' entrepreneurial intentions, I found intriguing results. In study one (Khaola, 2010), I found that the feelings of powerlessness and alienation had negative and significant effects on students' entrepreneurial intentions, suggesting that the sense of powerlessness reduce intentions to act. In another study based on over 400 students (Khaola & Ndovorwi, 2015), I found that students' feelings of powerlessness did not only have the negative and significant effects on entrepreneurial intentions of university students, but that it also added a unique variance over the well-established predictors of entrepreneurial intentions.

My current passion is also on linking emotions to entrepreneurial intentions. The preliminary findings on my work-in-progress using PLS-SEM suggest that positive emotions directly and indirectly influenced students' entrepreneurial intentions. On the contrary, the effects of negative emotions remained tenuous (see Figure 8).





## **Figure 8: Results of PLS – SEM from an unpublished work-in-progress**

Overall, my findings suggest that universities can increase entrepreneurial activity in Lesotho by transforming the attitudes of students towards entrepreneurship (making it a desirable career path) and by increasing the confidence of students in their ability to start their own businesses.

Since students' powerlessness can reduce entrepreneurial intentions, which are a precursor to entrepreneurial behaviour, we can also reinforce entrepreneurial intentions of students through motivation and empowerment. The emerging trend suggests that we cannot ignore emotions and affect in the formation of entrepreneurial intentions. Because entrepreneurship requires creative and critical thinking, these results may be explained based on the Broaden-and-Build Theory of positive emotions. This Theory posits that experiences of positive emotions broaden people's momentary thought–action repertoires, whereas negative ones narrow them, and hence stifle their creativity (Frederickson, 2004).

### **9. Students' OCB and academic performance**

As indicated earlier, researchers in organisational studies concur that performance is a multidimensional construct comprising several facets; including core task performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) (Harari et al., 2016). While task performance (a.k.a. in-role performance) has been operationalised as the proficiency with which core tasks are executed, OCB (a.k.a. contextual performance) shapes the organisational, social and psychological context within which core and technical activities take place (Borman, Penner, Allen, & Motowidlo, 2001; Cummings et al., 2017). In the same manner that performance in work settings can be defined as task performance and OCB, I have argued in my studies (based on university students) that students' academic achievement can be defined along core activities of doing well in designed courses (academic performance in form of grades) and OCBs such as helping other students with university–related work (helping behaviour); refraining from complaining about trivial things (sportsmanship); notifying others of their absence from team projects or classes (courtesy); supporting university–related activities (civic virtue); and handing in assignments on time (conscientiousness) (Allison et al., 2001; Khaola, 2008, 2014).

In my first study on this topic (Khaola, 2008), I found that students' commitment and general self-esteem were both positively related to students' citizenship behaviour (OCB), but not to their academic performance (grades). Similarly, overall students' citizenship behaviour (OCB) did not have direct influence on academic performance. Interestingly, when I disaggregated OCB into its facets or components, I found that only helping behaviour of students positively influenced their academic performance. I examined these relationships on another sample of students six years later (Khaola, 2014), and the results were replicated – i.e. only helping behaviour became the dominant determinant of objective academic performance.

In Khaola and Mahao (2019), I tested the influence of core-self evaluations (CSEs) and gender on over 400 students' citizenship behaviour and objective academic performance. The results suggest that CSEs of students in the sample had a significant impact on their helping behaviour, but did not significantly affect their objective academic performance (academic grades). This notwithstanding, there were significant differences between males and females in terms of academic performance, with females performing better than males. Gender further moderated the relationship between CSEs and helping behaviour such that the relationship was stronger for males rather than females. Contrary to expectations, the gendered effects of CSEs on academic performance were not significant.

In Khaola, Musiiwa and Rambe (2022), we expanded our research to include the role of social media usage in students' performance (both citizenship and academic performance). Specifically, based on OCB, and the interconnectedness of the attention capacity, conservation of resources, and resource allocation theories, we examined how student citizenship behaviour (SCB) and the use of social media influence the academic performance of NUL students. We found an insignificant relationship between the usage of social media and academic performance (albeit in the expected direction, i.e. negative direction). That notwithstanding, our results suggested that helping others using social media (SCB) had positive and significant impact on students' academic learning and performance. We concluded that while social media may distract students from performing well, the same social media can be used to improve the performance of those that assist others using this tool.

Overall, I found the significant relationship between students' citizenship behaviour and their academic performance intriguing. Our results emphatically suggest that

students can *'help themselves by helping others'*. In all studies in this area, students' helping behaviour was significantly correlated to their academic performance, suggesting that the higher the helping behaviour the higher the academic performance, and vice versa. We found the same results even when social media was the primary tool used to help others. I have argued that it is possible that students who helped others might have accumulated valued resources such as self-esteem and social capital (Khaola & Coldwell, 2017), all of which helped these altruistic students to perform well academically. In Khaola (2008, 2014), I specifically argued that it is possible that students who help others have the opportunity of 'honing' their skills, which later helps them perform better in tests and examinations. Many assets depreciate if used, but it seems to me that knowledge is one of the few assets that appreciate the more one uses them.

## **10. Concluding remarks and recommendations**

Overall, as I conclude this lecture, I submit that my studies have implications for organisations who aspire to influence employees to exhibit citizenship and IWBs. I summarise and provide practical steps for some of my arguments in the subsections that follow.

### **10.1. Transformational leadership matters**

We have always known that leadership influences many criteria, including individual performance criteria, confirming the popular adage that *'organisations rise and fall in the hands of leaders'*. My work confirms this particular cliché because in all the studies I conducted, I found that transformational leadership had direct and indirect influence on selected extra-role behaviours (OCBs and IWBs). From the HR point of view, there are basically two ways in which organisations can get the competences they want – they may either acquire them or develop them. Acquisition of skills implies careful and extensive recruitment and selection, and development of skills or competences implies employee training and management development interventions. These two human resource practices respectively cater for those who believe that leadership is a function of certain personality traits (i.e. leaders are born and not nurtured), and those that subscribe to the view that leaders are made or nurtured.

To acquire leaders that may influence employees go extra-mile requires that organisations understand the personality traits that make effective leaders. Of the big

five personality traits (extraversion, agreeableness, openness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism), research suggest that *extroversion and emotional stability* predict leadership in general, and transformational leadership in particular (Khaola, 2018; Wang et al., 2011). Put differently, if an organisation aims at acquiring leaders with transformational skills, they may hire leaders who score high on extroversion and emotional stability in a psychometric test.

Another popular HR practice that can be used to increase the abundance of leadership skills is *training and management development*. Training programmes can be designed and targeted at improving leadership skills. Fortunately, there is evidence that managers can be trained to be good leaders (Wang et al., 2011).

For boosting extra-role behaviours, particularly innovation, I strongly encourage organisations to acquire leaders that are transformational in nature, or to develop them to acquire transformational skills. The literature I read and the findings of some of my studies suggest that this form of leadership (and other attributes sharing conceptual similarity with this form of leadership) is critical for individual innovation.

I argued earlier that I observed different innovation patterns at NUL, depending on who the VC was. Transformational, innovative, entrepreneurial leaders with creative self-efficacy have a way of influencing their followers to be innovative. As suggested by Tierney and Farmer (2002), leaders with creative self-efficacy stimulate creativity in their followers. I subscribe to the view that leaders should lead by example and not through rhetoric and flowery statements they make. I further subscribe to the view that people follow leaders, and not their words or papers in which their words have been prescribed.

## **10.2. Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) matters**

Researchers started popularising the importance of OCB (and related concepts) since the 1980's and 1990's (Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1988; Organ, 1997; Organ, 2018). While most of the early research focused on antecedents of OCB (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009), several meta-analytic studies have since intimated that OCB is robustly associated with individual and organisational performance criteria (Organ, 2018; Podsakoff et al., 2009). That notwithstanding, research on the relationship between OCB and other extra-role behaviours in general, and innovation in particular, has been subdued (Khaola, 2018; Khaola & Coldwell, 2019a). As

indicated earlier, my work in this area suggests that OCB is not only directly related to IWBs, but also explains (mediates) the relationship between leadership and IWBs (Khaola, 2018; Khaola & Coldwell, 2019a). Even factors such as organisational justice and commitment that were not directly related to IWBs, related to IWBs via OCB (Khaola, 2018; Khaola and Coldwell, 2019a), suggesting that OCB matters for stimulating IWBs.

To increase OCB, organisations can target people predisposed to OCB. One way of achieving this is to hire people with personality traits that enhance OCB. Personality traits such as *agreeableness, conscientiousness and emotional stability* are known to predict contextual performance, a concept that has similar features with OCB (Organ, 2018). Earlier, Organ and Ryan (1995) found that *conscientiousness* had positive effects on OCB. Similarly, in their meta-analysis, Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li and Gardner (2011) found that *emotional stability, extraversion and openness* explained additional variance over job satisfaction in OCB. I therefore conclude that, by employing people with these personality traits, organisations can increase the pool of people with OCB, which we now know it has influence on IWBs.

Another popular tactic to increase OCB is through training employees on this behaviour. Specifically, training programmes that enhance cooperation, teamwork and taking initiative could increase OCB, which in turn would create a supportive environment in which IWBs flourish (Khaola, 2018).

### **10.3. Organisational justice and commitment influence IWBs indirectly via OCB.**

Organisational justice (fairness), organisational commitment (close relative of job satisfaction), and personality are considered the main predictors of OCB and contextual performance (Organ, 2018). The impact of these factors on task performance and innovation has always been elusive. In my studies, I concluded that organisational justice and commitment were not directly related to IWBs. In fact, I found that these two factors influence the criterion variable (IWB) through OCB. Put differently, I found that the relationship between these variables and IWB is explained by OCB. In my signature project, I found that the relationship between both transformational leadership and organisational justice on one hand, and IWB on the other hand is serially explained by organisational commitment and OCB.

To increase organisational justice, organisations can train employees on a wide range of issues, including being consistent when making decisions, basing decisions on accurate information, correcting decisions when new information emerge, basing decisions on principles of morality, and avoiding bias when making corporate decisions. Consequently, when people perceive fair treatment from their supervisors or organisations, they become committed to their jobs, supervisors, and ultimately organisations. Some people have a propensity to commit in nature, and by hiring such people in organisations can further enhance employee commitment.

#### **10.4. Organisational justice and commitment matter in so far as enhancing the positive effects of transformational leadership on IWB are concerned**

My recent studies found that transformational leadership interact with justice and commitment to influence IWBs (Khaola & Coldwell, 2019b; Khaola & Musiiwa, 2021). While transformational leadership consistently influenced IWBs, I also found that this factor's influence is enhanced by committed employees who also perceived fair treatment from their supervisors. It is therefore my unshakeable conviction that IWBs can be increased by hiring and retaining transformational and fair leaders, who can influence employees to commit and engage in OCB.

What I have realised is that average organisations aim at achieving task or in-role performance, while great organisations motivate employees to go extra-mile and become innovative.

I conclude this lecture by paraphrasing Campbell and Wiernek (2015:48) on the opening statement in the context of innovation:

*Individual IWB is the building block on which the entire economy is based. Without IWB there is no team IWB, no unit innovation, no organisational innovation, no economic sector innovation, and no economic growth.*

It is therefore imperative to focus research and resources on all factors that influence IWBs.

#### **11. New research agenda**

I plan to focus my research on the same outcome variables, namely, OCB, innovation and entrepreneurship, in and outside of organisations. Specifically, I intend to focus on how and why different bundles of HR practices stimulate innovation, and explore the emotional drivers of entrepreneurial potential. On a practical and greater scheme

of things, my research and advocacy will be driven by my desire to incorporate innovation and entrepreneurship in the university curricular, and by so doing, inculcate the culture of innovation and entrepreneurship among graduates. Forging of stronger relationship between the university, industry and government will be high in my agenda, and hopefully, these attempts will help Basotho become an achieving society it was meant to be.

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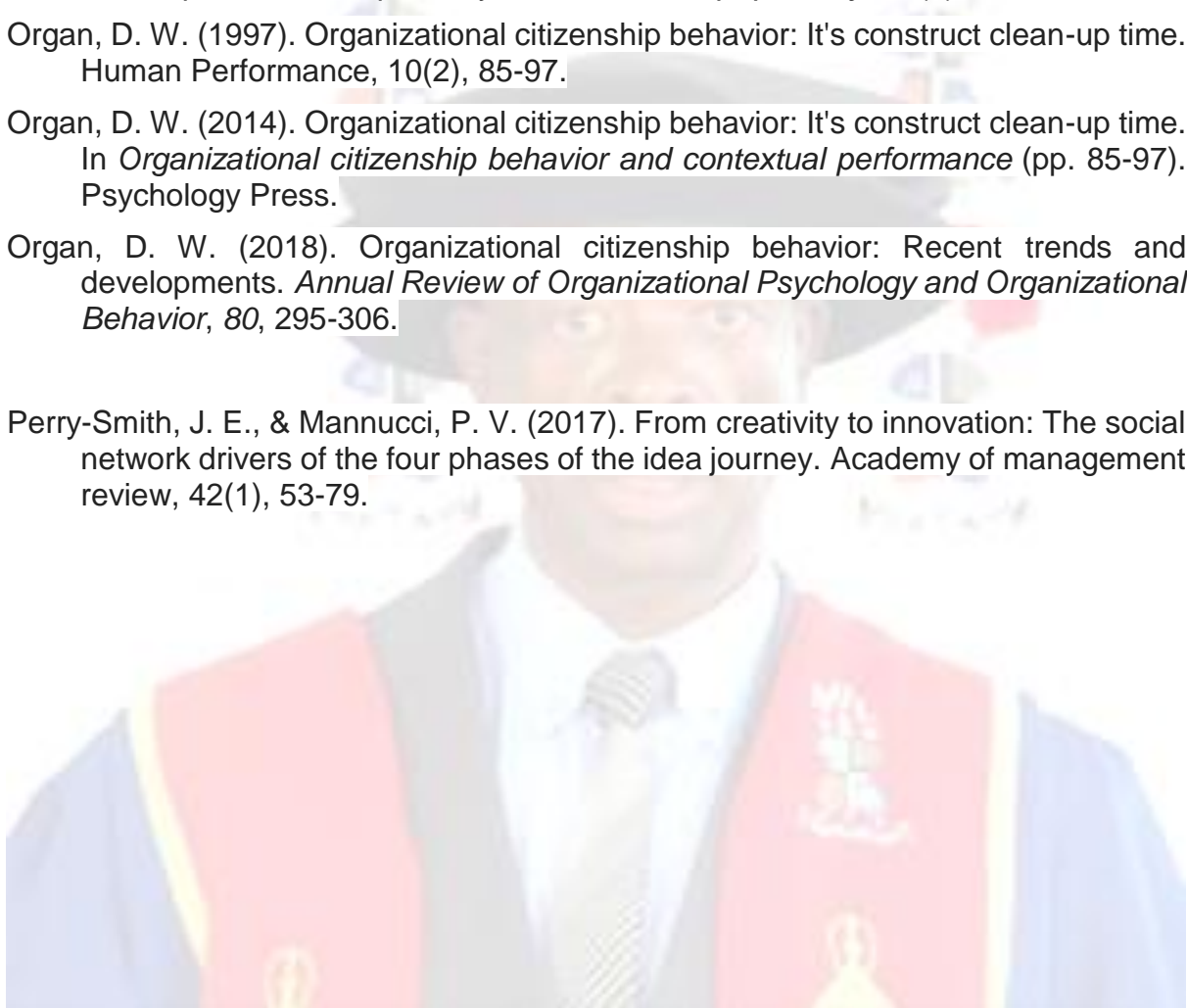


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# National University of Lesotho

6<sup>th</sup> Inaugural Lecture Thursday 30<sup>th</sup> 2025 - ISAS Auditorium

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