Followership styles scrutinized: Temporal consistency and relationships with job attitudes and self-efficacy

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While followership has been repeatedly acknowledged as an important part of leadership, key questions are still awaiting empirical testing. Are followership behaviors rather stable and trait-like as Kelley's (1992) prominent approach suggests or are they dynamic with considerable variation within followers? Do beneficial followership behaviors predict job attitudes as commonly assumed or do follower job attitudes predict beneficial followership behaviors? To answer these and further questions, we test Kelley's (1992) concept of followership styles for the first time in a longitudinal design. Specifically, we use a latent-state trait approach (Geiser, 2020; Steyer et al., 2015) to examine the degree to which followership behaviors (i.e., active engagement [AE] and independent, critical thinking [ICT]) reflect rather stable or rather dynamic behaviors. Furthermore, we examine the relationships of followership behaviors with job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and self-efficacy in latent states cross-lagged models. We first test our hypotheses in a sample of N = 184 employees from eleven German service organizations, which were surveyed twice with a time lag of nine to 12 months. To replicate and extend our findings from Study 1, we conducted Study 2 with a sample of N = 570 participants from a German open-access panel, which were surveyed twice with a time lag of four months. In Study 2, we additionally test leader humility and perceived organizational support (POS) as potential moderators of the relationships between followership and job attitudes. While our findings support Kelley's (1992) conceptualization of followership styles as rather consistent behavior patterns, mixed results were found for the relationships with the other variables. We discuss the theoretical and practical implications of our findings as well as the relevance of time in followership research

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The two studies that we present in our manuscript were preregistered in the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/tf493/?view_only=03c75588fa514565be62adbdc58b24dc and https://osf.io/9q48p/?view_only=b02c98f57f7841129cf6daf42405b410).

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Abstract

While followership has been repeatedly acknowledged as an important part of leadership, key questions are still awaiting empirical testing. Are followership behaviors rather stable and trait-like as Kelley's (1992) prominent approach suggests or are they dynamic with considerable variation within followers? Do beneficial followership behaviors predict job attitudes as commonly assumed or do follower job attitudes predict beneficial followership behaviors? To answer these and further questions, we test Kelley's (1992) concept of followership styles for the first time in a longitudinal design. Specifically, we use a latent-state trait approach (Geiser, 2020; Steyer et al., 2015) to examine the degree to which followership behaviors (i.e., active engagement [AE] and independent, critical thinking [ICT]) reflect rather stable or rather dynamic behaviors. Furthermore, we examine the relationships of followership behaviors with job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and self-efficacy in latent states cross-lagged models. We first test our hypotheses in a sample of $N = 184$ employees from eleven German service organizations, which were surveyed twice with a time lag of nine to 12 months. To replicate and extend our findings from Study 1, we conducted Study 2 with a sample of $N = 570$ participants from a German open-access panel, which were surveyed twice with a time lag of four months. In Study 2, we additionally test leader humility and perceived organizational support (POS) as potential moderators of the relationships between followership and job attitudes. While our findings support Kelley's (1992) conceptualization of followership styles as rather consistent behavior patterns, mixed results were found for the relationships with the other variables. We discuss the theoretical and practical implications of our findings as well as the relevance of time in followership research.

46 *Keywords:* followership, job attitudes, (job satisfaction, organizational commitment), self-
47 efficacy, latent-state trait, cross-lagged panel

Followership Styles Scrutinized: Temporal Consistency and Relationships with Job Attitudes and Self-efficacy

The COVID pandemic challenged both organizations and their members all over the world to adapt to the environment of an unexpected external crisis. A familiar reflex could be: "Crisis cries for great leaders!" This would follow the tradition of a classic leader-centric view, which is still dominant in the field of leadership research and practice (Avolio et al., 2009; Dinh et al., 2014). However, in a situation of permanent uncertainty, relying on the exceptional wisdom of a (few) leader(s) might fall short (see, for instance, Nohria, 2020). Moreover, Andersson (2018) argued that cooperative relationships between leaders and followers facilitate the mobilization of resources, especially in times of crisis. He concluded that followership is an important social resource for organizational resilience (Andersson, 2018). Mirroring this conclusion, the specific roles and contributions of followers in the leadership process (i.e., followership) have gained more attention in recent years (Khan et al., 2019; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In consideration of the current challenges, a better understanding of followership—as an important part of leadership (Baker, 2007; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014)—has become even more relevant.

Although Kelley (1988) provided one of the first theories on the positive role that followers play in the leadership process, some of his assumptions are still awaiting empirical testing. Specifically, Kelley (1992) conceptualized different followership styles as rather stable behavior patterns based on the interaction of the followers' active engagement (AE) in the leadership process and their independent, critical thinking (ICT) toward their leader. The notion of stable followership behaviors was also echoed by subsequent approaches to followership styles, such as Kelley (2008), Khan et al. (2019), or Uhl-Bien et al. (2014). However, prior studies on followership (Blanchard et al., 2009; Gatti et al. 2014; 2017; Ribbat et al., 2021) used

71 cross-sectional designs and thus could not test Kelley's (1992) assumption of stable followership
72 patterns. Indeed, there are various prominent approaches that consider behaviors at work as
73 dynamic and variable (see, for instance, Beal et al., 2005; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).
74 Therefore, followership behavior could also depend on situational factors such as followers'
75 mood or the current environment in which they work (Benson et al., 2015; Weiss & Cropanzano,
76 1996).

77 Furthermore, followership approaches stress the role of followers by considering
78 followership as an important independent variable in leadership research instead of considering it
79 as the dependent variable (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018). Thus, according to
80 followership theory (Kelley, 1988, 1992; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014), followership behavior should be
81 a major predictor for followership outcomes (e.g., individual follower outcomes such as job
82 satisfaction or organizational commitment). On the individual follower level, prior research in
83 fact demonstrated that AE and ICT correlate with job attitudes such as job satisfaction and
84 organizational commitment (Blanchard et al., 2009; Gatti et al., 2014; Ribbat et al., 2021). In
85 contrast to followership approaches (Uhl-Bien et al. 2014; Uhl-Bien & Carsten, 2018), the
86 literature on job attitudes and job performance (e.g., Riketta, 2008), however, suggests that job
87 attitudes precede follower behavior. Since prior research (Blanchard et al., 2009; Gatti et al.,
88 2014; Ribbat et al., 2021) cannot provide insights into the direction of relationships due to their
89 cross-sectional designs, the direction of the relationship between followership and job attitudes is
90 still unclear.

91 In the current research, we conducted two studies to test the temporal consistency of
92 Kelley's (1992) followership behaviors in a longitudinal design, along with their relations to
93 critical job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and self-efficacy for

the first time. Specifically, Study 1 proposes and empirically tests both the construct stability of followership behaviors and the cross-lagged relationships between followership, job attitudes, and self-efficacy based on Followership Theory (Kelley, 1992; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014), Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957; Harmon-Jones & Mills, 2019), and Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997). In Study 2, we again tested the same research questions, but used a substantially larger sample (N = 184 in Study 1 vs. N = 570 in Study 2) and a shorter time lag. In addition, we draw from Organizational Support Theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) to test two potential new moderator variables that were not part of Study 1 (i.e., leader humility and perceived organizational support [POS]).

Thus, our studies extend current research in several ways. First, we explore whether followership behavior can be characterized as rather stable or trait-like behavior patterns as proposed by Kelley (1992). This is important because Kelley's (1992) conception of styles suggests that followership should be conceptualized as rather trait-like behavioral tendencies that are related to rather stable personal characteristics and/or general circumstances. A state-like nature of followership behavior, however, would necessarily shift the focus of future research from general and typical factors to more specific, situational, and contingent factors as followership would then rather be spontaneous, dynamic, or variable. Second, we examine whether followership behaviors are antecedents of job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) as conceptualized by Kelley (1992) and/or vice versa in multistate models (Geiser, 2020; Prenoveau, 2016). These relationships have been investigated only in cross-sectional studies and, therefore, prior research could not yet provide a rigorous test of the direction of these relationships (see Byun et al., 2018; Ribbat et al., 2021). Third, we explore the link of AE and ICT with self-efficacy, an important variable in the organizational context that

has, however, not been studied thus far. Finally, we consider leader humility and POS as moderators. Hence, we also explore two potential new conditions under which the relationships of followership with job attitudes might be fostered. In this way, we contribute to a better understanding of the followership construct, the leadership process, and potential followership outcomes.

Followership

Followership behavior is defined as "behaviors of individuals acting in relation to a leader(s)" (Carsten et al., 2010, p. 545). In our study, we refer to the followership concept by Kelley (1992) that describes followership styles based on the interaction of the followers' active engagement (AE) in the leadership process and their independent, critical thinking (ICT) towards their leader. According to Kelley (1992), the best followers are those who participate actively in the leadership process and take initiative. At the same time, they independently think for themselves and provide constructive criticism for their leader and group. By contrast, the worst followers do not independently think for themselves, simply take directions, and do not challenge their leader and group. Moreover, they are passive, lazy, and require constant supervision. Kelley (1992) proposes that the different combinations of AE and ICT result in five styles of followership behavior, which he describes as "passive" (i.e., low in both dimensions), "conformist" (i.e., high in AE, but low in ICT), "alienated" (i.e., low in AE, but high in ICT), "exemplary" (i.e., high in both dimensions), and "pragmatist" (i.e., with medium levels in both dimensions). The exemplary followership style is considered as most effective and most valuable to the organization (Kelley, 1988; 1992).

In our current study, we will examine whether followership behavior can be characterized as rather stable behavior patterns as proposed by Kelley (1992). To do so, we apply a latent state-

trait approach (Geiser, 2020; Steyer et al., 2015). This approach can provide answers to the question of whether measurement instruments assess more trait-like or more state-like attributes. Specifically, a latent state-trait approach quantifies to which degree observed and/or underlying latent state (τ) variables reflect trait effects that indicate consistency (i.e., coefficient Con_{τ}; see Geiser, 2020) or situation effects/person by situation interaction effects that indicate occasion specificity (i.e., coefficient Osp_{τ}; see Geiser, 2020). Measures can be considered as trait-like, when more than 50% of their true state variance is due to trait effects (Geiser, 2020; Steyer et al., 1999). In accordance with Kelley's (1992) conceptualization of followership styles as rather stable (i.e., trait-like) behavior patterns we predict:

Hypothesis 1: (a) AE and (b) ICT will have a higher proportion of state variance at each time point that is due to trait effects (i.e., $Con[\tau_{t1,t2}] > .50$) than state residual variance (i.e., $Osp[\tau_{t1,t2}] < .50$).[1]

Followership and Job Attitudes

Again, in accordance with Kelley's conceptualization, we posit that followership behavior will be related to important job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment). Job satisfaction is defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (Locke, 1976, p. 1304). Organizational commitment "(a) characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization, and (b) has implications for the decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67).

Empirical evidence suggests a positive relationship of AE with job satisfaction (e.g., Blanchard et al., 2009; Ribbat et al., 2021). With regard to ICT, several studies found no significant relationship of ICT with job satisfaction (Gatti et al., 2014; Gatti et al., 2017; Ribbat

[1] This study was preregistered on the Open Science Framework.

et al., 2021). Blanchard et al. (2009) even reported that ICT was negatively associated with job satisfaction. Their results further suggest that the interaction of AE and ICT increases intrinsic job satisfaction (i.e., satisfaction with job aspects that are task-related such as responsibility) but decreases extrinsic job satisfaction (i.e., satisfaction with job aspects that are unrelated to the task such as the supervisor; Blanchard et al., 2009). Specifically, followers with high AE and high ICT had the highest levels of intrinsic job satisfaction. The more followers engaged in ICT, the lower was their extrinsic job satisfaction, while this effect was weaker when followers were also actively engaged (Blanchard et al., 2009). The findings of Favara (2009) and Saraih et al. (2018) also showed a positive relation of an exemplary followership style (i.e., high scores both on AE and ICT) with job satisfaction. Furthermore, two studies (Blanchard et al., 2009; Ribbat et al. 2021) showed that AE was positively associated with organizational commitment, whereas ICT was negatively related to organizational commitment.

To derive our first set of hypotheses we apply Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957; Harmon-Jones & Mills, 2019). According to Cognitive Dissonance Theory, employees tend to harmonize conflicting cognitions (e.g., attitudes and behaviors). We follow the effort justification tenet of Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Aronson & Mills, 1959; Harmon-Jones et al., 2018), which refers to the strategy of adding consonant cognitions to dissolve experienced dissonance when undertaking demanding or exhausting activities and achieving outcomes that may not be satisfying. Thus, we expect followers to value their job and their organization more to justify the considerable effort they spend on engaging actively in the leadership process (see also Blanchard et al., 2009; Ribbat et al., 2021). Hence, their earlier active engagement (at t1) is expected to increase their later job attitudes (at t2). This reasoning is in line with the dominant

185 view that AE antecedes followers' job attitudes (Blanchard et al., 2009; Gatti et al., 2014; Ribbat
186 et al., 2021). Thus, we predict:

187 *Hypothesis 2: AE at t1 will be positively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b)*
188 *organizational commitment at t2.*

189 Despite the effort that has also to be expended on independent, critical thinking, we expect
190 that ICT at t1 exerts a negative influence on attitudinal variables at t2, because it increases the
191 followers' awareness of the problems and negative aspects of their job (see also Blanchard et al.,
192 2009; Ribbat et al., 2021). Therefore, we hypothesize:

193 *Hypothesis 3: ICT at t1 will be negatively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b)*
194 *organizational commitment at t2.*

195 Besides effort justification, another strategy to avoid cognitive dissonance according to
196 Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger 1957; Harmon-Jones & Mills, 2019) would be to bring
197 behaviors in line with one's attitudes. That is, attitudes can guide and facilitate behavior. This
198 notion suggests that job attitudes can cause later job behaviors (Hinojosa et al., 2017; Riketta,
199 2008). Therefore, we expect satisfied and committed followers to actively engage in the
200 leadership process. We state:

201 *Hypothesis 4: (a) Job satisfaction at t1 and (b) organizational commitment at t1 will be*
202 *positively related to AE at t2.*

203 However, we do not expect satisfied and committed followers to question the leader and
204 the organization frequently. Since satisfaction and commitment are pleasurable and positive
205 emotional states (Locke, 1976; Meyer & Allen, 1991), there should be no incentive for the
206 followers to create conflicting cognitions and risk psychological discomfort (Festinger 1957;
207 Harmon-Jones & Mills, 2019). Thus, satisfied and committed followers might avoid becoming

aware of negative aspects of their job through ICT in order to prevent cognitive dissonance. Hence, we predict that job attitudes at t1 will be negatively related to ICT at t2.

Hypothesis 5: (a) Job satisfaction at t1 and (b) organizational commitment at t1 will be negatively related to ICT at t2.

Additionally, we argue that the effort justification mechanism (cf. Hypothesis 2) is stronger than the "attitudes as guidelines" mechanism (cf. Hypotheses 4 and 5), because followership styles, which are conceptualized as relatively stable or trait-like behavior patterns (Kelley, 1992; see also our Hypothesis 1), should be more difficult to change than job attitudes. Therefore, we expect stronger relations of AE and ICT at t1 with the attitudinal variables at t2 due to effort justification than the opposite relations between attitudes (at t1) and AE and ICT (at t2). Thus, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6: The relationships of AE at t1 with (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 is stronger as compared to the relationships of (a) job satisfaction at t1 and (b) organizational commitment at t1 with AE at t2.

Hypothesis 7: The relationships of ICT at t1 with (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 is stronger as compared to the relationships of (a) job satisfaction at t1 and (b) organizational commitment at t1 with ICT at t2.

Since Kelley's (1992) typology of followership styles also refers to the interaction of both followership dimensions (i.e., AE and ICT), we also investigate this interaction. Continuing the argumentation above, the less followers engage actively in the leadership process, the more should the negative influence of ICT on job attitudes prevail over effort justification. However, independent, critical followers might also use active engagement to change undesired working conditions and, thus, they should become more satisfied and committed. Therefore, following the

logic of both Cognitive Dissonance Theory (Festinger, 1957) and Kelley's (1992) conceptualization, we predict:

Hypothesis 8: ICT at t1 will be less negatively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 when AE at t1 is high as compared to when AE at t1 is low.

Followership and Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is defined as "people's judgements of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986, p. 391). Prior meta-analyses (Sadri & Robertson, 1993; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) demonstrated that self-efficacy is positively related to work-related behaviors (e.g., changes in career tracks or intentions to show assertiveness) and job performance. However, the relation of this important individual-level construct with followership behavior has not been tested so far. Therefore, we will investigate this relationship in our study.

According to Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997), self-efficacy emerges from four sources: (1) physiological and affective states, (2) verbal persuasion, (3) vicarious experience, and (4) mastery experience. Mastery experience is considered to have the strongest impact on the development of self-efficacy, because it provides authentic evidence for one's capability to succeed, and, thus, builds a robust belief in one's personal efficacy (Bandura, 1997). When followers simply take directions, there is no evidence for the followers' own capability to succeed, because success fully depends on the leader's decisions. Active and critical followership, however, allow for evaluating the followers' own contributions to leadership success (e.g., followers' high individual or collective job performance) and, thus, raises the awareness for mastery experiences. Therefore, we expect that the followers' self-efficacy substantially results from ascribing (at least parts of) the leadership success to own efforts when

carrying out an active and independent follower role. Hence, we expect that both AE at t1 and ICT at t1 are positively associated with self-efficacy at t2, which is also in line with the dominant view of followership research (Kelley, 1992; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) that followership should be a major predictor for followership outcomes:

Hypothesis 9: (a) AE at t1 and (b) ICT at t1 will be positively related to self-efficacy at t2.

Paralleling our above hypotheses on job attitudes, the relationship of ICT (at t1) with self-efficacy (at t2) might depend on the level of AE. While it may be obvious to ascribe leadership success to own efforts when active engagement is high, the contribution of ICT to leadership success might not always be apparent. This should, for instance, be the case when a follower expresses concerns about the leader's direction and consequently does not (strongly) contribute to goal attainment. When active engagement is high, however, ICT could be considered as an additional contribution to leadership success and therefore raise even more awareness for mastery experiences than the active engagement alone. Thus, we predict:

Hypothesis 10: ICT at t1 will be more positively related to self-efficacy at t2 when AE at t1 is high than when AE at t1 is low.

Furthermore, according to Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997), self-efficacy is also considered to be a predictor for one's choices of activities, effort expenditure, persistence, thought patterns, and emotional reactions when confronted with obstacles (Lent et al., 1994). Followers with high self-efficacy should therefore be more likely to actively engage in the leadership process and rather be willing to act independently and critically. Thus, we predict:

Hypothesis 11: Self-efficacy at t1 will be positively associated with (a) AE at t2 and (b) ICT at t2.

Study 1

Materials and Methods

This study was preregistered at the Open Science Framework (https://osf.io/tf493/?view_only=03c75588fa514565be62adbdc58b24dc). Following Simmons et al. (2012), we report and explain in detail (a) how we determined our sample size, (b) all exclusions, and (c) all independent and dependent variables (see also Simmons et al., 2012).

Sample

The variables that we investigated in this study were part of a more comprehensive data set, which had been collected for the German Federal Institute for Occupational Safety and Health between 2017 and 2018 (https://www.baua.de/EN/Tasks/Research/Research-projects/f2372.html). Employees and their supervisors from eleven German service organizations were surveyed twice with an online questionnaire. Participants gave their consent for participation within the questionnaire by checking the associated box.[2] In this study, we only used data from the employees' surveys. The time lag between the two measurement waves (i.e., t1 and t2) was between nine and 12 months. Persons responsible for human resources in the participating organizations invited various teams to complete the survey via e-mail. Therefore, we have no information about the exact number of employees that were invited to the survey. The first measurement wave was answered by 551 employee responses. For the second wave, employees who were originally invited had again the opportunity to participate, regardless of whether they had participated in the first wave. The second measurement wave was answered by

[2] Our research is in line with the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and the Psychologists Code of Conduct of the American Psychological Association. Please note that correlational studies are exempt from institutional review in Germany (see also Sonnentag et al., 2022). As prescribed by the German Medicines Laws (AMG, MPDG) and the associated EU regulations (CTR 536/2014, MDR 2017/745), institutional ethical approval is mandatory if research involves drug or medical device testing, or if physicians participate. Our studies do not meet any of those criteria. However, we obtained retrospective ethical approval of the University of Münster for Study 2 (approval number 2022-65-ChN). For Study 1, the data had been collected by the German Federal Institute for Occupational Safety and Health in a very similar way as Study 2.

349 employees in total. For 187 employees (or 34% of the original population), we could match the questionnaires of both time points.[3]

Following our preregistration, some participants were excluded from the data set because of responding in a careless manner. Following the procedures recommended by Meade and Craig (2012), three outlier cases were identified by computing the Mahalanobis Distance over all items. Moreover, for five persons, the followership values were recoded as missing values either for t1 or t2 due to zero-within-variance in responses. The final sample consisted of 184 employees. The respondents were mainly employed within the public service sector (76%). Another 17% worked within the finance service sector (banking or insurance). A small proportion (7%) was employed in other service organizations (i.e., health services or information technology services). The mean age was 43.5 years and 67% of the respondents were female, 33% were male. The level of education was distributed as follows: 43% had a completed apprenticeship, 40% had a university of applied science degree, and 17% had a university degree.

Measures

Both dimensions of followership behavior (i.e., AE and ICT) were measured using the German version of Kelley's (1992) Followership Questionnaire by Ribbat et al. (2021). An exemplary item for AE was "Do you understand the leader's needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?". The ICT subscale, for instance, included the item "Do you assert

[3] One reason for the relatively high drop-out could be that we had to rely on third persons (i.e., organizational multipliers) to recruit the respondents within the organizations. Furthermore, we did not pay participants for each response. Another reason could be that the matching process was realized via a self-chosen code. The need for retaining the self-chosen code over nine to 12 months might have resulted in mistakes in some cases. Hence, there might be more respondents that completed both questionnaires, which, however, could not be matched via the personal code. However, the resulting sample of participants for which the questionnaire could be matched for both time points is comparable to the original sample at time point one in terms of their mean age, gender distribution, level of education, and professional sector distribution. Furthermore, the drop-out rate is comparable to studies with a similar approach to data collection (see, for instance, Rayton & Yalabik, 2014; Tims et al., 2015).

your views on important issues, even though it might mean conflict with your group or reprisals from the leader?". Possible responses ranged from *1 ([almost] never*) to *7 ([almost] always*).

Job satisfaction was measured with six items of the "Copenhagen Psychosocial Questionnaire" (Nübling et al., 2005). The respondents were asked to rate their satisfaction with their colleagues, leadership, challenges of work, use of abilities, career perspective, and job satisfaction overall. The response options ranged from *very dissatisfied (1)* to *very satisfied (7)*.

Organizational commitment was measured with three items of the scale from Mowday et al. (1979) in the German Version by Maier and Woschée (2002). A sample item was "I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for". Response options ranged from *strongly disagree (1)* to *fully agree (7)*. Finally, we measured self-efficacy using the scale by Rigotti et al. (2008). A sample item was "I feel up to most of the job demands". Response options ranged from *not correct at all (1)* to *applies completely (7)*.

Data Analysis Strategy

We applied a latent state-trait approach (Geiser, 2020; Steyer et al., 2015). This approach allows for differentiating trait effects from situation/person situation interaction effects (Steyer et al., 1999; Steyer et al., 2015). Specifically, we applied single-trait multi-state models with indicator-specific residual factors (STMS-IS; see Geiser, 2020) for both followership dimensions (i.e., AE and ICT). The single-trait multi-state model (STMS) refers to the test of a single trait (i.e., AE or ICT) in multiple situations (i.e., t1 and t2). The indicator-specific residual factors account for indicator specific effects of latent variables (Eid et al., 1999; Geiser, 2020). This is important, because the simple STMS model would assume perfect homogeneity of the indicators for the latent variable that are measured at the same time point (Geiser, 2020). However, this was not a realistic assumption, as both AE and ICT measures were not perfectly consistent (see Table

338 1). Thus, the STMS-IS model was more appropriate to test the consistency of the followership
339 measures, as it reflects potential method effects of indicator heterogeneity. The model fit was
340 evaluated using the resulting chi-square values, the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
341 (RMSEA), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual
342 (SRMR). The following cut-off values were considered to indicate a good model fit (West et al.,
343 2012): $\chi 2/df < 5$, RMSEA < .06, CFI > .95, and SRMR < .08.

344 In order to test the hypotheses on the interrelations of followership with the other study
345 variables, we applied latent autoregressive/cross-lagged states models (LACS; see Geiser, 2020).
346 Latent states cross-lagged models are longitudinal models that allow for testing relationships of
347 latent state variables over multiple states (i.e., t1 and t2) in both directions in the same model,
348 while correcting for random measurement error. By controlling for the autoregressive effects of
349 the variables (i.e., the autoprediction of the dependent variables), LACS models additionally take
350 into account that in social science previous states are usually strong predictors for future states of
351 the same variable (Adachi & Willoughby, 2015; Geiser, 2020). We also considered potential
352 method effects of indicator heterogeneity and applied models with indicator-specific residual
353 factors (Eid et al., 1999; Geiser, 2020). For the models that tested the interaction effects of AE
354 and ICT, we also controlled for the autoregressive effects of job attitudes and self-efficacy, and
355 applied indicator-specific residual factors. We used one-tailed tests of significance for the
356 regression coefficients, since we had directed hypotheses (Cho & Abe, 2013; Jones, 1952;
357 Lakens, 2016).

358 As our measures of internal consistency, we used a reliability indicator based on factor
359 models and report coefficient omega (ω; McDonald, 1978). We report the omega subscale (ω_s)
360 for multidimensional constructs (i.e., for each followership dimension) as described by

Rodriguez et al. (2016). We used Watkins' (2013) standalone program to compute the omega subscale (ω_s). Every other analysis was computed with MPlus 7.4 (Muthén & Muthén, 2015).

Pre-analyses

Construct Validity. In our study, we analyzed four latent variables including five latent factors at two measurement times: followership behavior with its two dimensions AE and ICT, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and self-efficacy. In order to ensure the distinctiveness of our study variables, we compared our five-factor measurement model to an alternative four-factor model that specified both job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) as one common factor. Chi square difference tests revealed that our measurement model fitted the data better than the alternative model both at t1, χ^2diff(3) = 96.43, $p < .001$, and at t2, χ^2diff(3) = 111.98, $p < .001$. Hence, our analyses indicate the distinctiveness of our study variables.

Note, however, that we allowed the residual correlation between the two items "Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organization's priority goals?" and "Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?" in the followership model ($r = .71$, $p < .001$ for t1; $r = .52$, $p < .001$ for t2). In their validation study for the German version of Kelley's (1992) followership questionnaire, Ribbat et al. (2021) argued for this model specification as the latter item was formulated with a direct reference to the former. In addition, the two concerned items reflect the efforts to achieve overarching organizational goals and thus share a plausible commonality (Ribbat et al., 2021). In our study, allowing the respective error term correlation led to better model fit both at t1, $\chi^2_{diff}(1) = 119.43$, $p < .001$, and at t2, $\chi^2_{diff}(1) = 46.47$, $p < .001$.

Measurement Equivalence Across Time. Before testing the hypotheses, we tested for measurement equivalence across time to follow a common standard for our analyses: „ME is a prerequisite for meaningful across-time comparisons […] Without measurement equivalence, differences in latent state factor means or variances across occasions may be due to changes in measurement (observed variable) properties rather than true changes in latent variables" (Geiser, 2020, pp. 122-123). Following Geiser (2020), we consecutively tested measurement equivalence models that differ by the level of measurement equivalence (i.e., various parameter equality constraints) for every latent variable. First, we tested for configural invariance that specified the same number of factors and the same factor loading pattern across time. Second, we also constrained the factor loadings to remain the same for a given observed variable in addition to configural invariance (weak invariance). Subsequently, we tested for strong invariance (strong measurement equivalence), which additionally set the intercepts to remain the same across time for a given observed variable. Finally, the strict invariance model (strict measurement equivalence) additionally determined the measurement error variance to remain the same across time for a given variable. Researchers typically aim for at least strong measurement equivalence, because it allows for meaningful comparisons of latent variable means and variances across time (Meredith, 1993; Widaman & Grimm, 2014).

The fit of the various measurement equivalence models is presented in the Supplemental Material 1 (SM1). In our model comparisons, strong measurement equivalence was preferred for AE and strict measurement equivalence was preferred for ICT. Thus, for AE and ICT at least strong measurement equivalence could be assumed. This was also the case for the other latent variables: Strong measurement equivalence was preferred for organizational commitment and

self-efficacy. For job satisfaction, the strict model was the best fitting model. Hence, we used these models in further analyses.

Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics, the intercorrelations of the latent variables and the reliabilities of the measures. For ICT at t2, $\omega_s = .69$ was slightly below the commonly used minimum value (Dunn et al., 2014; Kline, 1998). However, we addressed this problem by specifying latent state-trait models with indicator-specific residuals (Eid et al., 1999; Geiser, 2020; see also above).

Temporal Consistency of Followership Behavior

To test Hypothesis 1, we used a STMS-IS model, which fitted the data well, $\chi^2(df) = 207.53(141)$, $p < .001$, $\chi 2/df = 1.47$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .96, SRMR = .06. The results revealed that AE was rather stable and trait-like over time as indicated by consistencies exceeding the commonly applied 50% threshold for both AE at time 1 ($Con[\tau_{AE,t1}] = .78$, $p < .001$,) and AE at time 2 ($Con[\tau_{AE,t2}] = .74$, $p < .001$) as compared to the coefficients that indicate occasion specificity ($Osp[\tau_{AE,t1}] = .22$, $p = .001$, $Osp[\tau_{AE,t2}] = .26$, $p < .001$). Hence, our results suggest that AE was consistent across time and rather trait-like, which supported Hypothesis 1a.

The results of the STMS-IS model for ICT revealed $Con[\tau_{ICT,t1}] = .59$, $p < .001$, $Con[\tau_{ICT,t2}] = .82$, $p < .001$, $Osp[\tau_{ICT,t1}] = .41$, $p < .001$, and $Osp[\tau_{ICT,t2}] = .18$, $p < .001$. The model fit was good: $\chi^2(df) = 35.89(24)$, $p = .06$, $\chi 2/df = 1.50$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .96, SRMR = .08. Thus, ICT, was consistent across time and rather trait like. Hence, Hypothesis 1b was also supported.

Followership and Job Attitudes

The first cross-lagged model explored the relationship of AE with job satisfaction. Both autoregressive paths were significant (for AE: $\beta = .75$, $p < .001$; for job satisfaction: $\beta = .71$, $p < .001$). The relationship of AE (at t1) with job satisfaction (at t2) was not significant, $\beta = -.08$, $p = .12$, thereby not supporting Hypothesis 2. However, job satisfaction (at t1) was positively related to AE (at t2), $\beta = .13$, $p = .02$, thereby supporting Hypothesis 4a. The model explained 60% of the variance in AE and 49% of the variance in job satisfaction and the model fit was good: $\chi^2(df) = 524.84(371)$, $p < .001$, $\chi 2/df = 1.42$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .95, SRMR = .06.

The second cross-lagged model included AE and organizational commitment. Both autoregressive paths were significant (for AE: $\beta = .74$, $p < .001$; for organizational commitment: $\beta = .87$, $p < .001$). The relationship of AE (at t1) with organizational commitment (at t2) was not significant, $\beta = .02$, $p = .39$, which does not support Hypothesis 2. However, organizational commitment (at t1) was positively related to AE (at t2), $\beta = .11$, $p = .049$, thereby supporting Hypothesis 4b. The model explained 59% of the variance in AE and 75% of the variance in organizational commitment and the model fit was good: $\chi^2(df) = 325.76(236)$, $p < .001$, $\chi 2/df = 1.38$, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .96, SRMR = .05.

The relationship of ICT with job satisfaction was explored in the third cross-lagged model. While we had predicted this relationship to be negative, our results rather pointed in a positive direction. Thus, we applied a two-tailed test for this model. We, therefore, could neither find a significant relation of job satisfaction (at t1) to ICT (at t2), $\beta = .16$, $p = .08$, nor between ICT (at t1) and job satisfaction (at t2), $\beta = .09$, $p = .21$. These results do not support Hypotheses 3a and 5a. Both autoregressive paths were significant (for ICT: $\beta = .74$, $p < .001$; for job satisfaction: $\beta = .71$, $p < .001$). The model explained 53% of the variance in ICT and 50% of the variance in job

satisfaction and the model fit was again good: χ^2(df) = 201.37(146), p = .002, $\chi 2/df$ = 1.38, RMSEA = .05, CFI = .97, SRMR = .06.

The fourth cross-lagged model explored the relationship of ICT with organizational commitment. Again, we applied a two-tailed test for the model, because our results pointed in another direction than we had expected. Both autoregressive paths were significant (for ICT: β = .72, p < .001; for organizational commitment: β = .86, p < .001). No significant relationship of ICT (at t1) with organizational commitment (at t2) could be found, β = .06, p = .41. Organizational commitment (at t1) was also not related to ICT (at t2), β = .17, p = .07. These results do not support Hypotheses 3b and 5b. The model explained 55% of the variance in ICT and 75% of the variance in organizational commitment and the model fit was good: χ^2(df) = 80.71(65), p = .09, $\chi 2/df$ = 1.24, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .98, SRMR = .06.

In Hypotheses 6 and 7, we proposed the relationships of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) with job attitudes (at 2) to be stronger than those of job attitudes (at t1) with AE (at t2) and ICT (at t2). Both hypotheses were not supported by our results, because we found no significant relationship of AE or ICT (at t1) with any job attitude (at t2). Furthermore, in Hypothesis 8 we posited ICT (at t1) to be less negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (at t2) when AE (at t1) was high, as compared to when AE (at t1) was low. In our analysis, the interaction of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) was not a significant predictor for job satisfaction (at t2), β = -.10, p = .14. However, the interaction (at t1) predicted organizational commitment (at t2), β = .14, p = .04, while controlling for the autoregressive effect of organizational commitment (at t1), β = .86, p < .001. The interaction effect is plotted in Figure 1. Overall, the model explained 78% of the variance. Since the interaction of AE and ICT (at t1) was associated with a higher score in organizational commitment, Hypothesis 8b was supported.

Followership and Self-Efficacy

We explored the relationship of AE and ICT with self-efficacy in different cross-lagged models. In addition, we tested whether the interaction of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) could predict self-efficacy (at t2). We could not find a significant relationship of AE (at t1) with self-efficacy (at t2), β = -.02, p = .37, nor did ICT (at t1) predict self-efficacy (at t2), β = -.09, p = .11. Hence, Hypothesis 9 was not supported. The interaction of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) did also not predict self-efficacy (at t2), β = .01, p = .47. Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported. Finally, we found no evidence for Hypothesis 11, as no significant relationship of self-efficacy (at t1) and AE (at t2) was detected, β = .07, p = .15, and as self-efficacy (at t1) did also not predict ICT (at t2), β = .08, p = .19.

Brief Discussion

Overall, we found evidence for some, but not for all of our hypotheses. The results of Study 1 support Kelley's (1992) assumption that followership behaviors are rather stable behavior patterns. Since we found no evidence for the relationships of AE or ICT (at t1) and later job attitudes or self-efficacy (at t2), our results of Study 1 challenge the original idea of followership theory, that followership behaviors are significant predictors for important organizational variables (see, for instance, Kelley, 1992; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). However, the interaction of AE and ICT (at t1) was positively related to organizational commitment (at t2). One reason for the absence of the expected effects could be the length of the time lag between the two measurement waves (nine to 12 months). That is, some effects might have simply vanished over time and thus could not be detected. This would be the case, for instance, if the respondents' leader changed between the two measurement waves.

Another reason could be that we did not include conditions under which the relationships of followership with job attitudes might be fostered in our first study. Kelley (1988) argued that active and critical followers are the most effective and, thus, active and critical behaviors should be positively related to followership outcomes. However, he also admitted that an exemplary followership style might not always be the preferred style of a certain leader or organization. Therefore, exemplary followership might not always be acknowledged or rewarded. The missing acknowledgement of the followers' efforts of engaging actively and critically in the leadership process could explain why followership behavior does not necessarily increase the follower's job satisfaction.

Since our results have considerable implications both scientifically and practically, we conducted a second study to once again test our hypotheses and check whether the results of Study 1 are robust with a bigger sample size and, thus, more statistical power. In addition, we include potential moderator variables to test whether leader-related or organizational variables that may facilitate or even reward exemplary followership can foster the relationship of followership with job attitudes.

Study 2

Compared to Study 1, we made the following changes in Study 2: In addition to the variables that were considered in Study 1, we also tested two moderator variables that were not part of Study 2 (i.e., leader humility and perceived organizational support, see below). Thus, Study 2 went beyond a mere replication of Study 1 and examined two potential new conditions under which the relationships of followership with job attitudes may be fostered. Finally, we used a shorter time-lag than in Study 1 and assessed whether the followers' direct leader (i.e., the

person they referred to when responding to the followership questionnaire) had changed between t1 and t2 to rule out potential shortcomings of our initial study design.

Followership, Leader Humility, and Perceived Organizational Support

We argue that leader humility is likely to moderate the proposed relationships between followership and job attitudes. Leader humility comprises leaders' willingness to view oneself accurately, teachability, and the appreciation of the followers' strengths and contributions (Chiu et al., 2016; Owens et al., 2013). Specifically, Kelley (1992) suggests that both actively engaged and independent, critical followers are most valuable for leaders and for organizations. However, he admits that not every leader or organization might actually appreciate active and/or critical followership (Kelley, 1988). Thus, positive relationships of followership behavior with job satisfaction and organizational commitment is likely to depend on leaders' teachability and leaders' appreciation of "exemplary followership" as a valuable resource. That is, followership can only unfold its positive effect on followers' job attitudes when leaders' are willing to learn from followers and appreciate their contributions. Therefore, we expect that high leader's humility facilitates the relationship between followership (at t1) and job attitudes (at t2). Thus, we predict:

Hypothesis 12: AE at t1 will be more positively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 when the leader's humility at t1 is high, as compared to when leader humility at t1 is low.

Hypothesis 13: ICT at t1 will be less negatively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 when the leader's humility at t1 is high, as compared to when leader humility at t1 is low.

In addition to leader humility, we expect that perceived organizational support (POS) moderates the relationship of followership behaviors and job attitudes. This is generally consistent with notions from Organizational Support Theory according to which "employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, p. 698). Organizational Support Theory (Eisenberger et al., 1986) assumes that the caring, approval, and respect connoted by POS strengthen the employees' beliefs that the organization recognizes and rewards increased performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Meta-analytic results by Kurtessis et al. (2017) suggest that POS is an important link between favorable treatment by the organization and employees' positive orientation toward the organization, psychological well-being, and performance. For example, they report positive relationships of POS with employees' performance–reward expectancy, commitment, and job satisfaction (Kurtessis et al., 2017). In line with the general predictions of Organizational Support Theory and these meta-analytical results, the interaction of the efforts of carrying out an active and independent follower role and its acknowledgement through POS (at t1) should also be positively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (at t2). Thus, we predict:

Hypothesis 14: AE at t1 will be more positively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 when POS at t1 is high, as compared to when POS at t1 is low.

Hypothesis 15: ICT at t1 will be less negatively related to (a) job satisfaction at t2 and (b) organizational commitment at t2 when POS at t1 is high, as compared to when POS at t1 is low.

In addition, we will also investigate as a research question whether the simultaneous occurrence of leader humility and POS (at t1) will strengthen the relationships between

561 followership behaviors (at t1) and job attitudes (at t2), since the acknowledgement of "exemplary
562 followership" might be even more present for the follower, when both the leader and the
563 organization accordingly consider active and critical followership a valuable resource.

564 **Materials and Methods**

565 We again conducted a two-wave survey. In contrast to the time lag between the two
566 measurement waves in Study 1 (i.e., nine to 12 months), we realized a time lag of four months
567 for Study 2. With a shorter time lag, we intended to rule out possible shortcomings of Study 1:
568 Some effects might have simply disappeared over time and thus could not be detected. This
569 would be the case, for instance, if the respondents' leader changed between the two surveys.
570 Since there were no other longitudinal studies that studied followership behaviors when we
571 planned our study, we drew from the meta-analysis on relationships between performance and
572 job attitudes by Riketta (2008) to obtain information about suitable time lags. On that basis, we
573 considered four months to be a reasonable time lag to detect effects on attitudinal variables in the
574 context of work. This study was preregistered at the Open Science Framework
575 (https://osf.io/9q48p/?view_only=b02c98f57f7841129cf6daf42405b410).

576 ***Sample***

577 We conducted an anonymous online survey via the German "WiSoPanel", an online-
578 access-panel based on voluntary registration (Göritz, 2014). All eligible users were invited to
579 participate in 2021 and 2022. We included only employees with a direct superior to ensure
580 credible responses concerning followership behaviors in organizations. Participants gave their
581 consent for participation within the questionnaire by checking the associated box.[4] At t1, 777
582 respondents completed the questionnaire. However, two cases were excluded because of the

[4] Our research is in line with the ethical principles of the Declaration of Helsinki and the Psychologists Code of Conduct of the American Psychological Association. We obtained ethical approval of the University of Münster for Study 2 (approval number 2022-65-ChN).

583 respondents' statement not to use the data. Thus, 775 respondents of t1 were invited to
584 participate again at t2. At t2, 628 respondents completed the questionnaire (response rate 81%),
585 while three cases were excluded due to the respondents' statement not to use the data. Following
586 our preregistration, we additionally tried to detect careless responses by following the procedures
587 recommended by Meade and Craig (2012). We tested for zero-within-variance in responses and
588 defined the values in question as missing values. For t1 data, 70 cases were affected regarding
589 leader humility, 28 cases were affected regarding followership, 46 cases were affected regarding
590 job satisfaction and self-efficacy, and 41 cases were affected regarding POS and organizational
591 commitment. For t2 data, 69 cases were affected regarding leader humility, 25 cases were
592 affected regarding followership, 33 cases were affected regarding job satisfaction and self-
593 efficacy, and 39 cases were affected regarding POS and organizational commitment.
594 Furthermore, we computed Mahalanobis Distance overall items and excluded 55 cases that were
595 detected as outliers.

596 The final sample consisted of 570 employees. The mean age was 49.1 years and 55% of
597 the respondents were female, 45% were male. The level of education was distributed as follows:
598 1% had no professional qualification, 42% had a completed apprenticeship, 22% had a university
599 of applied science degree, and 35% had a university degree, and 1% had another degree that was
600 not specified in the questionnaire. Nearly a third (34%) of the respondents worked in the public
601 service sector, 5% worked in the finance service sector (banking or insurance), and 61% worked
602 in another sector (i.e., for instance, other professional services or industry sector). Hence, in
603 Study 2, we tested our hypotheses in a more heterogeneous sample than in Study 1.[5]

[5] Note that we preregistered our data collection with the intention to generate a sample that was comparable to the sample of Study 1. Since the panel was not successful in providing the desired highly comparable distribution for the sectors, we had to use the resulting, more heterogeneous sample for Study 2.

Measures

We used the exact same measures that were used in Study 1 for followership, job attitudes and self-efficacy. Additionally, we measured leader humility with the "Expressed Humility Scale" of Owens et al. (2013) as adapted for the leadership context by Chiu et al. (2016). A sample item was "My supervisor shows appreciation for the unique contributions of others". Response options ranged from *strongly disagree (1)* to *fully agree (7)*. Following Bracken and Barona (1991), this scale was translated into German and back-translated into the original language (English) by another organizational psychology expert without prior knowledge of the questionnaire. Finally, this back-translation was compared to the original version by a native speaker. POS was be measured by Eisenberger et al. (2001) in the German translation by Klasmeier and Rowold (2020). A sample item was "The organization values my contributions to its well-being". Response options ranged from *strongly disagree (1)* to *fully agree (7)*.

Data Analysis Strategy

We applied the same statistical analyses that we used in our initial study. In order to investigate the construct stability of followership behavior, a latent state-trait analysis (Geiser, 2020; Steyer et al., 1999) was conducted. Furthermore, we again applied LACS models (see Geiser, 2020) to test the hypotheses on the interrelations of followership with the other study variables. For the models that tested the interaction effects of AE and ICT, we again controlled for the autoregressive effects of job attitudes and self-efficacy.

Pre-analyses

Construct Validity. In order to ensure the distinctiveness of our study variables, we applied Chi square difference tests to test whether our measurement model fitted the data better than two alternative models both at t1 and t2. In the first alternative model, we specified both job

attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) as one common factor. Our model fitted the data better than the alternative model both at t1, χ^2diff(5) = 347.902, $p < .001$, and t2, χ^2diff(5) = 290.357, $p < .001$. In the other alternative model, we specified both organization-related variables (i.e., organizational commitment and POS) as one common factor. Again our model fitted the data better at t1, χ^2diff(5) = 186.424, $p < .001$, and t2, χ^2diff(5) = 165.31, $p < .001$. Hence, our analyses indicate the distinctiveness of our study variables.

Measurement Equivalence Across Time. Before testing the hypotheses, we again tested for measurement equivalence across time. According to the tests of measurement equivalence, the strict model was preferred for AE, ICT, job satisfaction, organizational commitment. The strong model was preferred for self-efficacy. Hence, all constructs that were used for longitudinal analysis showed at least strong measurement equivalence (see SM1 for more details).

Results

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics, the intercorrelations of the latent variables and the reliabilities of the measures of Study 2.

Temporal Consistency of Followership Behavior

The results of Study 2 again revealed that AE was rather stable and trait-like over time as indicated by consistencies exceeding the commonly applied 50% threshold for both AE at time 1 (Con[$\tau_{AE,t1}$] = .73, $p < .001$,) and AE at time 2 (Con[$\tau_{AE,t2}$] = .80, $p < .001$) as compared to the coefficients that indicate occasion specificity (Osp[$\tau_{AE,t1}$] = .27, $p < .001$; Osp[$\tau_{AE,t2}$] = .20, $p < .001$). The model fitted the data well, χ^2(df) = 277.90(151), $p < .001$, $\chi 2/df$ = 1.84, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .98, SRMR = .04. Hence, our results suggest that AE was consistent across time and rather trait-like, which supported Hypothesis 1a.

The results of the model for ICT revealed Con[$\tau_{ICT,t1}$] = .58, p < .001, Con[$\tau_{ICT,t2}$] = .63, p < .001, Osp[$\tau_{ICT,t1}$] = .42, p < .001, and Osp[$\tau_{ICT,t2}$] = .37, p < .001. The model fit was good: χ^2(df) = 36.25(24), p = .05, $\chi 2/df$ = 1.51, RMSEA = .03, CFI = .99, SRMR = .04. Therefore, ICT was consistent across time and rather trait like. Hence, Hypothesis 1b was also supported.

Followership and Job Attitudes

In the first cross-lagged model, the relationship of AE with job satisfaction was explored. Both autoregressive paths were significant (for AE: β = .80, p < .001; for job satisfaction: β = .67, p < .001). The relationship of job satisfaction (at t1) with AE (at t2) was not significant, β = -.03, p = .26, thereby not supporting Hypothesis 4a in Study 2. However, AE (at t1) was positively related to job satisfaction (at t2), β = .09, p = .02, thereby supporting Hypothesis 2 in Study 2. The model explained 59% of the variance in AE and 52% of the variance in job satisfaction and the model fit was good: χ^2(df) = 634.05(381), p < .001, $\chi 2/df$ = 1.66, RMSEA = .03, CFI = .98, SRMR = .04. We received similar results when controlled for a potential change of the reference leader since t1 in addition to the autoregressive paths. Results were then β = .08, p = .04, for the relationship between AE (at t1) and job satisfaction (at t2), and β = -.03, p = .26, for the opposite path.

The relationship of AE and organizational commitment was explored in the second cross-lagged model. Both autoregressive paths were significant (for AE: β = .75, p < .001; for organizational commitment: β = .86, p < .001). The relationship of AE (at t1) with organizational commitment (at t2) was not significant, β = -.05, p = .12, thereby not supporting Hypothesis 2b. Organizational commitment (at t1) was positively related to AE (at t2), β = .08, p = .02, thereby supporting Hypothesis 4b. The model explained 60% of the variance in AE and 72% of the variance in organizational commitment and the model fit was good: χ^2(df) = 432.59(249), p <

673 .001, $\chi 2/df = 1.74$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .98, SRMR = .04. We again received similar results
674 when we additionally controlled for a potential leader change (for the relationship between AE
675 (at t1) and organizational commitment (at t2): $\beta = -.04$, $p = .13$; for the opposite path: $\beta = .08$, $p =$
676 .02).

677 The third cross-lagged model explored the relationship of ICT with job satisfaction. Both
678 autoregressive paths were significant (for ICT: $\beta = .61$, $p < .001$; for job satisfaction: $\beta = .72$, $p <$
679 .001). We could neither find a significant relation of job satisfaction (at t1) to ICT (at t2), $\beta = .03$,
680 $p = .23$, nor between ICT (at t1) and job satisfaction (at t2), $\beta = .01$, $p = .43$. Hence, these results
681 do not support Hypotheses 3a and 5a. The model explained 38% of the variance in ICT and 52%
682 of the variance in job satisfaction and the model fit was again good: $\chi^2(df) = 196.28(146)$, $p =$
683 .004, $\chi 2/df = 1.34$, RMSEA = .03, CFI = .99, SRMR = .03.

684 The forth cross-lagged model included ICT and organizational commitment. Both
685 autoregressive paths were significant (for ICT: $\beta = .62$, $p < .001$; for organizational commitment:
686 $\beta = .84$, $p < .001$). No significant relationship of ICT (at t1) with organizational commitment (at
687 t2) could be found, $\beta = -.03$, $p = .18$. Organizational commitment (at t1) was also not related to
688 ICT (at t2), $\beta = .02$, $p = .34$. These results do not support Hypotheses 3b and 5b. The model
689 explained 39% of the variance in ICT and 72% of the variance in organizational commitment
690 and the model fit was good: $\chi^2(df) = 134.32(68)$, $p < .001$, $\chi 2/df = 1.98$, RMSEA = .04, CFI =
691 .98, SRMR = .04.

692 In Hypotheses 6 and 7, we proposed the relationships of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) with job
693 attitudes (at 2) to be stronger than those of job attitudes (at t1) with AE (at t2) and ICT (at t2).[6]
694 While we found a significant relationship for AE (at t1) and job satisfaction (at t2) but not for the

[6] Note that we did not preregister Hypotheses 6 and 7 for Study 2, because our results of Study 1 pointed in the opposite direction than we had expected. However, we obtained different results in Study 2. Hence, we tested all of our hypotheses again in Study 2.

opposite path, the results of Study 2 support Hypothesis 6a. However, we could not find significant relationships between AE (at t1) and organizational commitment (at t2) or of ICT (at t1) with any job attitude. Therefore, Hypothesis 6b and Hypothesis 7 were not supported. Furthermore, in Hypothesis 8 we posited ICT (at t1) to be less negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (at t2) when AE (at t1) was high, as compared to when AE (at t1) was low. In Study 2, the interaction of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) was not a significant predictor for organizational commitment (at t2), $\beta = .01$, $p = .37$. In addition, the interaction (at t1) did not predict job satisfaction (at t2), $\beta = .01$, $p = .36$. Thus, Hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Followership and Self-Efficacy

We also explored the relationship of AE and ICT with self-efficacy in different cross-lagged models. The first cross-lagged model included AE and self-efficacy. We could not find a significant relationship of AE (at t1) with self-efficacy (at t2), $\beta = -.07$, $p = .09$, nor did self-efficacy (at t2) predict AE (at t1), $\beta = -.03$, $p = .55$. Note, however, that we applied a two-tailed test for significance in this model, since the regression coefficient pointed in a different direction than we had expected. Hence, Hypotheses 9a and 11a were not supported. The autoregressive paths were significant (for AE: $\beta = .78$, $p < .001$; for self-efficacy: $\beta = .83$, $p < .001$). The model explained 61% of the variance in AE and 64% of the variance in self-efficacy with a good model fit: $\chi^2(df) = 628.73(375)$, $p < .001$, $\chi 2/df = 1.68$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .98, SRMR = .04.

The relationship of ICT and self-efficacy was explored in another cross-lagged model. The autoregressive paths were again significant (for ICT: $\beta = .59$, $p < .001$; for self-efficacy: $\beta = .85$, $p < .001$). We could not find a significant relationship between self-efficacy (at t1) with ICT (at t2), $\beta = .05$, $p = .34$, which does not support Hypothesis 11b. However, ICT (at t1) was

718 negatively related to self-efficacy (at t2), β = -.12, p = .004. We again applied a two-tailed test
719 for this model, since we had predicted this relationship to be positive. Hence, Hypothesis 9a was
720 also not supported. The model explained 39% of the variance in ICT and 63% of the variance in
721 self-efficacy with a good model fit: χ^2(df) = 211.12(140), p < .001, $\chi 2/df$ = 1.51, RMSEA = .03,
722 CFI = .99, SRMR = .03. We received similar results when we additionally controlled for a
723 potential leader change (for the relationship between ICT (at t1) and self-efficacy (at t2): β = -
724 .12, p = .004; for the opposite path, β = .05, p = .34).
725 In addition, we tested whether the interaction of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) could predict
726 self-efficacy (at t2). The interaction of AE (at t1) and ICT (at t1) did not predict self-efficacy (at
727 t2), β = .05, p = .12. Thus, Hypothesis 10 was not supported.
728 ***Followership, Leader Humility and POS***
729 In Study 2, we tested whether leader humility or POS could be mechanisms that foster the
730 relationships of AE or ICT with job attitudes. The interaction of AE and leader humility (at t1)
731 did not predict job satisfaction (at t2), β = .00, p = .46, and it did not predict organizational
732 commitment (at t2), β = -.02, p = .31. Hence Hypothesis 12 was not supported. The interaction of
733 ICT and leader humility (at t1) did neither predict job satisfaction (at t2), β = .01, p = .43, nor
734 organizational commitment (at t2), β = .03, p = .22. Thus, Hypothesis 13 was not supported.
735 Furthermore, we could neither find a significant relationship of the interaction of AE and POS (at
736 t1) with job satisfaction (at t2), β = .05, p = .08, nor with organizational commitment (at t2), β =
737 .03, p = .17. The interaction of ICT and POS (at t1) could neither predict job satisfaction (at t2),
738 β = -.03, p = .20, nor organizational commitment (at t2), β = -.02, p = .24. Therefore, Hypotheses
739 14 and 15 were not supported. Finally, a three-way interaction of AE, leader humility and POS
740 (at t1) could not predict job satisfaction (at t2), β = -.01, p = .43, nor organizational commitment

(at t2), $\beta = .03$, $p = .08$. A three-way interaction of ICT, leader humility and POS did neither predict job satisfaction (at t2), $\beta = .04$, $p = .07$, nor organizational commitment (at t2), $\beta = .01$, $p = .35$.[7]

Discussion

The results of both of our studies support Kelley's (1992) assumption that followership behaviors are rather stable behavior patterns. We found significant relations of job attitudes with active, engaged followership behavior in the cross-lagged models, above and beyond the autoregressive effects in both studies. We also found significant relations of AE (at t1) with job satisfaction (at t2) and of ICT (at t1) with self-efficacy (at t2) in Study 2. The interaction of AE and ICT (at t1), however, predicted organizational commitment (at t2) only in Study 1.

Although the regression coefficients ($.08 \leq \beta \geq .14$) can be described as rather small (Cohen, 1988), the identified effects indicate important findings for three reasons. First, cross-lagged effects are generally hard to find. That is, autoregressive effects are often strong and therefore explain much of the variance by themselves (Adachi & Willoughby, 2015; Geiser, 2020). Hence, there is often little variance left to be explained by the cross-lagged effects. Second, since our results demonstrate that followership styles are rather stable behavior patterns, predicting change in followership behavior is even more noteworthy. Third, the reported effect sizes are indeed in a typical range as compared to similar studies with cross-lagged models (see, for instance, Riketta, 2008; Sonnentag et al., 2010). However, across both studies, we found mixed results regarding our hypotheses. We will elaborate on these findings below.

[7] Note that Mplus did not provide standardized coefficients for the three-way interaction models. Thus, for these models, we report unstandardized coefficients.

761 **Theoretical Implications**

762 Our studies contribute to a better understanding of followership (Kelley, 1992) and its
763 outcomes (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). To go beyond prior research, we tested Kelley's (1992)
764 followership behaviors longitudinally, and explored their relationships to critical job attitudes
765 (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and self-efficacy as potential predictors
766 and consequences. Our findings support Kelley's (1992) assumption that followership styles
767 (i.e., AE and ICT) are rather stable behavior patterns. This is an important finding, because a
768 more state-like nature of followership behavior would necessarily shift the focus of future
769 research from general and stable factors to more specific, situational, and contingent factors as
770 followership would then rather be spontaneous, dynamic, or variable. For instance, the common
771 perspective on leadership styles (see Anderson & Sun, 2017; Bass & Avolio, 1995) as consistent
772 behavior patterns of leaders have been challenged most recently. An increasing number of
773 authors argue for considering leader behaviors as more dynamic (see, for instance, Kelemen et
774 al., 2020; McClean et al., 2019). In contrast, our findings suggest that an opposite perspective is
775 adequate for followership styles. It is noteworthy and plausible, however, that ICT is less stable
776 or trait-like than AE, a finding that we consistently observed across our studies. Speaking up in
777 front of the leader can be a risky behavior for followers, particularly when it is done in
778 challenging rather than supportive ways (Burris, 2012). Thus, followers probably consider their
779 concerns carefully before they actually express them to the leader (Bashur & Oc, 2015; Detert et
780 al., 2013). Consequently, they might hold back their contrary view, when they feel that their
781 concern is less important, but they rather have the courage to speak up in situations where they
782 perceive urgency. Therefore, it is plausible that potentially risky critical followership is more
783 dependent on the evaluation of the urgency and appropriateness of a specific situation than the

willingness to support the leader through active engagement. Still, even if followership behaviors cannot be seen as fully invariable personality traits, both AE and ICT are more trait-like than state-like according to our findings.

With regard to the relationships of AE and ICT with critical job attitudes (i.e., job satisfaction and organizational commitment) and self-efficacy, we obtained mixed results. In Study 1, we did not find significant relationships of AE or ICT (at t1) with job attitudes (at t2) that we had predicted. Furthermore, we did not detect any significant relation of followership with self-efficacy. In contrast, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (at t1) were positively related to AE (at t2). In Study 2, we obtained similar results with three exceptions. First, in Study 2, we did not find a relationship of job satisfaction (at t1) with AE (at t2), but AE (at t1) predicted later job satisfaction (at t2). Second, ICT (at t1) was negatively related to self-efficacy (at t2) in Study 2, although we had predicted a positive relation. This relationship was not significant in Study 1. Third, our results of Study 1 suggest that high levels of both AE and ICT (i.e., an exemplary followership style, see Kelley, 1992) lead to higher organizational commitment, thereby supporting Kelley's (1992) assumption that high levels of both AE and ICT imply desirable organizational behaviors. However, we could not detect this interaction effect in Study 2.

Thus, while some of our results indicate that followership behaviors can predict later job attitudes or self-efficacy, most of our results either point in the opposite direction or indicate no significant relationships at all. Those results challenge the original idea of followership theory (Kelley, 1992; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) that followership behaviors are significant predictors for organizational variables. However, our studies do provide at least a few hints for the potential of

followership behaviors as predictors for job attitudes and self-efficacy. In sum, our findings raise important questions for future followership research.

First, the mixed findings across our two studies suggest that future research needs to elaborate on time lags in longitudinal research. An increasing number of authors calls for the appropriate inclusion of time aspects both in research designs and in theory, which has been neglected in leadership and organizational research for a long time (see Fischer et al., 2017; Griep & Zacher, 2021; Griep et al., 2021; Shamir, 2011). In Study 1, we used data from a preexisting, more comprehensive data set that had a time lag of nine to 12 months. Since there are some comparable studies that used shorter time lags to detect interrelations of job attitudes and behaviors (for an overview, see, for instance, Riketta, 2008), we used a shorter time lag (i.e., four months) in Study 2. We indeed found two relationships of followership behaviors (at t1) with later job satisfaction and self-efficacy (at t2) that we did not detect in Study 1. These findings suggest that followership behaviors might affect job attitudes or self-efficacy in the short-term rather than in the long-term. Hence, our findings correspond to the analysis of leadership research by Fischer et al. (2017) in two points: Fischer et al. (2017) concluded that effects at the team- or individual level unfold rather quickly, while they do not last very long. Furthermore, they stated that effects on behaviors typically take longer to unfold and persist longer than do effects on cognitions or emotions (Fischer et al., 2017). Still, we need more information on the role that time plays both in followership and leadership research to develop theory further and to better understand the nature of the studied effects (Castillo & Trinh, 2017; Griep et al., 2021). We, therefore, highly recommend future research to consider different time lags in order to learn in which time frames the effects of followership behaviors occur and when they potentially decline. In our two studies, we could demonstrate that followership behaviors

829 are relatively stable, thereby supporting Kelley's (1992) conceptions of rather consistent
830 followership styles. Hence, our findings can guide future followership research, since "the
831 temporal stability of variables and the stability of effects on these variables are criteria for
832 deciding on repeated-measures designs" (Fischer et al., 2017, p. 1740).

833 Second, we encourage future research to explore potential mechanisms that might appear
834 to be the missing links for the relationships we could not detect in our studies. Benson et al.
835 (2015), for instance, suggest that the situational context affects how leaders see followership
836 behaviors. That is, attempts to influence a leader's decisions in front of others might not be
837 appreciated by the leader. However, while this might be obvious for independent and critical
838 behavior, we would still expect the leader to acknowledge the follower's support through active
839 engagement. Hoption (2016), for instance, demonstrated that the followers' provision of help to
840 leaders corresponds to greater leader relationship satisfaction. Thus, it is somewhat surprising
841 that we could find a positive relation of AE (at t1) with job satisfaction (at t2) only in Study 2,
842 and no positive relation of AE (at t1) with organizational commitment (at t2) in both of our
843 studies. Future research should, therefore, explore potential moderator and mediator variables
844 that might uncover the most detrimental and beneficial conditions for positive followership
845 outcomes. We suggest that the leaders' preferences and reactions to certain followership styles
846 should be a good starting point to detect the missing links between active and critical
847 followership and followership outcomes. We firstly tested leader humility, which was not
848 confirmed as a moderator in our study despite our prediction. However, Shen and Abe (2022),
849 for instance, found an indirect effect of followership behaviors on job performance through
850 perceived supervisor support.

Third, in view of our mixed results, future research should pay attention to different organizational cultures or shared values of followers and leaders. Blair and Bligh (2018), for instance, argue that values and norms focused on hierarchy and control limit active follower beliefs in shared responsibility for leadership. The findings of Carsten et al. (2010) echo this argument by suggesting that followers' ability to take initiative is diminished by strong bureaucracy. While our sample in Study 1 consisted of mostly public employees, we tested our hypotheses in Study 2 again in a much more heterogeneous sample. In public organizations, hierarchical leadership and work organization are still prevalent, whereas we would assume a wider range of organizational cultures in the more heterogeneous sample. Hence, our results are consistent with the assumption that positive effects of followership behavior might depend on the organizational culture or shared values of followers and leaders. We did not explicitly test for hierarchic culture in our analyses. Instead, we expected POS to strengthen the employees' beliefs that the organization recognizes and rewards increased performance (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002) and thereby foster the relationships between active and critical followership with job attitudes. The corresponding hypotheses, however, were not supported by our data. Hence, future research should further explore which organizational environments affect followership behaviors and its potential outcomes.

Fourth, we explored the relationship of followership with self-efficacy for the first time. In our hypotheses, we postulated that the followers' self-efficacy substantially results from ascribing (at least parts of) the leadership success to own efforts when carrying out an active and independent follower role as they experience mastery in this way. According to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997), mastery experience is considered to have the strongest impact on the development of self-efficacy. We could only detect a negative relation of ICT (at t1) with later

self-efficacy (at t2) in Study 2, although we had predicted a positive relation. One reason could be again that ICT was not appreciated by the leaders. The followers' efforts to contribute independently then might had been not successful and, thus, they were experienced as a personal failure rather than personal mastery. In addition, we did not detect any significant relationship of self-efficacy (at t1) with later followership behaviors (at t2), which might result from strong autoregressive paths or inconvenient time-lags. Future research should further investigate whether followership can predict self-efficacy or vice versa with different time-lags. Thereby, research should also clarify whether or under which circumstances exemplary followership implies mastery experience and to which extent social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) is applicable to followership research.

Practical Implications

Our findings provide interesting information for followers, leaders, and organizations. We could demonstrate that followership behaviors are relatively stable behavior patterns, even though it is possible that they change under certain circumstances. Thus, Kelley's (1992) "Identify Your Followership Style Questionnaire" indeed allows for assessing one`s own general behavioral tendencies and preferences regarding the interaction with the leader. Hence, our findings support Kelley's (1992) conceptual idea of followership styles in this respect.

For followers, this is an important finding, because knowing one's own style allows for reflecting on how the style might fit or not with the leader and/or organization. This is important, because many studies have demonstrated that person-organization-fit, for example, increases satisfaction and reduces the employee's intention to leave the organization (Verquer et al., 2003; Jin et al., 2018). Furthermore, person–supervisor fit is associated with greater leader satisfaction and with a better relationship between leader and follower (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005; Marstand

et al., 2016). For leaders, the assessment of the followers' individual styles may help to understand why followers tend to behave in certain ways. This, in turn, can facilitate an adequate handling of leader-follower-interactions.

For organizations, recognizing followership styles as rather stable behavioral patterns can help to improve the effective composition of teams or inspire development programs for followership styles that are needed or preferred within the organization. An increasing number of authors calls for such development programs (see, for instance, Bufalino, 2018; Hoption, 2014; Logan & Ganster, 2007). While complementing effective leadership training with followership development programs (Bufalino, 2018; Hoption, 2014) might be a useful approach to foster desired followership behaviors, our findings suggest that it might not be sufficient to simply call for active and/or critical followership to obtain positive organizational outcomes. According to our study, satisfied and committed followers are more likely to participate actively in the leadership process. Thus, our findings at least indirectly point to satisfactory working conditions and appropriate organizational goals as beneficial settings for active followership.

Following Andersson's (2018) argumentation that followership is an important social resource for organizational resilience, organizations might care about developing desired followership to successfully meet future challenges that could emerge from a pandemic or from other far-reaching developments like, for instance, technological change, disruptive innovation, or climate change. Consequently, followers, leaders, and organizations should reflect on what styles of followership they want to have or show, and which styles they need. Kelley's (1992) operationalization of followership behaviors (i.e., AE and ICT) can be a useful tool to learn about the way followers actually carry out their follower role. Still, there is more research needed

to better understand the impact that different followership styles can have both on the individual and on the organizational level.

Limitations

There are several limitations to this study. First, we used only self-report data, which implies certain risks of common-method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We addressed related problems by using a time-lagged design. However, future research could complement the evaluations of the followers with their leader's perceptions to further decrease such risks (for related recommendations, see also Gatti et al., 2014; Ribbat et al., 2021). In addition, including the leader's view allows for the integration of the leader's evaluation of certain followership styles in the followership models. Considering the leader's preference or reactions to certain followership styles, for instance, might lead to the detection of the boundary conditions of the emergence of desirable outcomes within the leadership dyads. We investigated leader humility and POS as potential moderators in one of our studies that were, however, not significant.

Second, we used data from different samples that had been collected within different time-lags. We used data from a preexisting more comprehensive data set that had a time lag of nine to 12 months in our first study. Since we assumed that a positive impact of followership may have vanished by this time and since there are some comparable studies that used shorter time lags to detect interrelations of job attitudes and behaviors (for an overview, see, for instance, Riketta, 2008), we used a shorter time-lag (i.e., four months) in our second study. While our findings suggest that followership behaviors affect job attitudes and self-efficacy rather short-term than long-term, change in relatively stable followership behaviors might unfold rather slowly. However, several relationships that we had hypothesized were neither significant in Study 1 nor in Study 2. While our studies still can be an orientation for designing time-lags for followership

research, we recommend future research to consider different time lags in order to learn in which time frames the effects of followership behaviors occur and when they potentially decline. Furthermore, future studies could include more than two time points for a more comprehensive understanding of the longitudinal relationships.

Finally, the sample of our first study consisted of employees that were employed within 11 organization from the service sector. The sample of our second study was a heterogeneous convenience sample from an online respondent pool. Hence, we cannot claim generalizability of our findings, even if several findings were consistent across both of our studies. Future research should, however, further investigate followership behavior in various samples and different sectors to study the generalizability of the impact of active and critical followership. We also recommend future research to further investigate the impact of specific organizational environments. We could not find evidence for all of the expected relationships of followership behaviors with certain followership outcomes. Especially in our first study, neither AE nor ICT predicted later job attitudes or self-efficacy. While the different time lags could be one reason for that, another reason could be the predominant hierarchical culture in the organizations participating in our first study that might be characterized by a low acceptance of active and especially critical followership within the organizations. Future studies could test for organizational factors such as a hierarchical organizational culture explicitly.

Conclusion

Our study contributes to a better understanding of the followership construct and its relations to important job-related variables (i.e., job attitudes and self-efficacy). Active engagement and independent critical thinking were both found to be stable and rather consistent followership behavior patterns across two different samples and within two different time-lags.

Furthermore, we could detect positive relationships between followership behaviors, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and a negative relationship between independent, critical thinking and self-efficacy above and beyond the autoregressive effects. However, across the two studies, we obtained mixed results for several relationships that we had predicted. While some of our hypotheses were only supported in one of the two studies, other relationships that we had predicted were neither significant in Study 1 nor Study 2. Hence, more research is necessary to explore potential mechanisms (including time) that link followership with relevant outcomes. Still, our studies open up promising avenues for future research and provide starting points for its conceptual designs (i.e., for instance, with regard to the treatment of followership behaviors as rather consistent behavior patterns or the definition of appropriate time-lags for longitudinal followership research).

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Tables

Table 1. Descriptives, intercorrelations between latent variables, and internal consistencies of Study 1.

Table 2. Descriptives, intercorrelations between latent variables, and internal consistencies of Study 2.

Figures

Figure 1. Interaction Effect of AE (t1) and ICT (t1) on Organizational Commitment (t2).

Supplemental Material

Supplemental Material 1 (SM1). Testing For Measurement Equivalence.

Table 1(on next page)

Descriptives, intercorrelations between latent variables, and internal consistencies of Study 1

Note. N = 184. AE = Active engagement; ICT = Independent, critical thinking; Values along the diagonal represent internal consistency ('ω or "ωs). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 1

Descriptives, intercorrelations between latent variables, and internal consistencies of Study 1

Model	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Followership: AE (t1)	5.18	0.87	*.96''*									
2. Followership: ICT (t1)	4.62	1.00	.41***	*.75''*								
3. Job satisfaction (t1)	5.03	1.14	.20*	-.11	*.86'*							
4. Organizational commitment (t1)	5.34	1.18	.27**	-.05	.56***	*.78'*						
5. Self-efficacy (t1)	5.27	0.95	.58***	.31***	.20*	.31***	*.87'*					
6. Followership: AE (t2)	5.16	0.88	.80***	.24*	.33***	.32***	.52***	*.98''*				
7. Followership: ICT (t2)	4.79	0.91	.32**	.86***	.08	.16	.36***	.41***	*.69''*			
8. Job satisfaction (t2)	5.96	1.12	.05	.01	.72***	.41***	.12	.17*	.04	*.88'*		
9. Organizational commitment (t2)	5.20	1.25	.27**	.03	.45***	.96***	.34***	.32***	.26*	.39***	*.75'*	
10. Self-efficacy (t2)	5.27	0.89	.45***	.18	.16*	.31***	.81***	.58***	.34***	.16	.31***	*.86'*

Note. $N = 184$. AE = Active engagement; ICT = Independent, critical thinking; Values along the diagonal represent internal consistency ('ω or "ωs).

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2(on next page)

Descriptives, intercorrelations between latent variables, and internal consistencies of Study 2

Note. N = 570. AE = Active engagement; ICT = Independent, critical thinking; Values along the diagonal represent internal consistency ('ω or "ωs). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 2

Descriptives, intercorrelations between latent variables, and internal consistencies of Study 2

Model	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Followership: AE (t1)	5.10	1.07	*.99''*													
2. Followership: ICT (t1)	4.61	1.08	.54***	*.84''*												
3. Job satisfaction (t1)	5.02	1.21	.54***	.22***	*.91'*											
4. Organizational commitment (t1)	4.79	1.45	.46***	.08	.73***	*.80'*										
5. Self-efficacy (t1)	5.31	1.11	.71***	.57***	.61***	.38***	*.93'*									
6. Perceived organizational support (t1)	4.34	1.37	.45***	.16**	.70***	.84***	.44***	*.95'*								
7. Leader humility (t1)	4.70	1.42	.49***	.19***	.66***	.59***	.38***	.60***	*.91'*							
8. Followership: AE (t2)	5.08	1.01	.80***	.30***	.41***	.41***	.58***	.40***	.38***	*.99''*						
9. Followership: ICT (t2)	4.68	1.05	.50***	.69***	.17**	.13*	.44***	.18***	.12*	.61***	*.85''*					
10. Job satisfaction (t2)	5.09	1.16	.47***	.15**	.77***	.64***	.53***	.58***	.55***	.54***	.31***	*.90'*				
11. Organizational commitment (t2)	4.73	1.42	.42***	.04	.63***	.92***	.34***	.72***	.56***	.49***	.23***	.77***	*.79'*			
12. Self-efficacy (t2)	5.34	1.12	.56***	.35***	.45***	.32***	.81***	.33***	.27***	.69***	.54***	.60***	.40***	*.93'*		
13. Perceived organizational support (t2)	4.31	1.34	.37***	.15**	.58***	.72***	.35***	.79***	.56***	.45***	.26***	.72***	.85***	.38***	*.95'*	
14. Leader humility (t2)	4.65	1.41	.43***	.09	.53***	.54***	.32***	.51***	.75***	.48***	.23***	.68***	.63***	.31***	.63***	*.92'*

Note. $N = 570$. AE = Active engagement; ICT = Independent, critical thinking; Values along the diagonal represent internal consistency ('ω or "ωs).

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

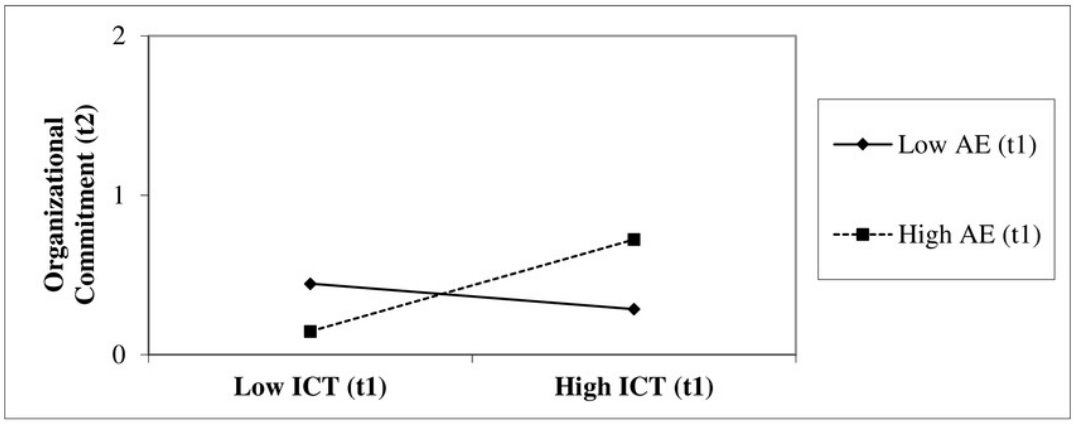
Figure 1

Interaction Effect of AE (t1) and ICT (t1) on Organizational Commitment (t2)

AE = Active Engagement; ICT = Independent, Critical Thinking

Figure 1

Interaction Effect of AE (t1) and ICT (t1) on Organizational Commitment (t2)



Note. AE = Active Engagement; ICT = Independent, Critical Thinking