

INTRODUCING A MODEL OF TRANSFORMATIONAL PROSOCIAL LEADERSHIP

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Transformational leadership is one of the most dominant and debated leadership theories in the last three decades. The current article introduces the concept of prosocial transformational leadership and distinguishes it from charismatic-transformational leadership and transactional leadership. A review of the literature is made examining the three leadership styles (transactional, charismatic-transformational, and prosocial transformational), and relating them to some organizational constructs such as motivation, followership, communication, decision-making style, job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, and organizational culture. As a result of the analysis, theoretical models presenting the relationships of the different leadership styles with the organizational constructs are built. The models show that, depending on the style of leadership, organizational culture is developed differently, and it seems that the prosocial transformational model can contribute to building more individual and collective capacity. Prosocial transformational leadership develops a new insight of transformational leadership and, at the same time, has a lot in common with other kinds of leadership (e.g., positive leadership, authentic leadership, or transcendent leadership) and can contribute to the integration of similar leadership theories.

For the past 30 years, leadership theory and research have grown steadily (Dinh et al., 2014; Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Coglisier, 2010; Lowe & Gardner, 2000). New perspectives on leadership developed throughout these decades, resulting in a prolifer-

ation of leadership theories, some of them very similar to one another and leading to claims to integrate leadership conceptualizations (Antonakis & Day, 2018).

During these three decades, one of the most dominant leadership theories has been the transformational-

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transactional leadership theory, developed by Bass and colleagues (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990), and usually known as transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was first defined as an improvement of transactional forms of leadership (Burns, 1978), although transformational leaders surpass transactional leaders because they appeal to followers' higher order needs and motives (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978), and they raise the level of behaviors and ethical aspirations of leaders and followers while transforming them both (Burns, 1978).

Nevertheless, after decades of research devoted to defining transformational leadership, ambiguity remains (Banks, McCauley, Gardner, & Guler, 2016) and some researchers expressed concerns regarding the whole leadership theory (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013) or some parts of it (Bryman, 2004; Day, 2000; Gronn, 2000; Northouse, 2007; Tourish, 2008, 2013; Yukl, 1999). The theory has been adapted and modified over the years (Bass & Riggio, 2006), without ever shedding the visionary and heroic façade that has surrounded it from the start.

Consequently, the objective of the current article was to address the criticism received by transformational leadership for being too charismatic by proposing an extension of transformational leadership that is more prosocial and altruistic. Prosocial transformational leadership tries to expand some aspects of the transformational leadership theory and, at the same time, tries to integrate other leadership theories that share similar characteristics with the one proposed in the research.

The second type of transformational leadership responds to the need, detected by some academics, to distinguish different styles of leadership within the transformational leadership. These researchers designated the second style of leadership with different names such as prosocial, contributory, human-oriented, altruistic, or transcendental (Cardona, 2000; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper, & Oostenveld, 2010; Ewest, 2018; Grant, 2008, 2013; Osterloh & Frey, 2003; Pérez López, 1993; Sison, 2008). As used in the current article, the construct "prosocial transformational leadership" refers to the second type of transformational leadership, in which the leader optimizes human talents and energies for the good of all (Crossan, Vera, & Nanjad, 2008), and places its qualities for the service

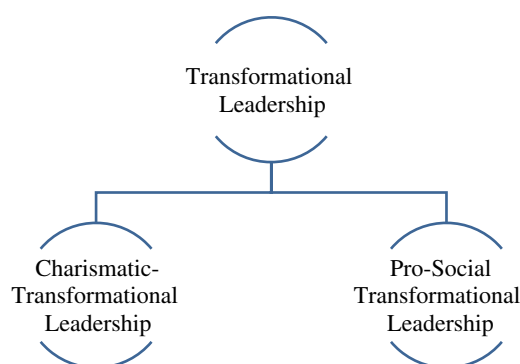
of others (Cardona & Rey, 2009). Charismatic-transformational leadership will be used when referring to a leader who transforms followers through her idealized influence. The distinction can be seen in Figure 1.

The two styles of transformational leadership both share the desire to go beyond the aspirations and needs of the leader to collectively try to benefit and transform others. However, the charismatic-transformational leader can be much more individualistic and self-centered, and the prosocial transformational leader is much more concerned for the followers, and empowers them, turning followers into leaders (Rey & Cardona, 2015). At the same time, followers in the prosocial transformational style are more centered on the organizational mission and collaboration than charismatic-transformational followers who are centered on achieving "their" goals.

Although it is not the same, prosocial transformational leadership has some links with other kind of leadership theories (Lee, Wang, & Piccolo, 2018) such as, (a) authentic leadership (Banks et al., 2016; Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008); (b) charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993); (c) ethical leadership (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005); (d) positive leadership (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000); (e) prosocial leadership (Ewest, 2018); (f) servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1970); (g) spiritual leadership (Fry, 2003); (h) supportive leadership (Schust, 2011); or (i) transcendent leadership (Aldon, 2004; Crossan et al., 2008; Gardiner, 2006).

Except for servant leadership and charismatic leadership (not the same as charismatic-transformational leadership), all the theories emerged during the past decade

Figure 1 Types of Transformational Leadership



and coincided with being positive in their orientation and preoccupied with the ethics and integrity of leaders and their actions, which should consider the good of others.

Based on the conceptualization already made, the theoretical purpose of the current article was to introduce and characterize prosocial transformational leadership. The paper is structured in four sections. In the first one, the processes developed to obtain the theoretical data are described. Then, the primary constructs are presented and related to the three kinds of leadership styles. Next follows a presentation of the general model, and the three specific models, each one related to a leadership style. Finally, the paper concludes by explaining the possible contributions of the investigation and its practical orientation.

Methods

The purpose of the present study was to propose a model that integrates and expands “transformational-transactional leadership theory,” first examining the relationships between three leadership styles and some other organizational constructs (see Tables 1 and 2), and then building a model that can be used to improve leadership education.

Table 1 Leadership Styles Derived from the Transformational-Transactional Theory of Leadership

Transformational-Transactional Theory of Leadership	Leadership Styles
Transactional Leadership	Transactional leadership
Transformational Leadership	Charismatic-Transformational Leadership
	Prosocial Transformational Leadership

Source: Author.

To build the model that expands transformational-transactional leadership theory and introduces the prosocial transformational style of leadership, a review of the literature was conducted. Documents were retrieved from four electronic databases: Web of Science (WoS), Google Scholar, PsycINFO, and EBSCO, using a combination of the word “leadership” AND (management, followers*, motivation, communicative styles, job satisfaction, emotional intelligence, decision-making process, performance, and organizational culture). The search for relevant literature was confined to the period 1990–2018 because during the three decades leadership related to other constructs emerged as a research area and, to be more accurate, when it has been possible meta-analytical articles and most cited articles in the WoS were included.

Apart from seminal works defining the different leadership theories and identifying areas of controversy in the literature (53 papers), 80 papers were full-text revised. Of the 80 papers, 12 documents related leadership to decision-making style; 11 studied leadership and followership; 12 were associated with leadership and motivation; nine referred to communicative style and leadership; 20 were linked to emotional intelligence; and, finally, 16 papers linked leadership to organizational outcomes and culture, including job satisfaction.

The current article offers a more in-depth analysis of some specific studies that have investigated the relationships between leadership styles and followership (Bolton, Brunnermeier, & Veldkamp, 2008; Cardona, 2001; Cardona & García Lombardía, 2005; Cardona & Rey, 2008); and studies related to communicative styles and leadership (Atwater & Waldman, 2008; Bakker-Pieper & de Vries, 2013; De Vries et al., 2010; De Vries, 2012; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2007, 2009, 2010).

Some other constructs related to the main research areas have been taken into account: the role played

Table 2 Relationship Between Leadership, Motivation, Followers, and Outcomes

Leadership Style	Predominant Motivation	Predominant Followership	Outcomes
Transactional Leadership	Extrinsic motivation	Reactive Subordinates	Efficacy
Charismatic-Transformational Leadership	Intrinsic motivation	Proactive Professionals	Attractiveness
Prosocial Transformational Leadership	Prosocial motivation	Collaborative Members	Unity Cohesion

Source: Author (based on the authors cited within the text, especially Cardona (2000), and Pérez López (1993).

by motivation in the development of leadership and followership (Bolino & Grant, 2016; Pérez López, 1997; Sison, 2008), emotional intelligence (Kim & Kim, 2017), and decision-making processes of leaders (Bogler, 2001), as well as the job satisfaction of followers (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004), the performance of the organizations (Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011), and the relationship between leadership and organizational culture (Schein, 1985; Schein & Schein, 2017).

In the end, a theoretical model is built, showing the relationships between all the concepts and how they manifest themselves differently depending on the kind of leadership skills of those in charge. The model can be used in leadership preparation programs and will require empirical verification as a whole because, as the analysis of the literature revealed, it has been only verified part by part.

Building the Model

LEADERSHIP THEORIES AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

Writing about leadership can imply struggling with constructs. Researchers use concepts such as: “leadership styles,” “leadership types,” “leadership theories,” or “leadership models,” indistinctly, to refer to the different perspectives to study leadership. In the current research, the construct “leadership theory” will be used to refer to the major theoretical perspectives for studying leadership (i.e., transformational-transactional leadership theory), and the concept “leadership styles” will be used when referring to the application of the theoretical perspectives (transactional leadership style, charismatic-transformational leadership style). Transformational-transactional leadership theory will be one of the primary topics of the article, and the next pages are devoted to explaining and expanding the leadership theory.

BASS’S TRANSFORMATIONAL-TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY

Inspired by Burns (1978), and by House’s (1977) theory of charismatic leadership, Bass defined transactional leadership as the leadership based on exchange relationships to meet self-interest of leaders and employees (1999);

and transformational leadership as a form of leadership that moves the follower beyond immediate self-interests for the good of the group (Bass, 1990, 1999).

As transactional leaders are focused on promoting self-interest, their impact and scope are limited to the consecution of the desired outcomes of the organization. In contrast, transformational leadership refers to the leader moving the follower to exceed expected performance, to high levels of satisfaction and commitment to the group and the organization (Bass, 1990; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Charismatic-transformational leadership has been conceptualized by Bass and colleagues (i.e., Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1993, 1994) in four dimensions, “the four I’s”, (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991): idealized influence, frequently called “charisma”; inspirational motivation; intellectual stimulation; and individualized consideration.

Using the word “charisma” led to some misunderstandings. Some academics and practitioners confused transformational leaders with leaders who use their aura to manipulate or to promote a totalistic vision (Tourish & Vatcha, 2005). Other scholars defined charisma as some miraculous ability characteristic of some extraordinary human beings, very close to the Weberian Great Man theories of leadership (Weber, 1968). Some practitioners considered charisma as something that can be dangerous (i.e., Drucker, 1989, in the chapter “Beware charisma”), or something the “good-to-great leaders” do not have (Collins, 1991). In this sense, the assertion that there is “a dark side of charismatic leadership” (Tourish, 2013; Tourish & Vatcha, 2005) can be right, and the dark side appears when charisma is considered as a halo effect that dazzles followers and forces them to follow the leader.

As the use of the word “charisma” seems to be problematic and the nature of charismatic-transformational leadership is sometimes challenging to explain (Antonakis, Bastardoz, Jacquard, & Shamir, 2016), the present investigation proposed, as some other authors have already done, to add another category for transformational leadership. The new category surpasses charismatic-transformational leadership in the sense that is less based on the allure of the leader and more collectively oriented, and it can be called prosocial transformational leadership.

Therefore, the current study suggests a distinction within transformational leadership: a transformational leadership that is more charismatic and centered on intrinsic motivations related to efficacy, the enjoyment of work and the achievement of results; and another kind of transformational leadership that is related to commitment to the group and the organization, beyond immediate self-interests and working for the common good.

The distinction can be found, from the beginning, in Bass's works (1990) when he referred indirectly to two types of transformational leaders: prosocial leaders and inspirational or visionary (charismatic) leaders when Bass stated: "this is not to say that transformational leaders are always prosocial in their efforts, for some fulfill grandiose dreams at the expense of the followers" (p. 25). Burns (1978) also recognized that there is a kind of transformative leader that tries to persuade the collaborators to achieve the vision of the leaders appealing only to "lower or artificially sustained needs" (p. 458) and manipulating followers.

PROSOCIAL TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Apart from the intuitions of Burns and Bass, the first traces of prosocial transformational leadership can be found in the work of Pérez López (1991, 1993, 1997, 1998), in which the foundations of what other scholars have called transcendental leadership (Cardona, 2000) or human-oriented leadership (De Vries et al., 2010) were laid, though Pérez López just called it "leadership" (without adjectives).

Pérez López based his analysis of human motivations: By 1991 Pérez López coined the term "transcendent motivation" to identify another kind of intrinsic motivation that defines leaders. Transcendent motivation is a force that leads people to act due to the consequences of their actions for other people (Pérez López, 1997); it transcends personal needs and the search for self-satisfaction that characterizes intrinsic motives and focuses on the needs of other people alien to oneself, and in the achievement of the purpose of the company.

After his death, colleagues continued to disseminate Pérez López's leadership ideas, using the construct "transcendental leadership" (i.e., Cardona, 2000).

Other scholars used the form "prosocial motivation" (De Vries et al., 2010; Grant, 2007, 2008; Sison, 2008), instead of "transcendent motivation" and, following Grant, De Vries, and Sison, the current article adopted the concept "prosocial leadership" to refer to the kind of transformational leadership that surpasses leaders' needs and focuses on the needs of others.

Prosocial transformational leadership is the process of integrating the members of an organization around the mission or purpose of the organization and the common good (not around *the* leader), helping employees to develop their capacities and to improve the organization for the good of all. In this sense, the effects of prosocial transformational leaders are even more profound than the effects of charismatic leadership, fostering leadership and autonomy among collaborators.

The introduction of the concept of prosociality within the framework of transformational-transactional theory allows us to expand this theory, and at the same time differentiate two types of leaders and leadership behaviors that are worth separating and distinguishing. Therefore, within the transformational-transactional theory of leadership, three leadership styles can be defined: (a) transactional, (b) charismatic-transformational, and (c) prosocial transformational leadership style, as illustrated in Table 1.

It can be said that prosocial transformational leadership is an "ideal form" of transformational leadership that creates positive changes in the organization and the followers, developing them into leaders and improving their motivations. Within this kind of prosocial leadership, the four I's are developed at the maximum level, always oriented to the good of others.

ADDING MOTIVATION, FOLLOWERSHIP, AND OUTCOMES TO THE MODEL

In the current section, the constructs of motivation, followership, and outcomes for the organization are added to the model (Table 2). The academic literature on leadership has recognized ultimately that followers affect leaders as much as leaders influence their followers (Agho, 2009; Baker, 2007; Baker, Anthony, & Stites-Doe, 2015; Gardner et al., 2010; Howell & Mendez, 2008; Kelley, 1988, 2008; Malakyan, 2014; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014).

Besides, many scholars have also highlighted the relationship between leadership, motivation, followership, and outcomes. Leaders can play a crucial role helping followers to achieve the mission, vision, and objectives of an organization, making these aims meaningful for the collaborators, and “focusing employees’ attention on their contribution to others” (Grant, 2012, p. 458).

Motivations, as Fry stated it, are the internal or external forces that provoke enthusiasm and persistence to act (Fry, 2003). However, traditional motivational theories find it challenging to explain why a person is following another person freely and without coercion. Back in 1993, Shamir, House, and Arthur argued that “there is no motivational explanation to account for the profound effects of such leaders [charismatic leaders], some of which are difficult to explain within currently dominant models of motivation” (p. 578). Thus, they recommend motivating followers to transcend their self-interests for the sake of others (Shamir et al., 1993).

There were other academics with similar concerns about motivation, leadership, and followership: In 2008, Grant asked: “Why do employees go above and beyond the call of duty to persist in performing their work effectively and productively?” (p. 48), and concluded that academics have begun to highlight prosocial motivation—the desire to benefit others—as an answer to the question (Grant, 2008). Fifteen years before, Pérez López (1993) had arrived at the same conclusions when he defined transcendent motivation.

In Table 2, three kinds of motivations are shown: extrinsic, intrinsic, and prosocial. The total motivation to execute actions is a result of the three forces, but not all of them are present in the activities with the same intensity. Therefore, it is essential to distinguish the characteristics of each of them because each is governed by different laws (Pérez López, 1997). It is also essential to consider which are the prevalent motivations of the members of an organization because of the significant impact on the institution.

Extrinsic motivation can be defined as the type of external force that pushes the person to act due to the punishments or rewards obtained, that is, due to the response that the action will provoke from the outside. Extrinsic motivations can be summarized with the sentence “give me a reward for working” (Fry, 2003, p.

699), and the central element of motivation is self-interest (Crossan et al., 2008).

Intrinsic motivation is the type of force that attracts a person to perform an action or task, because of the satisfaction the person expects to obtain by the fact of being the performer of the work. Following Fry (2003), intrinsic motivation consists of the “enjoyment of an activity for its own sake and is associated with active engagement in tasks that people find interesting and fun and that, in turn, promote growth and satisfy higher order needs” (p. 698). A person is intrinsically motivated when he or she is moved by the joy of learning, the interest in the job, the pleasure of achieving goals, or the aspiration to demonstrate ability: learning orientation and performance orientation (Amabile, 1993; Dweck, 1986; Moss & Ritossa, 2007; Osterloh & Frey, 2003; Pérez López, 1993; Ryan & Deci, 2000; Sison, 2008). Fry summarized intrinsic motivation with the statement: “My work is my reward,” and intrinsic motives move leaders and followers from self-interest to self-actualization (Crossan et al., 2008).

Finally, prosocial motivation can be defined as the type of force that leads people to act due to the consequences of their actions for another or other people (Pérez López, 1997). If extrinsic motivation found its source of motivation outside oneself (in rewards or punishments), and intrinsic motivation inside one-self (in personal satisfaction and improvement), prosocial motivation is also outside oneself, in the needs of other people.

Some research has empirically shown that having higher-order motives (or prosocial motives), leaders achieve positive outcomes on cohesion, satisfaction, effort, and performance within the organization (Sparks & Schenk, 2001). Grant (2007, 2008, and 2012) found that when employees are prosocial and see their impact on others, they are more productive. Prosocial motivation is based on the empowerment of people.

Pérez López (1993) stated that although the three motivations coexist in human actions, the motivational quality of a person or an organization is determined by the predominance of prosocial motivations in their actions. The dominance does not prevent leaders from having good and bad behaviors (Lee et al., 2018), because they are normal human beings, but points out

that there is usually an interest toward the needs of others, and prosocial motivation is the one that can sustain leadership and long-term effectiveness.

In general terms, it is assumed that leaders can enhance the motivation of employees by communicating the purpose of the organization (Carton, 2018), each style of leadership is based moreover on a kind of motivation, and contributes to the development of a specific profile of follower (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Cardona, 2001; Pérez López, 1997; Sison, 2008).

Transactional leaders tend to promote extrinsic motivations within the organization, and they practice contingent reinforcement of *followers* (Bass, 1999). It is a system in which followers are mere *subordinates* (Cardona, 2000), workers who need the continuous guidance of managers, or passive recipients of orders (Shamir, 2007). As a result, a transactional leader that manages by tasks and a “giving and getting” system, promotes reactive subordinates and encourages within the organization a “not my job attitude” (Fry, 2003, p. 694) with employees that continually follow orders. Blind followership can create effective organizations, but the levels of effort, organizational commitment and performance will be the minimum (Fry, 2003) and there will be little scope for initiative, creativity, and long-term loyalty for the organization. In transactional approaches, the relationships between leadership and followership are based on the exchange of resources, such as “salary for work.” Such a relationship does not lead to the level of commitment associated with the transformational model (Bush & Glover, 2014); and usually, organizations are more related to short-term improvement than with long-term progress.

Charismatic-transformational leaders promote intrinsic motivation in followers and are moved by intrinsic motivation. They are supported by proactive professionals (Cardona, 2000), who frequently compete against other professionals to achieve organizational goals. A “what do I want to do attitude” (Karlgaard, 2004) is promoted, and organizations tend to be more attractive (Pérez López, 1993) to their members since they experience a sense of competence, autonomy, and relatedness. Within the charismatic model, employees and leaders obtain better learning, better performance, and better well-being than when leadership is merely transactional (Benware & Deci,

1984; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Valas & Solvik, 1993, cited by Fry, 2003). Charismatic-transformational leaders are focused on the transformation of organizations, and in the development of the capacities of the followers; helping the creation of organizations that are more attractive to the employees.

Prosocial transformational leaders have in themselves and inspire in others, prosocial motivations, helping the development of followers which are collaborative members of the organization (Cardona, 2000). Within this framework, it is not only that leaders have effects on followers because of their desire to meet their needs, but it is also assumed (Moss & Ritossa, 2007) that “leaders can inspire followers to pursue collective values and aspirations as well as sacrifice egocentric needs and goals” (p. 433). The attitude related to prosocial leaders and collaborative followers is the “do what it takes attitude” (Fry, 2003; Karlgaard, 2004) that promotes more capability of thinking in groups, taking risks, or motivate others. “Do what it takes attitude” promotes unity (Pérez López, 1993), cohesion, effectiveness, fulfillment, and flourishing of all members (Fry, 2003) within the organization and is required for the sustainability of an organization. Prosocial transformational leaders try to fulfill extrinsic, intrinsic, and prosocial motivations, and the stress is on what other parties benefit because of one’s actions. Prosocial leaders create learning organizations and develop other leaders.

Of course, each person is moved by the three motives, so that motivations are not mutually exclusive (Amabile, 1993; Lumpkin & Achen, 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2000); on the contrary, they can be and tend to be cumulative. The cumulation indicates that a person motivated by prosocial reasons also has extrinsic and intrinsic motives in mind; that is, he/she also seeks a good return for his work and enjoy it. Similarly, there are interrelations among followers, and research has shown that some synergies can appear between intrinsic learning orientation and prosocial intrinsic motivation. For example, Baumann and Kuhl (2003, 2005), and Moss and Ritossa (2007) demonstrated that an intrinsic learning orientation increases the possibilities that management orders are internalized and adopted, thus creating more committed members of the organization.

Moss and Ritossa (2007) held that “the benefits of transformational leadership might be amplified or

inhibited by the goal orientation of followers” (p. 435). According to the researchers cited, it can be added that when leaders and followers are oriented toward the organizational mission and their contribution to others, instead of being only oriented toward the completion of managerial objectives, the benefits for the whole company are better and more sustainable than in other cases. So there is really “performance beyond expectations” (Bass, 1985).

Regarding *outcomes*, transactional leadership leads to the expected performance while transformational leadership—both charismatic and prosocial—permits performance beyond expectations, as described in the meta-analytic review of 25 years of research by Wang et al. (2011).

In short, two types and three styles of relational leaders can be distinguished in the academic literature: transactional leader, and transformational leader (charismatic or prosocial). Each style of leader and leadership is related to a follower (Cardona, 2001; Zigarmi, Roberts, & Randolph, 2015): the reactive subordinate, proactive professional, and cooperative team member. Leaders and followers influence and are influenced by one another while creating different levels of leadership for the organization, and different results and outcomes (see Table 2).

If the three motivations of the human being coexist in organizations, organizations that are, at the same time, efficient (economic dimension), attractive (sociological dimension), and united or consistent (ethical dimension) could be achieved. Arriving at such a goal requires the type of prosocial transformational leadership described in the current article, with managers who seek their ethical quality and that of their followers.

ADDING COMMUNICATION, DECISION-MAKING, JOB SATISFACTION, AND EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE TO THE MODEL

Four more constructs are added to the model, and the relationships that academics have found between leadership, communication, decision-making, job satisfaction, and emotional intelligence are being described. The objective is to examine the relationships to create models and use them to improve leadership development. For example, the communicative style of leaders

and their emotional intelligence are essential characteristics of leaders, which have an impact on some other aspects such as the decision-making process of leaders; the features that characterize leaders may have an impact on the job satisfaction of followers as it is going to be examined.

In any leadership process, communication is fundamental (Barret, 2006; Riggio, Murphy, & Pirozzolo, 2002). Nevertheless, literature relating to leadership styles and *communicative styles* is scarce (De Vries et al., 2010; Tourish & Jackson, 2008).

For example, in 1985, Penley and Hawkins (1985) showed the close correspondence between what is denominated in the current study as prosocial transformational leadership and communication; later, De Vries et al. (2010) investigated the relationships between the communication styles of leaders and the different kinds of leadership. They described two communicative styles (dominant and assertive) and related them to leadership styles. The conclusion was that transformational leadership styles are communicative and assertive, while transactional leaders are dominant and significantly less communicative. De Vries et al. also found that communicative styles are well related to other constructs such as knowledge sharing behaviors, satisfaction with the leader, and subordinate’s team commitment. Charismatic-transformational leadership and prosocial transformational leadership are positively related to all these constructs.

According to De Vries et al. (2010), transactional leadership has a dominant, precise, and sometimes aggressive communicative style. Charismatic-transformational leadership is assertive and has a communicative style characterized by being supportive, argumentative, precise, verbally non-aggressive, and less expressive. Prosocial transformational leadership has an assertive communicative style which is associated with supportiveness, expressiveness, and a lack of verbal aggressiveness on the part of the leader. The two transformational leadership styles have excellent communicative skills and generate positive outcomes in the organization because they produce trust and commitment in the followers and motivate them to share knowledge within the group.

To summarize, the research shows that leadership styles have some influence on communication and

vice versa. Similarly, it has been shown that different traits characterize each communicative style. The communicative style of a leader influences leadership and followers, but it also affects the decision-making strategy of leaders and the trust, commitment, knowledge sharing, and performance of the organization.

Indeed, closely related to the communicative style is how leaders make decisions. The *decision-making style* of leaders have been studied by many authors in terms of how they relate to followers' *job satisfaction and performance* (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bogler, 2001; DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Inceoglu, Thomas, Chu, Plans, & Gerbasi, 2018; Judge et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2004; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Kirby, Paradise, & King, 1992; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Lee et al., 2018; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Piccolo et al., 2012; Shamir et al., 1993; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Wang et al., 2011).

The cited literature permits some preliminary conclusions: Transactional leaders usually make autocratic decisions without considering anyone but themselves, using their power (*potestas*) in a command and control way and trying to obtain blind obedience from the followers. In contrast, both types of transformational leaders adopt decisions based on advice and consultations with other people, making people more committed and satisfied with their job. Bogler (2001) concluded that a participative form of making decisions has a direct and indirect relation to job satisfaction, and it increases the positive perception of the workplace. Furthermore, it also increases enthusiasm for participating and desire for sharing knowledge and can reinforce the authority (*auctoritas*) of the leader. There are not relevant findings for the relationships among decision-making strategy of the leader and employees job satisfaction in the case of transactional leadership.

It seems that leadership styles affect not only all the cited constructs but also employee innovation, creativity, work attitudes (e.g., Barling, Slsater, & Kelloway, 2000) and the distribution of leadership (e.g., Gunzel-Jensen et al., 2018).

Finally, the relationship between *leaders' emotional intelligence* (EI) and their leadership style is examined. Based on the views supported by Caruso, Mayer, and Salovey (2002), Gardner (1996), Goleman (1998), and Salovey and Mayer, 1990; many authors (Barling

et al., 2000; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Green, Miller, & Aarons, 2013; Kim & Kim, 2017; Lumpkin & Achen, 2018; Palmer, Walls, Burgess, & Stough, 2001; Riggio et al., 2002; Riggio & Reichard, 2008; Sosik & Magerian, 1999; Zahed-Babelan & Rajabi, 2009) observed that there is a close link between EI and effective leadership.

The researches pointed out that the EI of transactional leaders is scarce, although they also state that EI intensifies when the leader must give rewards or punishments (Harms & Credé, 2010). Also, some investigations show theoretically and empirically that EI correlates positively with all the features of transformational leadership, (Barling et al., 2000; Gardner & Stough, 2002; Kim & Kim, 2017; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; McCleskey, 2014; Palmer et al., 2001). For example, McCleskey (2014) observed that "EI and its related competencies may possess the kind of predictive validity for leadership effectiveness that has often eluded researchers in the past" (p. 87). Bono and Joyce (2004, cited by Green et al., 2013) exposed that extroversion and emotional stability are good predictors of transformational leadership. Furthermore, Green et al. (2013) indicated that having stronger transformational leadership may help to suffer the consequences of emotional exhaustion on turnover intention. It also seems that having empathy and good EI is a good predictor of the existence of transformational leadership (Gardner & Stough, 2002).

Nevertheless, more empirical studies are required as some investigations found that EI is not always related to transformational leadership (Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dansborough, 2009; Genderen, 2012; Jayakody & Gamage, 2015). Ultimately, Kim and Kim (2017) reviewed 20 empirical studies on the relationships between EI and Transformational Leadership and found 15 of the 20 studies demonstrated a positive correlation between EI and TL while five studies did not find a relationship.

A relationship between communicative styles and EI has also been found. According to Weisinger (1998), it seems that having good communicative skills is fundamental to having good EI. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) added that emotionally intelligent leaders have better communication with followers by understanding their emotions. The value of all these discoveries for the workplace is incalculable.

ADDING ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE TO THE MODEL

The classic definition of organizational culture by Schein (1985) stated that the culture of an organization is a pattern of shared meanings constructed socially and affected by the environment and the history of the institution that can be taught to new members as the correct way to do things in the organization. Schein said that culture can be found in the visible artifacts, the espoused values, and the underlying assumptions because it resides on all levels.

Academics recognize the relationship between organizational culture and leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Hennessey, 1998; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Schein, 1985; Schein & Schein, 2017) and it has become clear that culture affects leadership, as much as leadership affects culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Initially, there seems to be a bidirectional influence between both constructs, although according to Ogbonna and Harris (2000), more empirical examinations are needed.

Culture is made up of a great variety of elements and affects and is affected by them. Leadership styles and the eight organizational constructs analyzed in the current paper are related to the culture of the orga-

nization, affected by it and, at the same time, affect the culture, contributing to the creation of different kind of cultures. Therefore, following the previous analysis and the links found, three kinds of culture are proposed: (a) transactional culture (effective), (b) charismatic-transformational culture (attractive), and (c) prosocial transformational culture (united, engaged and collaborative).

When leadership is purely transactional, the culture will tend to be productive but scarcely collaborative, employees try to make the minimum efforts, and long-term loyalty is not a feature that defines such organizations.

On the contrary, if leadership is charismatic-transformational, the tendency would be to a more collaborative culture, but at the same time the culture would be more competitive regarding the personal necessity of achieving the organizational objectives.

Finally, prosocial transformational leadership could help to develop a collaborative and engaged culture, where there is more cohesion, more empowerment of people, and long-term sustainability. Research suggests that prosocial transformational leaders who are people-oriented have positive effects on individual members, teams, and organizational culture (Louis & Murphy, 2018).

Figure 2 The Model

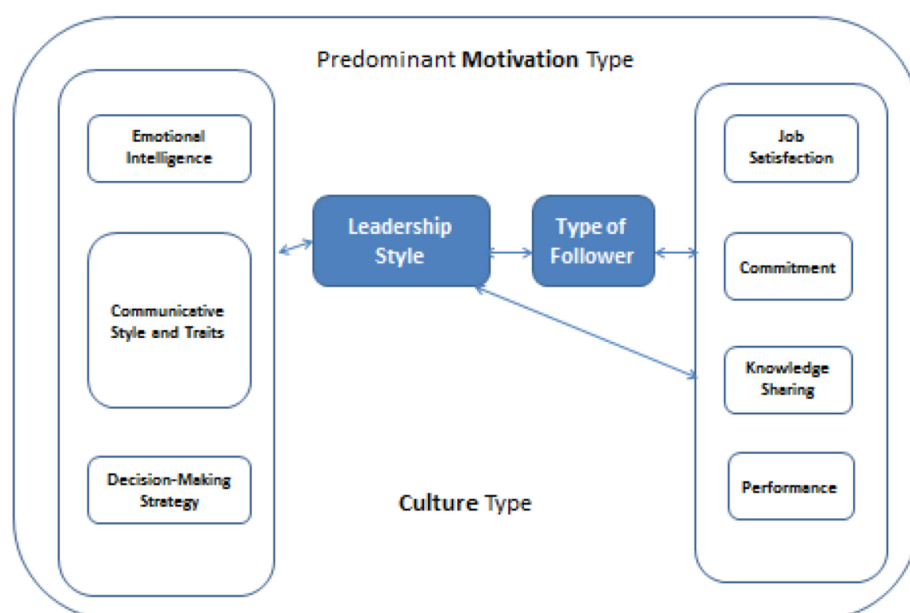


Figure 3 Model 1: Transactional Leadership

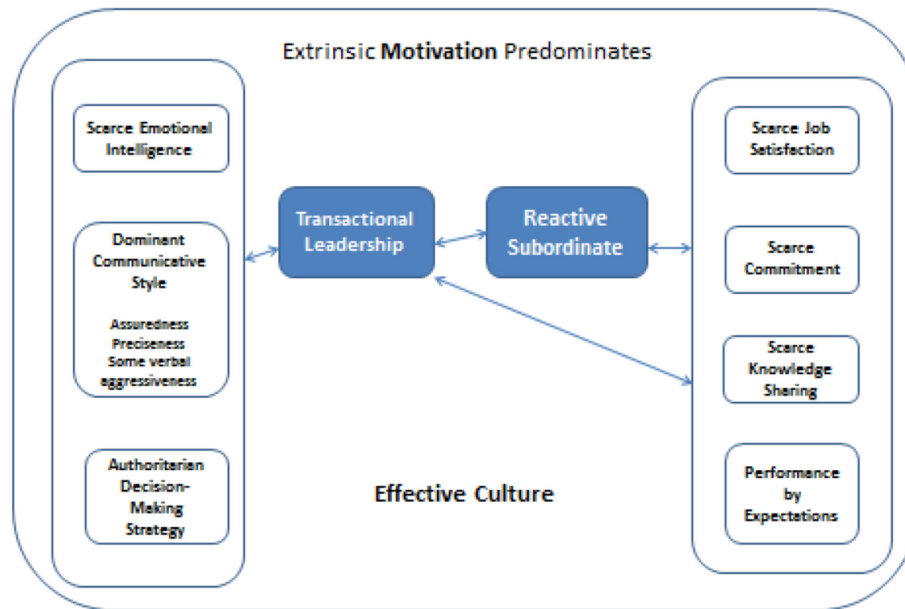
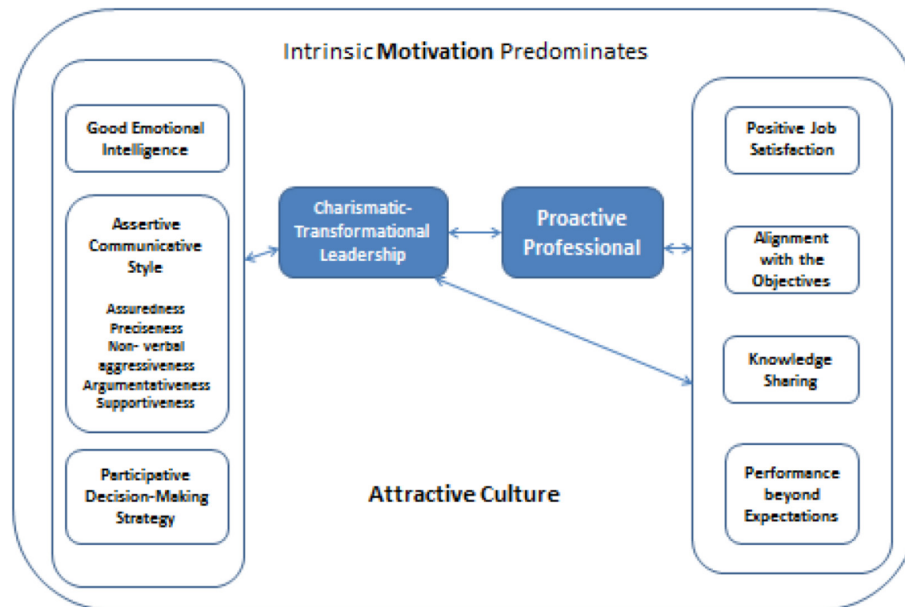


Figure 4 Model 2: Charismatic-Transformational Leadership

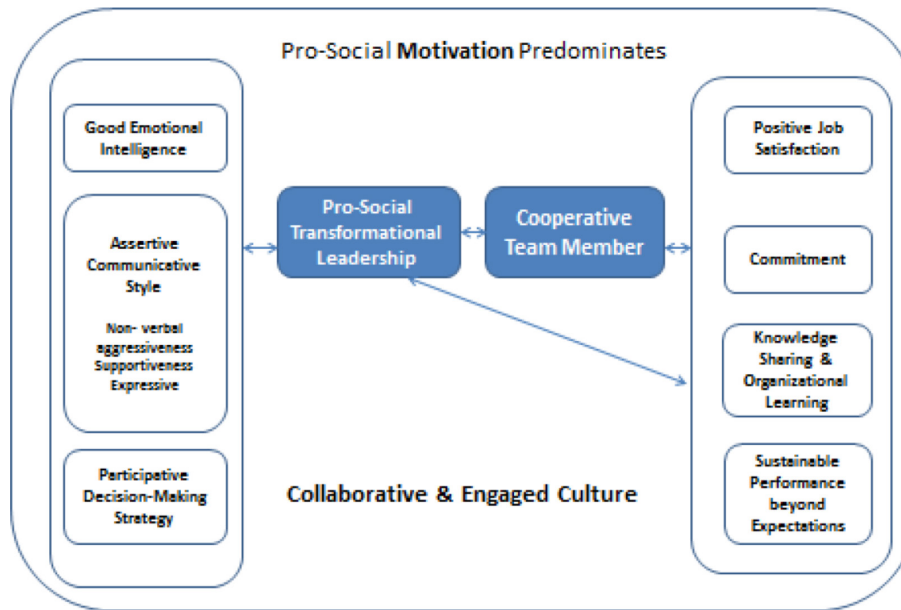


The Models

The literature suggests that each style of leadership relates to the other constructs that have been examined in the current study. Putting together all the constructs, a general theoretical model (Figure 2), and three specific models (Figures 3–5) are designed, each one related to

one leadership style. The structure relates all the concepts and simulates how each construct affects others and is affected by others. The theoretical models, shown in Figures 2–5, conclude the present research and can help in improving leadership preparation, though it is essential to consider in each case, the leader's context and situation.

Figure 5 Model 3: Prosocial Transformational Leadership



As shown in the proposed model (see Figure 2), some skills and features, such as human capacity in the form of emotional intelligence of leaders, their communicative style, and their decision-making strategies, influence the leadership style, and the follower. Depending on the leadership, there are different followers, and followers also influence the style of leadership. Leaders and followers have an impact on job satisfaction, commitment, knowledge sharing, and performance. All these organizational issues have an influence and are influenced by culture and by the most strong motivations that exist in an organization.

Note that in the model, leaders and followers are at the same level, and they both affect and are affected by the other constructs. As always happens with theoretical models, they serve as an ideal reconstruction of reality, but they cannot be found with all these features in real life. Neither leadership styles nor the other constructs appear pure and bright in ordinary existence. They are approximations to reality and “models” to be followed, nothing else. However, they can help to improve educational settings and businesses.

The models presented in Figures 3, 4, and 5 are applications of the general model (see Figure 2) considering the different styles of leadership. The constructs vary because it is not about showing the capacity but pre-

senting how each capacity is applied in each moment, resulting in differences that affect all the participants in the process, and the outcomes of the organization.

As shown in Figure 3, Model 1 demonstrates that when leadership is transactional, organizations can be effective with short-term improvement. In the transactional model, employees tend to be reactive subordinates, with a scarce commitment to the organization, scarce knowledge sharing, and trying to do the minimum to obtain the salary or to avoid punishments. Furthermore, organizational and personal learning is usually low, and initiative, collaboration, and creativity are also low. Employees often have scarce loyalty to the company (it is easy to leave if another employer pays more), and hence, turnover is high.

Transactional leaders tend to have a dominant communication style with a very precise, and sometimes even aggressive language, and non-participatory decision making. Research has found that transactional leaders have scarce emotional intelligence, and their relationship with followers consists of telling them what they have or do not have to do, being experts in devising rewards and punishments.

Transactional leaders tend to be efficient, and Model 1 can contribute to leadership development by making more effective companies, organizing more effectively

the tasks and functions and focusing on economic results. Nevertheless, the improvement is difficult to maintain because with leaders and followers only moved by the hope of reward or the fear of punishment; the thinking tends to be short-term. Therefore, a negative perception of the work and scarce job satisfaction is developed throughout the organization.

An organization that is attractive to superiors and employees is shown in Model 2: personal and organizational learning abound, the development of people is crucial, job perception increases, and employees seem satisfied with the leader, the job and the challenges in the job.

In the charismatic-transformational model, employees are proactive professionals that desire challenges, want to learn, and aspire to achieve the objectives, sometimes without thinking of others. To a certain extent, in organizations like the ones described by the model, knowledge sharing exists, but the desire of employers and employees to succeed can excessively promote competitiveness, negatively affecting the most supporting behaviors aimed at sharing information.

Nevertheless, Model 2 represents a better leadership style than Model 1 in the sense that charismatic-transformational leaders have assertive communication, good emotional intelligence, and a participative decision-making strategy. Charismatic leaders and the proactive professionals related to the model, promote better learning, better well-being, and better development of capacities in the organization. Therefore, a positive job perception and positive job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader, and more commitment exists in Model 2 than in Model 1.

Some problems associated with the transformational model can be the excess of the charisma of leaders (in the negative sense of the word) if they use their communicative skills to manipulate instead of making people think. Alternatively, excessive orientation to achievement can create a competitive culture that affects collaboration and long-term performance.

Despite the cited problems, Model 2 contributes to leadership development by developing workplaces that motivate followers intrinsically and stimulate them intellectually. In this kind of context, employees go beyond what is formally required because they love their job and the challenges related to it.

In Model 3, leadership is prosocial transformational, and the efforts in the organization are directed to

develop the institutional mission and to satisfy other people needs. Conceptually, the more leadership is prosocial transformational, the better the organizational culture, and the model should permit superior corporate performance (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000).

It has been suggested that when prosocial motivation predominates, there is better performance and more cohesion, satisfaction, trust, effort, and unity, all the while member flourish in the organization (Sparks & Schenk, 2001). That means that people are empowered, and organizational performance can be sustained over time.

Note that in all cases, transformational behaviors (charismatic or prosocial) seem to increase employees job satisfaction (Inceoglu et al., 2018), contributing to stronger performance and better organizational culture.

What is essential is to realize that with prosocial transformational leadership, followers are more motivated and feel more supported; and there are also better outcomes and improvements of group productivity and effectiveness (Fry, 2003; Louis & Murphy, 2018; Oldham & Hackman, 2010; Pérez López, 1993). Promoting prosocial motivation in leaders and followers can be useful because with this kind of motivation executives and employees are freely driven by a concern for satisfying the needs of others and the organization, and more organizational value is created.

The three models suggest that recognizing the characteristics of each style of leadership is crucial to understanding how to develop leadership. Also, identifying the attributes of each leadership style is decisive to anticipate the consequences of promoting one style of leadership over another.

The models all propose that the more leadership style is prosocial, the more collaborative the culture seems to be. Followers are a central part of the schema: they are affected by leaders, but they also influence the persons who lead the organization. Furthermore, they extraordinarily change the characteristics of the culture by defining the ambiance and facilitating (or not) trust and the sharing of knowledge. Knowledge sharing is crucial to develop learning organizations and people that learn within their institutions. Cohesion, satisfaction, effort, and performance are also other outcomes of such a leadership style.

It is crucial to re-emphasize, as in the case of motivations, that the models are not mutually exclusive, but that the second incorporates characteristics of the first; and the third, the characteristics of the first and second. So, when it is stated that “model 3 organizations” have predominantly prosocial motivations, the declaration does not mean that the leaders in the model are not concerned about effectiveness (results) or attractiveness (challenges and learning). On the contrary, the prosocial leader seeks to satisfy the followers’ needs. It is not about “angelic” people only concerned with subliminal aspects of the organization, but people with their feet on the ground who seek to obtain results, develop other people and create sustainable organizations structured around a common purpose and trying to satisfy all the needs of people: material, cognitive, and affective.

Although the analysis of the literature reveals that some parts of the framework have already been confirmed separately, the whole model needs to be tested and refined. If the model is empirically checked, leadership quality could be improved by enhancing some skills of the leaders such as communicative skills, emotional intelligence, or the decision-making processes. Similarly, leaders’ communicative skills and emotional intelligence could be enriched by enhancing their leadership skills. The previous statements will result in better organizational culture and more knowledge sharing and unity within the organization.

Conclusions

The current study aspires to contribute to the literature in several ways. First, the research can contribute to the academic debate on leadership by trying to integrate diverse theoretical perspectives on the topic and proposing systemic models that incorporate different organizational constructs and processes. Specifically, based on previous research, the development of Bass’s charismatic and transformational leadership has been proposed, suggesting a type of transformational leadership that can be called prosocial transformational leadership. Prosocial leadership style has a lot in common with other types of leadership (e.g., positive leadership, authentic leadership, or transcendent leadership) and can contribute to the necessary integration of very similar leadership styles (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

Second, as insufficient attention had been given to organizational processes when studying transformational and charismatic leadership theories (Yukl, 1999), the current paper tried to focus on institutional processes by examining eight different constructs related to leadership, as some other scholars are doing nowadays (Dinh et al., 2014). The approach presented in the current paper may contribute to creating models with a systemic perspective, adding, at the same time, to the academic debate on leadership.

Third, as the study aspires to have significant practical implications, a general model and three more specific models have been presented to serve as a basis for the creation of a leadership development course. Day (2000) recommended combining the traditional, individualistic approach to leader development with a more shared and relational approach. Therefore, the current research has focused not only on how some leader traits and competencies can affect followers and the whole organization but also focused on the interactions between individuals and the organizational culture.

The proposed models are holistic and systemic, and the perspectives integrative and inclusive, as demanded by Day (2011) and by Gardner et al. (2010). The models consider leaders and followers and present data from very different disciplines (psychology, business, education, or communication). At the same time, the models explain in theory how it is possible to build more commitment, integration, knowledge sharing, better networks, and relationships within the organizations while expanding and improving the capacities of leaders, followers and the whole community. Each of the models incorporates the same organizational and personal constructs, but each one reacts in a different way depending on the kind of leadership and followership that predominates in an organization.

In one of his posthumous notes, Boas Shamir stated that until now leadership development had been concentrated mainly on skills. In the previous pages, many skills related to leadership have been presented. However, – as Shamir also states in the same notes – “All this is important but it’s not everything, and I’m not sure that it is even the main thing” (Shamir & Eilam-Shamir, 2017, p. 583).

Perhaps the “main thing” is related to motives: It seems necessary to help leaders to act for reasons other

than merely to satisfy their personal needs and increase the quality of their motives if a kind of leadership that is at the same time effective and human-oriented is promoted. It also seems essential to foster higher levels of prosocial motivation among leaders and followers and to optimize employee commitment to the organization working on personal and shared purposes.

There are also some other practical contributions of the model: managers can analyze their organizations and determine if they are in model 1, 2 or 3; deciding, afterward, if they want to go from one model to another. As each element of the models interacts with the rest of the parts, a positive change in a component should strengthen the leadership and followership of an organization. For example, it could be possible to improve leadership by improving the communicative skills of leaders, or their decision-making strategies.

Furthermore, the analysis of the models can let the participants in leadership training reflect on the type of leadership and followership that exists in an institution. What reasons and motivations prevail among its members; what kind of communication is generated; how are decisions made; what impact leadership has on the professional and personal satisfaction of the organization's members; and the type of followers that exist in the group. The analysis can contribute to the change of organizations, can help the required humanization of leadership and management, and can also improve leadership preparation. As recommended by Day, the models are focused on the relationships between leaders and followers rather than examining each entity unconnectedly (Day, 2011); and, following Fiedler (1996), they are also focused on the interaction between an individual and the social and organizational environment.

Finally, the models can also help to learn at the workplace, which is an extended and recommended practice (Day, 2000, 2011). Consequently, the content of the present paper can be applied in educational settings or any corporation.

There are limitations to the investigation. First, the number of articles used to obtain the theoretical results related to organizational constructs can be more extensive, and future research should expand the present corpus. Furthermore, there are many other organizational constructs and personal features that it is pos-

sible to investigate and incorporate into the model. For example, future research could add data exploring the relationship between leadership styles and leader traits, topic that has been well examined by different researchers (i.e., Bono & Judge, 2004; De Hoog, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005; De Vries, 2012; Judge & Bono, 2000; Lumpkin & Achen, 2018; Posner, 2018; Swain, 2018; Zaccaro, Green, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018). Similarly, it is possible to investigate the relationships between leadership styles and innovation, creativity, work attitudes, or the distribution of leadership. All these concepts can be the topic for the subsequent investigations.

Moreover, if the aim is to develop leadership, it is not enough to present different models and try to assign leaders, teams, or organizations to any of them in any way. It is necessary to develop a program that describes the way from one model to another, and it is also necessary to create some evaluation that allows assigning individuals or groups to a model in a more scientific way. It will also be necessary to use those same instruments to evaluate the changes that occur in the leadership of organizations.

Pérez López (1993) stated that to be a leader, you must know what people are. People are not mere executors of orders given by managers, people are free, and the proof of real leadership lies on being able to get people to do what they have to do because they want to.

If leaders have power, it is easy to get followers to do what they command, just offering incentives or threatening with punishments. What is difficult is to get people to do what they are supposed to do, and at the same time wanting to do these things no matter the difficulties, because doing so they are benefiting the organization and other people. To act in such a way requires a higher order kinds of leadership and motives: prosocial transformational leadership and prosocial motivation.

It seems necessary to help leaders to act for reasons other than merely to satisfy their needs and increase the quality of their motives if the aim is to promote a kind of leadership that is at the same time ethical, effective, attractive and collaborative. It also seems essential to foster higher order motives in the followers as Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) suggested at the beginning of the transformational leadership theory.

The current investigation suggests that theoretically it is possible to become a better leader and to develop better leadership, evolving from mechanistic to human-oriented models of leadership. It is possible to improve leadership competencies and, at the same time, improve followership and organizational outcomes if some changes are introduced in organizations, motivations, and the way of doing things. These are not instant techniques for becoming a leader or a better follower but require time and effort. As researchers and educators, we can expand on the ideas underlying the model presented in the current article, to create organizations centered on the men and women who make them function, organizations that respect and care for people.

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