Analysis of Leadership Styles in Different Cultures

Kamran Nazari¹, Nastaran Savar², Mostafa Emami³, Zamaneh razagholiyan⁴, Hossein Ali soltaní⁵

¹Department of Business Management, Payam Noor University, Iran
²Department of Management, Payam Noor University, Iran
³Young Researchers Club, Kermanshah Branch, Islamic Azad University, Kermanshah, Iran.
⁴The education city Sarpol zahab
⁵Department of Accounting, School of Social Since, Razi University, Kermanshah, Iran

ABSTRACT

Leadership is one of the most widely researched topics of the 20th century while being one of the most misunderstood as well (Burns, 1978; Chang, 2005; Masood, Dani,Burns, & Backhouse, 2006). Understanding the dynamics of leadership style is not a new area of inquiry. Many studies have indicated leadership style has a positive relationship with employee satisfaction and employee productivity (DeClerk, 2008; Klimontorn, 2007; Politis, 2005). Historically, four main leadership styles have been present in societies: authoritarian, democratic, laissez-faire, and sometimes all three combined (Bass, 2008). Organizational leaders primarily use the authoritarian or command-and-control style of leadership (Bass, 2008). Because leadership styles are directly related to leaders’ self-concept and organizational functions, researchers are increasingly interested in the study of leadership styles (Schiro, 2006). Kouzes and Posner (2008a) postulated a leadership style based on the following leader attributes: (a) model the way, (b) inspire a shared vision, (c) challenge the process, (d) enable others to act, and (e) encourage the heart. Another innovative leadership style is the invitational leadership model based on the self-concept theory (Purkey, 2006). Research findings identified five leadership development themes: (a) training (b) perception and knowledge, (c) responsibility and collaboration, (d) culture, and (e) empowerment. Five themes essential to successful leadership also emerged: (a) communication, (b) ethics, (c) creativity and critical thinking, (d) integrity and trust, and (e) vision and strategy.

KEYWORDS: Leadership styles, cultural differences, organizational culture functions.

INTRODUCTION

Discussion regarding leadership has been lacking in the veterinary profession, although the need for leadership has never been greater (Lloyd, Chaddock, Hoblet, Bayly, Albers, & Burge, 2007). A leadership crisis in veterinary medicine is causing poor life- work integration as well as lack of desired professional success (Lloyd& Harris, 2006). Veterinarians commonly define professional success to include economic success and leadership ability. Leadership ability necessitates human interaction, and veterinarians report being surprised by the amount of human interaction that is necessary in their jobs, and most feel unprepared for it. Veterinarians report that human interaction includes delegating to others, giving feedback, hiring effectively, and managing worker’s performance (Lewis & Klausner, 2003).

Leadership is defined as the process of having dominance on group activities in order to realize the objectives. To execute the leadership task, managers try to influence the people under their supervision and motivate and direct them to achieve the organizational objectives. Creating motivation in staff in such a way that they do their activity and work in the organization with enthusiasm and reach the goals is very important. This problem with transnational managers who have to create motivation in the individuals with different cultures is more significant.

Type’s of the behaviors which results in success of the leader depends on the definition of success and is conditions. There are considerable numbers of different leadership styles in different countries and various cultures, and many researches have done many surveys in the field of leadership in which the relation of leadership style with situations conditions has been emphasized. Leadership styles and management methods across the world are diverse and are influenced by specifications dominant in the environment.

Different studies and researches in different countries have emphasized compliance of leadership style in terms of success conditions. The relationship between managers and culture, and leaders and culture is different. Managers tend to be the people who get things done, and the corporate culture is the mechanism they use to understand how to communicate, how to work and what to expect on a day to day basis. The managerial staff knows what the current

*Corresponding Author: Kamran Nazari Department of Business Management, Payam Noor University, Iran
Kamran0156@yahoo.com
culture expects, how to feed and nurture the existing culture and how strong or weak the culture is. Managers of transnational organizations should necessarily show flexibility proportional to culture differences, respect to the differences, recognize motivates of the people, and select a suitable style of leadership in accord to situations and then take action with regard to the individuals under their supervision to realize defined objectives. Purpose of this research is to achieve relationship between cultures and leadership styles. Effective leaders set direction and motivate, inspire, and align people (Bakotie, 2008; Savage & ales, 2008). Leaders promote learning organizations by encouraging employees to develop their abilities and skills. A critical leadership competency is analyzing how organizations respond to changes in their internal and external environments (Jones, 2004). Proactive leadership can enhance an organization’s effectiveness. A leader’s behavior can affect the behavior of those who follow (Davis & Rothstein, 2006; Simmons, 2002). Vision, innovation, and creative abilities are essential traits for effective leaders. Such traits allow individuals in leadership positions to work harmoniously with followers and other organizational leaders (Davis & Rothstein, 2006).

The role of culture

Plays different roles in an organization’s culture has a variety of tasks and responsibilities include: Corporate culture to corporate employees, corporate culture makes it easy to make a commitment. Organizational culture helps to shape corporate culture on employee behavior. Organizational culture on performance management functions and stabilizing influence in the way of motivation (strength and encouragement).

The relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction and performance

Individual differences, but this correlation function is said to be outlined. For example, the organizational culture that focuses on individual tasks supervision and control is much more several and people are rated according to their success. Rules and regulation so that it can substitute for the official control of the organization to act. Mind and soul as the body that controls the culture and that makes people feel better about the unique work they do, extent of their commitment is strong - cultural beliefs and values – reduces the organization’s members about the status and location, and causes it to have full consensus. But the culture of the organizations that they are weak and poor people with little commitment to the organization’s values will be. Values – based management approach is to implement organizational change so that strategic decisions.

MODEL OF ORGANIZATION CULTURE

1-Mechanical model – organic:

Many scholars have commented on this model and it has been described in various books. Based on this model due to environmental factors is crucial. This is how simple or complex environmental conditions and the rate of change is fast or slow. Lead to the emergence of four styles of management and organizational is also a slight difference the whole model could be derived below.

Simplify the complexity of the environment

| Uncertainty perceived moderate |
| Environment: there are few elements in the environment that are similar and in a process of continuous change. |
| Elements: low complexity, low formalization centralized |
| Complex and unstable systems |
| Complex uncertainty in the lower level |
| Environments: there are numerous elements in the environment that are similar a continuous change formation process |
| Structure, low complexity, low formalization and decentralization |
| Corganic systems |
| Structure. High complexity, high formalization and decentralization |
| Mechanical model organic (Robbins, 1999) |

Brenner’s theory and were expensive to began with Stacker study English and Scottish company twenty two distinct structures (mechanical and organic) were introduced. Most effective in terms of their structure, which structure their compliance with the requirements of the environment. Mechanical structure in stable and secure environment and organic structures in a turbulent environment variable is used. (Robbins, 1999) “Emery and Torbat’ with more complex ideas with a model that identifies four types of are environment:

Fixed the non-related components.
Fixed environment together with associated components.
The response variable.
Environments with highly variable elements (Robbins, 1999.)

Continued (Albeit Lawrence Rash) from Howard University in the research environment of constant and complex organization concluded that the turbulent environment, is faced with complex and varied. It is the
separation between sub-units. If the external environment and internal environment of very diverse organization is of high resolution. Units within the organization for which they do not move in a different mechanism for internal integration is necessary. (Robbins, 1999)

**Charles Henry Model**

Although theory of Charles Henry (clover organization) know about this research in the field of culture, undoubtedly an important resource management are based Hindi studies on Harrison (organizational – ideology) was brought into operation and was brought into operation and organizational culture into four categories:

Model that combines the ideas of all those career in mechanical and organic view of organization have zhae. Richard rinsing well in his book the model identifies four categories of organizational culture (organizational culture, and stable mechanical) is used.

1. Power – oriented culture – the competitive (and non accountable to the profession)
2. The employee – oriented culture – consensus (denial management control)
3. Task – oriented culture – focused on the competence and dynamism.
4. The role of culture – oriented – focused on the legitimacy of low and bureaucracy, the division and developed a new model to its ideology and organization, called on the organization culture. Hindi, four types of organizational culture.

Richard rinsing well in his book the model identifies four categories of organizational culture (organizational culture, and stable mechanical) is used.

1. The power of culture: That culture is a central power source that will power. Rules and procedures are limited and competitive organizational climate, and political power is oriented.
2. The role of culture: It by works and in accordance with procedures and rules and rule or job description is by controlled and importance of a person who is doing it and sai swim in four types of Hindi culture book (Gods management 2000) is clearly drawn to it based on that model is provided in this book. Two important factors (stability rate – inside or outside) is introduced. Hindi debate about the organizational culture of the model could be derived.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Personality: quiet passive , cantinas , reliable and stable</th>
<th>Template: Apollo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type culture: role</td>
<td>The role of culture organizational</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure: machine</td>
<td>Emphasis on discipline</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hrsy model – Blanchard**

Blanchard Hrsy and considering both internal cohesion and adaptability two factors are used as a Hindi to identify four types of culture are shown in the figure below:

Hrsy model- Blnchard

Blanchard Hrsy and consifering both internal cohesion and adaptability two futors are used as a Hivndi to identify fow types of culture are shownin the fignre below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low internal cohesion</th>
<th>Competitive culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learning culture</td>
<td>Participatory culture</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hrsy model- Blnchard(Hsy, Blnchard, Mangemen of organizational behavior, 1370)

The Queen:
Robert Queen is one of the researchers on the corporate culture of acceptance that he has a special model the Queen is shown in the figure below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Control</th>
<th>flenble</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The cross Of efficiency and profitability</td>
<td>Market –oriented model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational model – target</td>
<td>Objective: Human , security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hierarchical model</td>
<td>Staffing model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose: To stabilize and balance the internal process</td>
<td>The tribal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective: To develop human resources The internal consistency</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Queen of effective models, which are divided into four categories commensurate with the extent of any organization inside or outside the control or adjustment of the organizational culture are identified. Some model and John pushed cells is presented. They also control the amount of attention inside and outside the four market oriented culture (customer – oriented – can be risky – Entrepreneurship and new Avar) , (Emphasis on loyalty and commitment and teamwork and employee satisfaction) culture cross ( Co – operation between contractors and the
emphasis on measurable objectives) and hierarchical (bureaucratic and emphasis on shared symbols and organizational performance) have presented (Moghimi 2000).

We can see that model is very similar to the model Hrsy – Blanchard, that instead of market – oriented culture, rather than collaborative and cross, rather than competitive and tribal, the learning culture.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizational culture</th>
<th>Rational culture Specific</th>
<th>Ideological culture</th>
<th>Culture, participation and consensus</th>
<th>Culture hierarchy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organization</td>
<td>organization goals</td>
<td>Mission of the organization</td>
<td>Surcial of the group</td>
<td>Orders</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance benchmarks</td>
<td>Efficiency</td>
<td>Outsdo support agencies</td>
<td>The group</td>
<td>Control and Stability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The reference</td>
<td>Chief</td>
<td>Leader</td>
<td>Join the group</td>
<td>Provisions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Power supply</td>
<td>Merit</td>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Informal sources</td>
<td>Technical knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The decision</td>
<td>Rational</td>
<td>Judgment</td>
<td>Participatory</td>
<td>Hierarchical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Success</td>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>Solidarity</td>
<td>Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership style</td>
<td>Directional</td>
<td>Personal/risky</td>
<td>Supportive/friendly</td>
<td>Conservative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation criteria and</td>
<td>Typical yields</td>
<td>Intensity of sffort</td>
<td>Quality of relationship</td>
<td>Formal models</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Members</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compliance Practices</td>
<td>Brasa Treaty organization</td>
<td>Commitment to Values</td>
<td>Commitment to the group</td>
<td>Supervision/control</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Stanly Davis Model**

Davis believes that the actions of an organization are conflict with cultural realities will be met with resistance and actions that are more compatible with the culture may be more readily accepted. (Davis, p35)

He was one of their famous models that model (risk culture) is called, was presented. Davis degrees of risk depending on the cultural response to questions that are important.

1. What is the significance of any successful strategy?
2. The amount of any action consistent with what is corporate culture?

He set model in each of the questions with high, medium, low in the matrix in figure 19 below illustrates. (Davis, 1993)

**Cultural Risk Assessment Model**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low rates with high culture</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unaccepte ptable risk</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control risk</td>
<td>Negigibe risk</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Stanley Davis model (Davis 1993, P35)

Be seen be seen in the left bottom part of the strategy include actions or steps that reflect the risk is negligible, because the degree of their compatibility with the existing culture in the organization is located in a high order and is not any danger to the strategy.

In the front (upper right side of the table) that defines faht extremely important for the strategy but also clearly disagrees with the existing culture.

Although none of the two factors do not change the culture and strategy reflect this risk is acceptable .Other aspects of risk control strategies that they can call the risk will be. Certainly the boundaries separating risk (negligible manageable and acceptable) from each other are fixed –line and on about how they are judged.

Culture and strategy. Its basic strategy that is important for the organization potential impact of their proposed actions are clearly observed. (Davis 1993)

**The Robbins**

Robbins model your organizational culture based on assumption .the foundation has the following seven.

1. Due to the innovation and creativity: How to encourage innovation and risk-taking staff.
2. Attention to detail Negri: Accuracy rate that employees must have in order to analyze the issues.
3. According to Reeves, the amount of management attention to the result, the methods and processes.
4. The members of the organization: The extent of participation by employees and managers that allow management employees to participate in decision making.
5. According to the system: The amount of teamwork and team.
6. Ambition: The ambition and courage that the staff are transformative.
7. Sustainability: The organizations emphasis on maintaining the status.
Robbins in agency theory distinguishing aspect of organizational culture in ten cites the case with the assumptions of corporate culture has already been stated. This cultural are distinction:

1- The individual innovation
2- The risk tolerance
3- Direction
4- The integrity and unity
5- Relation with subordinates manager
6- Control
7- Purpose
8- Reward system
9- Tolerate conflict
10- Models of communication (Robbins, 1999).

11- To identify an organizations culture, it is necessary to study in different cultures.

Leadership Style Terms

Charismatic/inspirational leadership provides employees with a role model for a vision and ethical standards to live by. The charismatic leader provides a clear sense of purpose (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Individualized consideration in leaders is recognized by a development orientation toward followers that encourages them to grow to the followers’ fullest potential (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The last transformational leadership factor is intellectual stimulation, which causes followers to use their imaginations and insights in creative ways, generate new thoughts, and question paradigms (Avolio & Bass).

A laissez-faire approach is similar, except that the leader does not care what happens in the organizational setting and therefore, does not take responsibility for followers’ actions or behaviors (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Passive-avoidant leaders may avoid any decisions or, at the very most, take corrective action only after problems have become serious (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transactional leadership is based on reinforcements that are contingent on performance of followers. Transactional leadership manifests itself in contingent reward, which defines expectations from employees and what will be received in return for performance. Transactional leadership also manifests in active or passive management by exception, which monitors performance and corrects problems when they arise, or does nothing about them at all if the manager is passive (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Transformational leadership includes idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Northouse, 2004).

Leaders display idealized influence when showing determination, taking risks, engendering a sense of empowerment, displaying a faith in others, and applying creative solutions (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The style approach may be most typified by the Blake-Mouton managerial grid,

whereby managers and leaders take a short test that nets results that can be placed on a grid (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004). The grid is divided into five areas that label the manager as taking a country club, team, middle-of-the-road, impoverished, or authority compliant approach to management. Each style comes with a specific definition, and the ideal style is team management (Northouse).

The situational approach to leadership is best typified by the Hersey-Blanchard Four Leadership Styles model (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2004). Though called a styles model, the theory delineates the types of people to be managed, based on the followers’ development and the behaviors best suited to manage them, including a delegating, supporting, coaching, or directing environment. Few research studies have been able to support Hersey and Blanchard’s model (Northouse). Fiedler (as cited by Bass, 1990) developed the contingency theory of leadership based on which styles of leaders were best or worst for a particular organizational context. The styles are generally described as task- or relationship-motivated, and the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale was developed to measure the contingency theory construct. Leaders who scored high on the scale were more relationship-motivated than those who scored low. Three situations are considered in the model: position power, task structure, and leader-member relations. Task structure is either rated high or low, position power is rated strong or weak, and the leader-member relationship is either good or poor.

The three constructs, taken together, determine the preferred leadership style in a particular organizational context. The Least Preferred Co-Worker instrument has received much criticism because it does not correlate well with other leadership measures and the instrument is difficult to complete correctly. Even Fiedler admitted something was lacking because the theory does not explain some important phenomena (Northouse, 2004).

much criticism because it does not correlate well with other leadership measures and the instrument is difficult to complete correctly. Even Fiedler admitted something was lacking because the theory does not explain some important phenomena (Northouse, 2004).
Leadership styles are strong predictors of organizational culture, and the styles can affect two types of culture that, in turn, affect productivity of organizations. The two types of cultures that styles can affect are innovative culture and competitive cultures, which are externally oriented cultures, but style has little effect on bureaucratic and community cultures, which are internally oriented. The implication is that leadership style has an indirect effect on productivity through organizational culture (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). The researchers also found that transactional leadership was not linked to superior performance. However, MacKenzie et al. (2001), found in a study of salespeople, that transformational leadership directly related to performance.

There is significant concern regarding the four factors of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and idealized consideration. The constructs may not be clearly delimited and may be measuring the same concept. Some of the transformational leadership factors have been found to correlate highly with laissez-faire, which suggests that the factors may not be unique to transformational leadership. The newest version of the MLQ may validate the legitimacy of the factors (Northouse, 2004). The primary focus of the current study is to determine what leadership quality relates with the highest levels of job satisfaction and a functional organizational culture. The precise type of transformational leadership a leader displays may not be critical. What is critical is whether a leader is transformational or displays laissez-faire qualities, however, and the reliability and validity of the MLQ seems to indicate that discerning these qualities will not be problematic (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The transformational leadership model seems to treat leadership as a personality trait. If it is a personality trait, leadership may not be teachable. Many scholars, including Weber (1947), House (1976), and Bass (1995), insist that transformational leadership addresses behaviors and can therefore be taught, but the image of transformational evokes a trait, and the term visionary does as well. Further, the model seems somewhat elitist, placing the leader well above the followers in ability and power, almost in a hero’s role. This is largely because the model focuses on the leader and not on any shared or reciprocal leadership arrangement with followers. Another criticism is that the model is based on qualitative data from CEO levels of companies. More recent studies are being conducted that include leaders within organizations and not leaders of organizations, to help substantiate the model (Northouse, 2004). The last criticism is that transformational leadership can be frightening. Because part of the model involves charisma, a question may arise regarding the wholesomeness of the leader’s vision and his or her ability to evoke followership (Northouse).

Transformational leaders engender transformational leadership cultures (Bass, 1998a). Bass and Avolio (1992) stated that transformational cultures have a sense of family and shared feelings among members. Employees in transformational cultures tend to transcend immediate needs and attempt to understand and meet the organizational goals. Alternatively, transactional leadership culture focuses more on the contractual relationships between the organization and the employees. Transactional cultures engender individualism rather than organizational goals. The status quo tends to be valued, and flexibility is not encouraged (Parry & Proctor-Thompson, 2001). No culture is strictly transformational or transactional, but often a clear tendency toward one or the other is apparent.

Several studies are performed about leadership and the key factors in leadership efficiency have been inspected. A characteristic which is regarded positive in a situation might be regarded as a negative specification of leadership in another position. A special style of leadership that is suitable for individualism cultures may lead to defeat in a collectivism culture. Many studies and researches have been done in this field: Geert Hofstede has done researches over different cultures (Hofstede, 1980). Another well-known study was done by Bashir Khadra (1990).

Another important research was done by two scholars Smith and Vien (1992) in Australia, Japan, England and Taiwan, emphasizing on the behavior of the dominant person. Finding of this research is the effect of culture on types of dominance strategies. Effect of industrialization on leadership behavior has been considered as an intercultural effect. One of the studies in this field is done by Kamil Kozan (1992) and has concluded that in the countries placed in the low rank of industrialization, autocratic leadership styles are more common than other leadership styles.

Though intensive education and high wage payment may lead staff to comply with the system conditions, tendency to equalize working procedures in the world may confront with nations and native cultures and create tensions in working environments.

One of the issues found frequently in comparative studies is the comparison of Japanese culture with other cultures, specifically American one. An example of these types of research is a research done by Teib et al. (1999) on supervising styles and cultural fields from comparative perspective. In this research, two types of leadership i.e. Task Oriented and People Oriented leaderships in four countries of Japan, US, Britain and Hong Kong are studied. In task oriented leadership, performance of task is emphasized and in people oriented leadership, realization of
objectives through morale reinforcement and providing welfare for the staff are of great importance. The specifications of each of the mentioned styles are defined and specified as below:

**Specifications of task oriented leadership**
1. It informs staff of the plans and tasks.
2. It directs and instructs them.
3. It determines accurate and clear timeline for performing the works.
4. It is fully aware of work devices and equipments available to the staff.
5. It wants staff to report their work progress.
6. It leads the staff to work in specified time limit.
7. It doesn’t allow waste of time due to unsuitable planning.
8. It tries to lead the staff to work in their maximum capacity and ability.

**Specifications of People Oriented Leadership**
1. It improves working facilities of the staff.
2. It understands attitudes of the people.
3. It wants to know beliefs of the staff.
4. It behaves staff justly.
5. The staffs are available to communicate.
6. It deals with personal problems.
7. It trusts in staff.
8. It is interested in the work future of the staff.
9. It recognizes their good performance.
10. It supports staff.

On the basis of findings of Teib, both two types of leadership are available in all cultures; however the way staffs perceive the distinction between two styles depends on their cultural field. Results of this research show that while a special behavior is regarded task oriented in some culture, it might be considered people oriented in another culture.

People of different cultures have different expectations from their managers and leaders; origin and cultural records of people have effect on formation of their expectations (Mandanghal, 1995). In a research done by Andre Loran, in response to this question that “Is it important that manager accurately knows the answer to questions of his staff which may be related to their work?”, different individuals of various cultures have given different answers. In Swedish management viewpoint, this requirement is not available, while Japanese management has emphasized this necessity. Most of the American managers believe that the role of a manager is to help solve problems, meaning he can help staff detect the ways for solving problems by their own, not he just answers all their questions. The reason is giving solution to all problems causes staff lose their own motivation for innovation and creativity, and finally their productivity decreases. On the other hand, most of French managers believe that manager should give his staff accurate and clear answers so that he can preserve his credit among them.

**Conclusion**

Leadership may affect organizational culture in important ways. Evidence that leadership may affect performance of an organization exists, with organizational culture being a mitigating factor (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). The definitions pertaining to leadership and organizational culture are derived from the instruments that were used in this research. For the leadership definitions, Avolio and Bass’s (2004) definitions are used. For organizational culture, Bass and Avolio’s (1992) definitions are used. Bass (1985) delineated the differences between transformational and transactional leadership:

Employee turnover is defined by the number of employees who leave an organization in a specified period of time. Employee turnover involves both direct and indirect costs.

Turnover can be calculated by dividing the number of employees at midmonth into the number of separations during the same month and multiplying by 100 (Bohlander & Snell, 2004). For example, if a veterinary practice has 30 employees at midmonth and two left during that month, the turnover rate would be 6.67%.

Linkages between Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Organizational Culture Strong leaders build a strong sense of community (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Russell & Stone, 2002). Part of being a strong leader requires leaders to not only honor the diversity of constituencies but also to inspire them to share a common vision. Leaders inspire by maintaining credibility in all they do and by modeling the way (Kouzes & Posner, 2004). Bass and Avolio (2004)
noted that “[t]here is a constant interplay between culture and leadership. Leaders create mechanisms for cultural development and the reinforcement of norms and behaviors expressed within the boundaries of the culture” (p. 113).

Leaders affect the organization’s culture, and the culture affects the leader (Bass, 1998a). Leaders create a vision and engender dedication to that vision in a cultural context (Bass & Avolio, 1992). Transformational leaders are likely to create a culture in which the workers are considered trustworthy; there is a belief that everyone has a meaningful contribution and that many employees are capable of handling complex problems. Transformational leaders teach employees, encouraging them to reach the employee’s fullest potential. The leaders also encourage creativity. To encourage, leaders must create the mechanisms for employee development, reinforcement of norms, and rewards for desired behaviors (Bass & Avolio).

Likewise, an organization’s culture can establish the boundaries in which leaders can operate. For example, if an organization has been accustomed to autonomy and trust at the middle-management levels, it may be harder for a leader to exert behaviors that may increase his or her personal power. If a leader wishes to change cultural assumptions and behaviors, he or she needs to recognize that desired changes must evolve over a long period (Bass & Avolio, 1992).

Leaders’ effect on organizational culture was apparent in a study of multinational organizations that focused on performance-oriented values, long-term employee commitment, and continuous improvement (Rodsutti & Sweirczek, 2002). Companies that focused on these values were shown to perform better than those that did not, in a study of over 1,000 firms. The organizations were effective partly because they placed leaders with nurturing personalities in supporting roles so that the organization had a transformational feel. The practice maximized the employee satisfaction in the companies studied (Rodsutti & Sweirczek).

REFERENCES
5. D. Quinn Mills (2005), "Asian and American Leadership Styles: How are they unique?"


27. stitution education and research of management and programming (2003)


30. Zahedi, Shamsolsadat (1999), "Comparative study on leadership styles", governmental management, 45&46, 14-