

REVIEW FOR EXAM 3

CHAPTER 10: MANAGING CONFLICT AND NEGOTIATIONS

Define Conflict, functional conflict versus dysfunctional conflict, consequences of functional versus dysfunctional, conflict continuum.

Conflict: A process that begins when one party perceives that another party has negatively affected, or is about to negatively affect, something that the first party values. **Conflict is a form of influence.**

Functional conflict: is Constructive and can result in new ideas, learning, and growth; typically, cognitive and may involve challenging ideas, standards, or processes that are ineffective. But even functional conflict needs to be resolved before it gets nasty.

Dysfunctional conflict: Places the focus on the conflict, rather than the work or organization, it is typically emotional in origin and may involve aggression or threats directed at specific people.

Outcomes of functional and dysfunctional conflict:

Positive consequences:

Leads to new ideas.

Stimulates creativity.

Motivates change.

Promotes organizational vitality.

Helps individuals and groups establish identities.

Serves as a safety valve to indicate problems.

Negative Consequences.

Diverts energy from work.

Threatens psychological well-being.

Wastes resources.

Creates a negative climate.

Breaks down group cohesion.

Can increase hostility and aggressive behaviors.

Functional conflict doesn't just resolve the issue, it builds the capacity to keep future conflicts functional

Conflict continuum: in the 1970's it was proposed some conflict, functional conflict can be good. Goldilox, not too little, not too much.

Escalation of conflict

While conflict can often begin in a functional way, it can escalate and turn dysfunctional.

Escalation of conflict can be signaled by these 5 indicators:

- (1) Use of threatening tactics or power plays
- (2) More issues are brought into the conflict
- (3) Issues move **from specific to general**
- (4) More people and groups get involved
- (5) **Goals shift** from 'resolution' to 'winning' or even just harming the other party

Causes of Conflict

Causes of conflict (structural vs. personal).

Structural factors: Situation around you,

- (1) Specialization (of tasks or rules),
- (2) Interdependence (requires cooperation),
- (3) Common resources (sharing resources),
- (4) Goal differences,
- (5) Authority relationships (when we don't like another person telling them what to do),
- (6) Status inconsistencies (difference between management vs. non-management),

Personal factors: Things unique to the person,

- (1) Skills and abilities,
- (2) Personalities (especially abrasiveness),
- (3) Perception of situational variables,
- (4) Values and ethics,
- (5) Emotional flare ups,
- (6) Communication barriers,
- (7) Cultural differences,

Three types of role conflict (the dominant form of intrapersonal conflict).

Interrole: Conflict between multiple roles in his/her life.

Intrarole: Conflict from multiple senders to one role. (two people telling you how to do one role)

Person-role: Conflict from one's personal values. Personal values conflict with role. Ex: Vegans wouldn't work at a meat market.

Experienced Conflict – Perceived and felt conflict define the actual conflict that the parties then attempt to resolve; this definition or strength of the conflict can be affected by many things:

- (1) The importance of what is affected by the structural or personal factor
- (2) The motives that parties attribute for the others' actions, the assumptions they're making
- (3) The existing relationship between the parties (e.g., trusting, critical, power inequalities, etc.)

The conflict may be very important to one party and not a big deal to the other.

Experienced conflict, intergroup conflict (in-group bias)

Experienced conflict: Perceived and felt conflict define the actual conflict that the parties then attempt to resolve; this definition can be affected by many things:

Conflict can be between groups. For example, a clique. In-Group bias or inter-group conflict. In this case the group will stereotype the other group. Group conflict can become a norm – members may not even know why they dislike the other group, they just know that they do.

Intergroup conflict (in-group bias): When in a group, members develop shared perceptions of conflict (i.e., conflict states)

Conflict states often reinforce group cognitions and escalate conflict through “in-group” biases: Four categories.

- (1) In-group members view themselves as unique individuals, yet stereotypes members of other groups,
- (2) In-group members see themselves as morally correct, and outsiders as immoral,
- (3) Outsiders are viewed as threats,
- (4) Differences between other groups are distorted,

Conflict Management

Conflict management two styles, (1) cooperative vs (2) competitive, five styles

The nature of the perceived/felt conflict, along with a person's or group's traits, determine the strategies that emerge in their conflict process:

Cooperative strategies: I care about what you get. Assume win-win is possible, engage in honest communication, trust, and openness to risk/vulnerability.

Assertive/Competitive strategies: I care about what I get. Assume win-lose will happen, dishonest communication, rigid positions

Conflict Management Five Styles:

- (1) Competing, get the most for me, zero-sum orientation, win-lose power struggle, I must be the one who is right.
- (2) Avoiding, withdraw from situation, maintain neutrality.
- (3) Compromise, minimally acceptable to all, relationship undamaged.
- (4) Collaborating, best way, expand range of possible options, achieve win/win result.
- (5) Accommodating, I care about the other person's needs – accede to other party – maintain harmony.

Conflict - handling style:

Competing, use when:

- (1) When quick, decisive action is vital (e.g. emergencies),
- (2) On important issues where, unpopular actions need implementing (e.g., cost cutting, enforcing unpopular rules, discipline).
- (3) On issues vital to company welfare when you know you are right
- (4) Against people who take advantage of noncompetitive behavior.

Collaborating, use when:

- (1) To find an integrative solution when both sets of concerns are too important to be compromised.
- (2) When your objective is to learn.
- (3) to merge insights from people with different perspectives.
- (4) To gain commitment by incorporating concerns into consensus.
- (5) To work through feelings that have interfered with a relationship.

Compromising, use when:

- (1) When goals are important but not worth the effort or potential disruption of more assertive modes.
- (2) When opponents with equal power are committed to mutually exclusive goals.
- (3) To achieve temporary settlements to complex issues.
- (4) To arrive at expedient solutions under pressure.
- (5) As a backup when collaboration or competition is unsuccessful.

Avoiding: use when:

- (1) When an issue is trivial or more important issues are pressing.
- (2) When you perceive no chance of satisfying your concerns.
- (3) When potential disruption outweighs the benefits of resolution.
- (4) To let people, cool down to regain perspectives.
- (5) When gathering information supersedes immediate decision.
- (6) When others can resolve the conflict more effectively.
- (7) When issues seem tangential or systematic of other issues.

Accommodating, use when:

- (1) When you find you are wrong, to allow a better position to be heard, to learn, and to show your reasonableness.
- (2) When issues are more important to others than to yourself, to satisfy others and maintain cooperation.
- (3) To build social credits for later issues.
- (4) To minimize loss when you are out matched and losing.
- (5) When harmony and stability are especially important.
- (6) To allow employees to develop by learning from mistakes.

Effective techniques vs. ineffective techniques (can be used in different styles)

Ineffective techniques among the styles include:

Nonaction, secrecy, administrative orbiting (delays), due process nonaction (system is too costly), character assassination

Effective techniques include:

Superordinate goals, bring in new resources to solve the problem, change personnel, re-structure, finding common ground, allowing parties to safely express frustrations, letting people take the lead in solving problems with which they're familiar

Psychological safety:

1. Is a shared belief that it is safe to engage in risky behavior, such as questioning practices or ideas, without retribution.
2. Encourages functional conflict.
3. Dysfunctional conflict can be prevented by building psychological safety

What is interpersonal conflict?

Occurs when a person or group of people frustrates or interferes with another person's efforts at achieving a goal. (from google)

Negotiation/Negotiation Process

1. Negotiation is planned conflict.
2. Formal process
3. A limited form of conflict.
4. Only two strategies, competing (distributive) or collaborating (integrative).
5. Two types of negotiation strategies, difference between them, consequences of each

Distributive bargaining (competing):

1. Zero-sum game conditions, any gain one party makes is a loss to the other, low information sharing, opposed interests

Consequences: parties compete for power, leveraging offers, deadlines, and politics.

Integrative Bargaining (collaborative):

1. Broadens goods/services to ensure win-win;
2. high information sharing, congruent interests

Consequences: parties focus on long-term relationships, through being open, focusing on underlying goals, and considering alternatives

Five steps of negotiation

1. Preparation and planning:
 - a. Define own goals,
 - b. anticipate partner's goals,
 - c. gather data on similar negotiations,
 - d. develop strategy,
 - e. identify least acceptable outcomes (for all parties),
2. Definition of ground rules:
 - a. Who were when why,
 - b. Set people,
 - c. issues to cover,
 - d. place, time allotted,
3. Clarification and justification:
 - a. Elaborate on positions,
 - b. What do the parties want?
4. Bargaining and problem-solving:
 - a. Make concessions,
5. Closure/implementation:
 - a. Contract, if needed,

Solutions in negotiation impasse:

1. Third-parties are used:
2. Conciliator: Only mediates communication,
3. Mediator: Rationally facilitates an agreement,
4. Arbitrator: Dictates an agreement,

CHAPTER 11: POWER, INFLUENCE, AND POLITICS

Power

Rational model versus Political model of organizations

Rational model of organization: Considers effectiveness and behaviors as being driven by objective, measurable, and formal processes.

Political model of organizations: Recognizes that effectiveness and organizational behavior is driven by people with competing interests who are using informal social processes to achieve goals.

Definitions of Power, Influence, and Authority. How are they different? How are they related?

Power vs Influence:

1. **Power is a measure of person's ability or capacity** to influence the attitudes and behaviors of other individuals; it is based in a dyadic (two-person) relationship.
2. **Influence is the use of power or actual process of affecting attitudes** or behaviors.

Authority (formal power) only influences subordinate behavior if the request falls in the zone of indifference (i.e., it is perceived as legitimate – boss can't tell you to do his laundry)

Zone of indifference

1. request made of you that is part of your job
2. Easy to influence someone if you have authority over them

How are they different? How are they related?

Managers in organizations typically have authority, which is the formal right to influence a subordinate

A manager may have authority through her position, but no power. She may not have the skill or ability to influence other people.

Five bases of power

1. Coercive,
2. Reward,
3. Legitimate,
4. Expert,
5. Referent,

Three forms of power that **rely heavily on monitoring** – structural forms of power – reside in roll – lead to compliance,

1. Coercive power,
2. Reward power,
3. Legitimate power,

Personal forms of power: resides in the person.

1. Expert power: resides in the individual, results in optimal performance, learning,
2. Referent power: based on interpersonal attraction, tend to be role models, charisma is rooted in referent power,

Reward power: (usually tied to formal power)

1. based on an influencer's control over rewards desired by a target; employee must see a clear and strong link to the reward. (give you something you want because you did something I want you to do) for example salary increases, bonuses, and promotions.
2. Can lead to better performance as long as the employee sees a clear and strong link between performance and rewards. Manager should be explicit about the behavior being rewarded.

Coercive power:

1. Based on influencer's control over punishments;
2. Target must believe conformity will avoid punishment,
3. That is based on an agent's ability to cause the target to have an unpleasant experience. Force with threats. (Like punishment, I have the power to make you do something by doing something negative to you)

Legitimate power:

1. based on position and mutual agreement that an influencer can affect/dictate the behavior of a target,
2. narrow range that is specifically defined (teacher only has power in class),
3. For legitimate power to be effective, the employees must also believe the manager has the right to tell them what to do.

Expert power:

1. the power that exists when an agent has specialized knowledge or skills that the target needs.
2. 3 conditions must be placed: target must trust the expertise, knowledge involved must be relevant and useful to the target, and target's perception of the agent as an expert is crucial.

Referent power:

1. based on interpersonal attraction and feelings of identity with an influencer; targets will seek to behave and perceive in similar ways to influencers and may not realize the existence of referent power.
2. Agent does not need to be superior to the target in any way. Often respected by the target and are very charismatic individuals.

Information power:

1. is based on access to and control over the presentation of useful information;
2. actor's framing of information can influence/bias recipient's interpretation
3. 'Power Sharing and Empowerment' chapter in the book

Dependence: When power relations are imbalanced favoring the influencer, the target may resist and engage in one of two modes:

1. Cost reduction, where the target makes it easier for

him/herself to conform to the influencer (typically by changing their values on relevant entities) accept professor

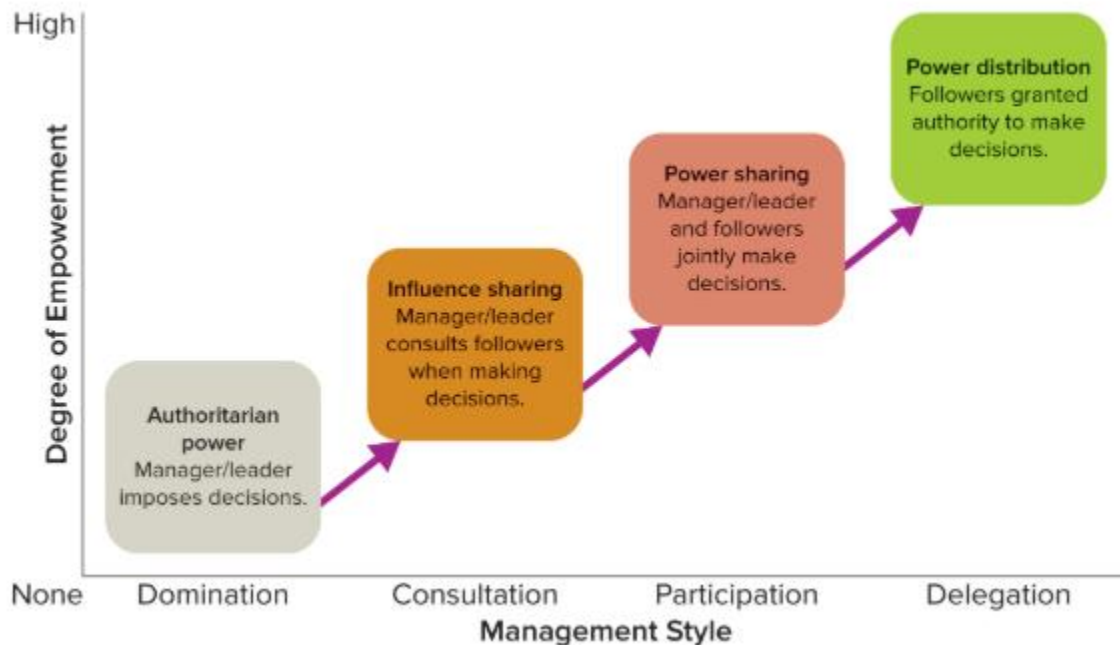
2. Balancing operations, the target seeks to reduce dependence on the influencer (e.g., disengage from the goal, find alternatives, coalitions, etc.) take different professor

Power Sharing and empowerment:

Empowerment consists of efforts to “enhance employee performance, favorably influences, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, performance, turnover, and employee stress.

Structural empowerment transfers authority and responsibilities from management to employees.

Empowerment is not a zero-sum game in which one person’s gain is another’s loss. Sharing power, via empowerment, is a means of increasing your own power.



Degrees of empowerment:

Domination: authoritarian power -manager imposes decisions.

Consultation: Influence sharing – manager consults followers before making decision.

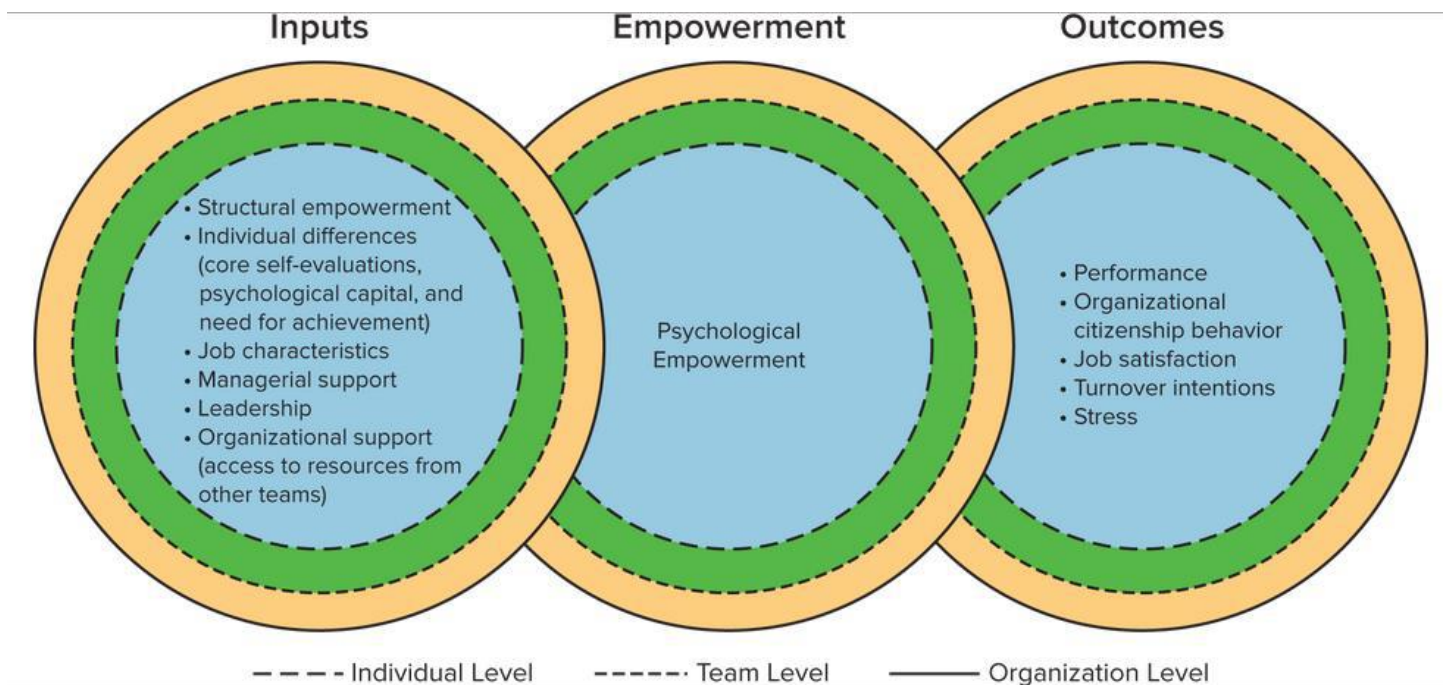
Participation: Power sharing – manager and followers make decisions jointly.

Delegation: Power distribution: followers granted authority to make decision.

Psychological Empowerment,

Psychological empowerment occurs when we feel a sense of:

- (1) **Meaning,** is a belief that our work values and goals align with those of our manager, team, or employer.
- (2) **Competence,** is our personal evaluation of our ability to do our job.
- (3) **Self-determination,** is the Sense that we have control over our work and its outcomes.
- (4) **Impact at work,** is the feeling



Empowerment positively influences performance for individuals, teams, and organizations. The benefits also include citizenship behaviors, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, and creativity and reduces stress for individuals and teams.

Organizational Politics,

Definition of Organizational Politics and what workers/employees generally believe about politics in organizations

Organizational politics is the use of power and social influence to obtain desired outcomes in organizations (How good are you at using your power)

What workers/employees generally believe about politics in orgs?

The three “rules” of politics in any organization are:

1. informal (they arise organically),
2. often unspoken, and,
3. learned either through indirect/vicarious experience or directly from those with political power,

Political Behavior,

Definition of Political Behavior. What is the key to effective political behavior?

-Influence tactics: definitions, primary reasons different people use them, which ones are most effective for what outcomes (commitment, compliance, resistance)

-Impression management tactics: definitions, what impression different tactics generate

Political behavior is any action not sanctioned by the organization that is taken to influence others in order to meet one’s personal goals

Political behavior can be:

1. Defensive - I messed up, (reactive) or assertive I am trying to get something (proactive),
2. Tactical (short-term) or strategic (long term) – more careful on responses when hire ups are copied,

Political behavior typically consists of either,

Influence tactics,

a direct means of influencing others,

by altering their behavior and thoughts,
and gaining power

Influence tactics, the primary reasons different people use them:

1. Higher performance evaluation ratings,
2. Higher pay,
3. Greater assessments of promotability,
4. Heightened overall career success,
5. Improved leader-follower relations,

The most **effective influence tactics** for each outcome are:

To get Commitment to a task: use Inspirational appeals, rational persuasion, or consultation,

To gain compliance use Exchange, or integration,

Expect Resistance using Coalition, pressure, upward appeals – telling the person's boss,

Impression management tactics, which are an indirect means of influencing others and gaining power by creating a desired image of oneself in the minds of others, which then alters their behavior,

What impression different tactics generate:

- (1) Ingratiation: effective, appear likeable, attractive,
- (2) self-promotion: appear competent, expert,
- (3) Exemplification: most effective - appear loyal, conscientious, dependable, reliable,
- (4) Intimidation: appear aggressive, powerful, dangerous,
- (5) Supplication: appear weak, compliant, (I have a lot of shit to do! JB), the action of asking or begging for something earnestly or humbly, for example he fell to his knees in supplication,

The key to successful influence or impression management is:

- **to appear sincere** and genuine in one's actions or requests,

Influence targets likely to **suspect ulterior or** self-interested motives **when behavior not consistent with** social norms or not appropriate for the goal,

Political Behavior more likely when:

1. **Ambiguity in work** processes and procedures enhances politics: e.g., low formalization, low centralization, minimal feedback, etc.,
2. Norms that produce **large and rigid power differentials** enhance politics: e.g., authoritarian leadership, normative formal power usage, etc.
3. **High frequency of social interactions**- **you work with others**, can enhance politics; e.g., personal accountability becomes salient

Politics is not bad, but perceived bad by those not politicking,

1. Increased stress, and intention to turnover,
2. Decreased satisfaction, commitment, and performance,
3. Increased likelihood of others engaging in political behavior themselves,
4. Decreased perceptions of justice/fairness,

Perceptions of Politics, (POPS) and primary causes of the perception of politics,

Perception of politics (POPS) is the degree to which people attribute other people's behavior to self-interested motives (i.e., poorly executed political behavior), or perceive their organization's formal processes to be biased by social influence

Political Skill

Political Skill, outcomes and functions of political skill, four dimensions of political skill

Political skill is the ability to effectively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objective
Political skill has been found to enhance the social and organizational effectiveness of employees and leaders

Why you need political skill, political skill can serve many functions for an individual, including:

1. Neutralize stressors (e.g., role conflict, role overload, supervisor conflict, POPS for oneself),
2. Increases effectiveness of political behavior (e.g., enhance likelihood of desired outcome, reduce the likelihood that they will be perceived as solely self-serving),
3. Enhancing work outcomes (e.g., job performance, leader effectiveness, trust),

Political skill consists of four dimensions:

1. Social astuteness: Understanding of social dynamics, self-awareness,
2. Interpersonal influence: Adapting one's behavior to meet situational demands and elicit desired responses in others,
3. Networking ability: Develop social relations and alliances, obtain resources,
4. Apparent sincerity: Appear authentic, only works if others buy it,

Developing political skill, best when mentored by someone who does it.

Managing

How to manage politics

Leaders often use influence and impression management tactics to:

1. Enhance cooperation,
2. Create consensus in how things are perceived,
3. Clarify and inspire goal-directed team performance,

There are two employee experiences that can help reduce the negative effects of POPS (This can be done situationally (e.g., leadership or management actions, organizational processes, etc.), or by enhancing employees' political skill):

1. Understanding the causes, expectations, norms, and general nature of politics in one's context
2. Having a sense of control over the arising and enactment of politics in one's context

The other primary approach is to reduce the likelihood of political behavior and POPS arising in the first place, some tactics include:

1. Transparent communication and feedback (reduces uncertainty),
2. Managing and clarifying resource allocation,
3. Participative management and involvement (neutralizes threat in felt accountability),
4. Encouraging cooperation among groups,
5. Managing scarce resources equitably,

CHAPTER 12: LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Basics of Leadership

Leadership:

The process of influencing others to achieve group or organizational goals, lead change,

Trait approach to leadership. Which traits are associated with the likelihood of leading?

1. Many of the personal traits (stable psychological tendencies) associated with leadership are linked to traits,
2. Drive (conscientiousness, extraversion, need for achievement),
3. Desire to lead (need for power),

4. Honesty/integrity (agreeableness, values),
5. Self-confidence (self-esteem, self-efficacy) and emotional stability,
6. Conceptual and analytical cognitive abilities (IQ), and knowledge of their business (human capital),

Leadership is an emergent, fleeting, comes and go.

Behavioral approach to leadership (structure vs. consideration behaviors)

Further research found that leaders generally perform two types of behaviors:

1. Initiating structure (task-oriented): Defining and organizing work relationships and roles, establishing patterns of communication and task accomplishment,
2. Consideration (person-oriented): Nurturing friendly and warm working relationships, encouraging mutual trust and respect. No one wants to work with a mean A-hole,

Contingency Theories

Contingency theories of leadership

- Fiedler's Contingency theory, three characteristics of situations that make them favorable versus non-favorable, two styles of leadership, when would you use each style?
- Situational Leadership model (Hershey-Blanchard), two characteristics of employee readiness, four types of leader behavior, when would you use the four different types of leader behavior?

Contingency theories assert that the leadership style must be appropriate for the particular situation in order to enhance worker performance

Fiedler's Contingency Theory asserts:

1. Leaders are either task-oriented or relationship-oriented (assessed via LPC – situation),
2. and function more or less effectively based on the favorableness of the context in which they function

Three characteristics of situations that make them favorable versus non-favorable:

1. Leader-member relations – strong relationship between leader and subordinates (favorable) vs weak relationship (unfavorable),
2. Task Structure – task is clearly structured (favorable) or ambiguous (unfavorable),
3. Position Power – strong legitimate power (favorable) / weak power (unfavorable)

Two styles of leadership, when would you use each style? Fiedler Contingency Theory,

Style one, - Task-oriented: leaders are effective in highly favorable or unfavorable situations, Think binary-extremes,

Leadership style two, - Relationship-oriented: leaders are effective in **moderately favorable situations**,

Situational Leadership Model (Hershey-Blanchard);;

Also contingency theory, Depends on who you are leading, Under the model, successful leadership is both task-relevant and relationship-relevant, managers who live by the model must **choose the leadership style** as it relates to the **maturity of followers**.

First determine follower readiness, then required amount of directive behavior and supportive behavior, which is bell curve,

Applying Situational Leadership Model (Hershey-Blanchard);;

No brainer: can they do the job? No – apply directive behavior – do this then that, can do the job don't need to tell the what to do. Extremes of bell curve, in the middle apply supportive behavior.

For employee who is unable and unwilling or insecure to work, manager uses Telling style: give specific instructions and supervise, high directive, low relational interaction,

For employee who is unable and willing or confident to work, manager **goes all in, uses selling**, high directive, higher relational interaction,

For employee who is **able but unwilling** or insecure to work, manager uses **Participating**: share ideas with followers and facilitate decision-making, low directive, higher relational interaction,

For employee who is **able and willing** or confident to work, manager uses Delegating: empower followers to make the decisions., low directive, low relational interaction,

Situational Leadership Model (Hershey-Blanchard) repeat;

1. suggests that leader behavior (task, relationship) should be adjusted to follower maturity (ability, motivation) for performing any given task
2. Two characteristics of employee readiness:
3. is determined by the ability and willingness to complete a specific task.

Relational Theories

Know, Explain Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory, dimensions, ingroup vs. outgroup,

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory:

1. **quality of the exchange relationship** with dictates ingroup vs out group,
2. LMX theory - finds that leaders **form different unique relationships** with different followers, they do not treat them all the same,
3. Leaders informally (and perhaps non-consciously) **assign subordinates to the in-group or the out-group** because they have limited resources (e.g., time, attention) to distribute among employees,
4. Similar to **social exchange theory**, you do something for me, I do something for you, when managers connect like this with employees, employees commit to leader and organization,

Relational theories LMX: Dimensions:

1. Subordinates negotiate and develop their work roles via interactions with their leaders,
2. In-group members experience: Trust, autonomy/discretion in developing role, attention, resources, challenging tasks, rewards, clearer understanding of leader expectations, likely to be com
3. Out-group members experience: Fewer rewards, less attention, guidance based on policy and procedure, less responsibility,

The quality of LMX depends on:

1. Perceived contribution to the exchange,
2. Loyalty, expression of support,
3. Affect, mutual attraction,

LMX is strongly related to six items:

1. Subordinate **job performance**,
2. **satisfaction with supervisor**,
3. **job satisfaction**,
4. **commitment**,
5. **positive role perceptions**,
6. **competence**,

Transactional

Transactional Leadership (TXL), lower-order versus higher-order exchanges

Transactional leaders (TXL) engage in mutual exchanges with followers, enforced by rewards and punishments

TXL - Lower-order exchanges involve:

1. Goals (for example, pay),
2. aspirations (for example, success),

TXL - Higher-order exchanges involve:

1. Interpersonal relations
2. mutuality
3. for example: trust, respect, emotional support

Transformational

Transformational Leadership, four dimensions/behavioral categories of Transformational Leadership. What does Transformational Leadership predict?

Transformational leaders, not bound by relationships, bound by belief,

1. behave according to **deeply held values** that can then **influence the values and goals of followers**,
2. and **inspire followers** to achieve superior levels of performance (try to get you to change your underlying value, transformation leaders get you to buy into their system),
3. transform beliefs, and values of employees, does not rely on relationships,

Four **types of behaviors/styles** **Transformational leaders** engage in:

1. **Idealized influence**: Strong personal qualities, values, or beliefs that elicit liking/attraction and regard; exceptional role model or image, if touting electric car can't drive diesel vehicle,
2. **Inspirational motivation** (charisma): Infusing work with personal meaning, generating a vision for the future, setting challenging performance standards (I have vision, there is something I have that motivates you), charisma comes and goes, you are perceived as charismatic when you offer something radical, something great, I want to follow, a challenging vision.
3. **Individualized consideration**: Concern for each follower's unique goals and needs, and providing personalized mentoring,
4. **Intellectual stimulation**: Challenging followers to **take new perspectives**, move beyond their habitual or ineffective behaviors, innovate, challenge organizational norms,

Transformational leadership **predicts**:

1. **Firm performance**,
2. **extra effort exerted** towards job performance,
3. **positive attitudes**, (for example, satisfaction and commitment),

Charisma

What is Charisma? Define Charismatic Leadership theory, what makes a person appear more charismatic? Charisma means "favor given" or "gift of grace" in Greek, and is associated with charm, kindness, being blessed

Charismatic Leadership, **transformational leadership** for the **masses**, MLK, JFK

Martin Luther King, example of charismatic leadership, has first to element of transformational leadership, Idealized influence, inspirational motivation,

Charisma resides in the relationship between leader and followers, wherein followers ascribe highly positive inspirational qualities to a leader,

Charismatic Leadership Theory?

Charismatic leadership is a part of transformational leadership, but relies more on using personal qualities/values to inspire a vision of the future,

Followers of charismatic leader will adhere to a leader's ideals to the extent that:

1. The leader's **vision satisfies the needs** of the followers, compelling vision,
2. **Identification with the leader is self-enhancing** (self-efficacy is boosted), feels good to have same values as charismatic leader,

Riskier behaviors, goals, and decisions for the sake of fulfilling one's vision, will enhance attributions of charisma.

Four ways to look more charismatic?

1. vision/goals large Degree of **discrepancy between status quo**,
2. Innovative means are used to create change, **radical change**,
3. **Realism of assessments of resources available** for change and barriers to change,
4. **Impression management effectiveness**,